



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>



THE
NEW ENCYCLOPÆDIA;
OR,
UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY
OF
ARTS AND SCIENCES.

IN WHICH

The different Sciences and Arts are digested into the Form of distinct Treatises or Systems;

Including the

LATEST DISCOVERIES AND IMPROVEMENTS;

WITH THE NATURAL, CIVIL, MILITARY, AND COMMERCIAL HISTORY, AND BIOGRAPHY OF EMINENT MEN,
OF ALL NATIONS;

A DESCRIPTION OF

ALL THE COUNTRIES, CITIES, SEAS, RIVERS, &c. OF THE KNOWN WORLD.

Including also

THE WHOLE OF DR. JOHNSON'S

DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

COMPILED FROM EVERY SOURCE OF DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN LITERATURE; AND ILLUSTRATED WITH
UPWARDS OF THREE HUNDRED AND FORTY PLATES,

AND A COMPLETE AND ACCURATE ATLAS.

IN TWENTY THREE VOLUMES.

VOL. IV.

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR VERNOR, HOOD, AND SHARPE, 31, POULTRY;
AND THOMAS OSTELL, AVE MARIA LANE.

R. Morison, Printer, Perth.

1807.



which is as much as can be done in a day. The boiler is then cleaned, and next day they begin with fresh ley.

(11.) These additions of fresh ley ought always to be made by the master bleacher, as it requires judgment to bring succeeding leys to the same strength as the first. When the cloth comes to get the second boiling, the ley should be stronger by about a 3oth part, and the deficiencies made up in the same proportion. For 6 or 7 boilings, or fewer, if the cloth be thin, the ley is increased in this way, and then gradually diminished till the cloth is fit for souring.

(12.) The whitest cloth ought always to be boiled first, that it may not be hurt by what goes before. In this process, if the cloth cannot be got dry for boiling, business does not stop as in the flax; for after the coarse has been drained, on racks made for that purpose, it is boiled, making the ley strong in proportion to the water in the cloth.

(13.) The common method of souring linen is, to mix some warm water and bran in the vat; then put a layer of cloth; then more bran, water, and cloth; and so on, till the care is full. The whole is trampled with men's feet, and fixed as in the former process. A thousand yards of cloth, yard-wide, require betwixt 4 and 6 pecks of bran. The cloth generally lies about 3 nights and two days in the sour. Others prepare their sour 24 hours before, by mixing the bran with warm water in a separate vessel; and before pouring it on the cloth, they dilute it with a sufficient quantity of water.

(14.) After the cloth is taken from the sour, it ought to be well washed and rinsed again. It is given to men to be well soaped on a table, and afterwards rubbed betwixt the rubbing-boards. When it comes from them, it should be well milled, and warm water poured on it all the time, if convenience will allow of it. Two or three of these rubbings are sufficient, and the cloth seldom requires more. After the souring begins, the ley is diminished in strength by degrees; and 3 boilings after that are commonly sufficient to finish the work.

(15.) VI. The last operation is to starch, blue, dry, and bittle it, in a machine made for that purpose, which supplies the place of a calender, and is preferred by many. This method of bleaching coarse cloths resembles that practised in Ireland for both fine and coarse. The only material difference is, that there the bleachers use no other ashes but kelp or cashub. A ley is drawn from the former by cold water, which dissolves the salts, and not the sulphureous particles of the kelp-ashes. This ley is used till the cloth is half whitened, and then they lay aside the kelp ley for one made of cashub-ashes.

(16.) Agreeably to the preceding account, bleaching is naturally divided into, 1. Steeping and milling: 2. Bucking and boiling: 3. Alternate watering and drying: 4. Souring: 5. Rubbing with soap and warm water: and, 6. Starching and blueing. We shall treat of these different parts in their order, more particularly.

SECT. II. Of STEEPING and MILLING.

(17.) LINEN, in the different changes which it undergoes, before it arrives at the state of what is

called *Green linen*, contracts a great degree of foulness. This is chiefly communicated to it by the matters used in the dressing, which should be effectually cleared off.

(18.) The first thing, therefore, that is to be done in bleaching, is to take off all the filth that is foreign to the flax, and might, in unskilful hands, be fixed in the cloth. This is the object of steeping; and to accomplish this end, the cloth is laid in a blood-warm water. A smaller degree of heat than that would not dissolve the dressing so soon; and a greater might coagulate and fix, in the body of the linen, those particles which should be carried off. In a few hours the dressing made use of in weaving is dissolved, and mixed with the water; and as it had acquired some degree of acidity before application, it becomes a species of ferment.

(19.) Each ferment promotes its own particular species of intestine motion; the putrid ferment sets in motion the putrefactive fermentation; the vinous ferment gives rise to the vinous fermentation; and the acid ferment to the acetous fermentation. That there is a real fermentation going on in steeping is evident from the air-bubbles which arise, from the scum which gathers on the surface, and from the intestine motion of the whole liquor. That it must be the acetous fermentation, appears from this, that the vegetable particles, already soured, must first undergo this process. The consequence of this operation on the whole is, that the cloth comes out freed in a great measure from its superficial dirt, and more pliant and soft than it was before.

(20.) When this intestine motion is pretty much abated, and before the scum subsides, bleachers take out their cloth. The scum, when no more air-bubbles rise to support it, separates and falls down; and would again communicate to the cloth great part of the filth. But a longer stay would be attended with a much greater disadvantage. The putrid follows close upon the acetous fermentation; when the latter ends, the former begins, and were this to take place in any considerable degree, it would render the cloth black and tender; so that this should be carefully prevented.

(21.) On these principles, the first question to be considered, is, What is the most proper liquor for steeping cloth? The bleachers use plain water; white linen ley and water, equal parts; and rye-meal or bran mixed with water; but they always make use of ley when they have it.

(22.) After steeping, the cloth is carried to the putstock mill, to be freed of all its loose foulnesses. There can be nothing contrived to answer the purpose so effectually as this mill. Its motion is easy, regular, and safe. While it presses gently, it turns the cloth; which is continually washed with a stream of water. Care must be taken, however, that no water be detained in the folds of the linen, otherwise that part may be injured.

SECT. III. Of BUCKING and BOILING.

(23.) The subject of this section is the most important part of the whole process, and deserves a very nice examination. Its design is to loosen, and carry off, by the help of alkaline lixivium, that particular substance in cloth, which is the cause of

into it, the water is kept from getting at the salts from the outside of the beef being hardened.

(49.) If we consider how much of an oily substance there is in the cloth, especially at first, which will for some time keep off the water, and how the twisting of the threads, and closeness of the texture, hinders the water from penetrating, we shall find that, if boiling water were put on it at once, the cloth might be liable, in several parts, to a dry heat, which would be much worse than a wet one. That the leys have not access to all parts of the cloth at first, appears plainly from this, that when it has lain after the first bucking, till all the leys are washed out, it is as black, in some parts, as when it was steeped. This must be owing to the discharge of the colouring particles, from those places to which the ley has access, and to their remaining where it has not. It seems adviseable, then, in the first bucking or two, when the cloth is foul, to use the ley considerably below the boiling point; that by this soaking or maceration, the foulness may be entirely discharged, and the cloth quite opened for the speedy reception of the boiling ley in the buckings which succeed. The leys should likewise be weakest in the first buckings, because then they act only on the more external parts; whereas, when the cloth is more opened, and the field of action is increased, the active powers ought to be so too. For this reason they are at the strongest after some sourings.

(50.) As to the management of the coarse cloth, where *boiling* is substituted in place of *bucking*, this species of linen cannot afford the time and labour necessary for the latter operation; and therefore they must undergo a shorter and more active method. As the heat continues longer at the degree of boiling, the leys used to the coarse cloth must be weaker, than those used to the fine. There is not so much danger from heat in the coarse as in the fine cloth, because the former is of a more open texture, and will allow the ley to penetrate more speedily. In the closer kinds, however, the first application of the salts should be made without a boiling heat being used.

SECT. IV. Of ALTERNATE WATERING and DRYING.

(51.) When the cloth has been bucked, it is carried out to the field, and frequently watered for the first six hours. For if, during that time, when it is strongly impregnated with salts, it is allowed to dry, the salts approaching closer together, and assisted by a greater degree of heat, increasing always in proportion to the dryness of the cloth, act with greater force, and destroy its very texture. After this, dry spots are allowed to appear before it gets any water. In this state it profits most, as the latter part of the evaporation comes from the more internal parts of the cloth, and will carry away most from those parts. The bleaching of the wax, in Dr Home's experiment (§ 41,) confirms this; for it seemed to whiten most when the last particles of water were going off.

(52.) This continual evaporation from the surface of the cloth shows, that the operation carries somewhat remaining after the former process

of bucking. This appears likewise from a fact known to all bleachers, that the upper side of cloth, where the evaporation is strongest, attains to a greater degree of whiteness than the under side. But it is placed beyond all doubt by the fact, that cloth turns much lighter by being exposed to the influence of the sun, air, and winds, even though the salts have been washed out of it.

(53.) What is the nature then of this substance? As it appears (§ 40,) that the whitening, in the operation of bucking, depends on the extracting the heavy oil, and solid particles of the flax; it is highly probable, that the effects of watering, and exposure to the sun, air, and winds, are produced by the evaporation of the same substance, joined to the salts, with which composite body the cloth is impregnated, when exposed on the field. That these salts are in a great measure carried off or destroyed, appears from the cloth being allowed to dry without any danger, after the evaporation has gone on for some time. "If we can show (say Dr Home) that oils and salts, when joined together, are capable of being exhaled, in this manner, by the heat of the atmosphere, we shall reduce this question to a very great degree of certainty. Sept. 10, I exposed in a S. W. window half an oz. of Castile soap, sliced down and watered. Sept. 14, when well dried, it weighed but 3 dr. 6 gr. Sept. 22, it weighed 2 dr. 2 gr. Sept. 24, it weighed 1 dr. 50 gr. It then seemed a very little whiter; but was much more mucilaginous in its taste, and had no degree of saltness which it had before.

(54.) "It appears from this experiment, that soap is so volatile, when watered, and exposed to air not very warm, that it loses above half its weight in 14 days. The same must happen to the saponaceous substance, formed from the conjunction of the alkaline salts, heavy oil, and earthy particles of the flax. The whole design, then, of this operation, which by way of pre-eminence gets the name of BLEACHING, is to carry off, by the evaporation of water, whatever has been loosened by the former process of bucking.

(55.) Against this doctrine there may be brought two objections, seemingly of great weight. It is a general opinion amongst bleachers, that linen whitens quicker in March and April than in any other months: but as the evaporation cannot be so great at that time as when the sun has a greater heat; hence the whitening of cloth is not in proportion to the degree of evaporation; and therefore the former cannot be owing to the latter. This objection vanishes, when we consider that the cloth that comes first into the bleachfield in the spring, is closely attended, having no other to interfere with it for sometime; and as it is the whitest, gets, in the after buckings, the first use of the ley; while the second parcel is often bucked with what has been used to the first. Were this fact true, on which the objection is founded, there would be a sufficient answer to the objection. But it appears not to be true, from an observation of Mr John Christie, That cloth laid down in the beginning of June, and finished in September, takes generally less work, and undergoes fewer operations, than what is laid down in March and finished in June.

(56.) "Tl

(56.) "The other objection is, That cloth dries much faster in windy weather than in calm sunshine; but it does not bleach so fast. This would seem to show, that the sun has some particular influence independent on evaporation. In answer to this objection, let it be considered, that it is not the evaporation from the surface, but from the more internal parts, that is of benefit to the cloth. Now, this latter evaporation must be much stronger in sunshine than in windy weather, on account of the heat of the sun, which will make the cloth more open; while the coldness of windy weather must shut it up, so that the evaporation will all be from the surface. Clear sunshine, with a very little wind, is observed to be the best weather for bleaching; a convincing proof that this reasoning is just.

(57.) "It would seem to follow as a corollary from this reasoning, that the number of waterings should in general be in proportion to the strength of the ley; for the stronger the ley is, the more there is to be evaporated; and the greater the danger, in case the cloth should be allowed to dry. But there is an exception to this general rule, arising from the consideration of another circumstance. It is observed, that cloth when brown dries sooner than when it becomes whiter, arising from the closeness and oiliness which it then has, not allowing the water a free passage. Perhaps that colour may retain a greater degree of heat, and in that way assist a very little. Cloth, therefore, after the first buckings, must be more carefully watered than after the last.

(58.) "It follows likewise from this reasoning, that the soil of the bleach-field should be gravelly or sandy, that the water may pass quick'y through it, and that the heat may be increased by the reflection of the soil, for the success of this operation depends on the mutual action of heat and evaporation. It is likewise necessary that the water should be light, soft, and free from mud or dirt, which not being able to rise along with the water, must remain behind. When there is much of this, it becomes necessary to rinse the cloth in water, and then give it a milling, to take out the dirt; else it would be fixed in the cloth by the following bucking, as it is not soluble by the ley.

(59.) "This operation has more attributed to it by the bleachers than it can justly claim. The cloth appears, to the eye, to whiten under these alternate waterings and dryings; and these naturally get the honour of it, when it more properly belongs to the former operation. Here lies the fallacy. Alkaline salts give a very high colour to the decoctions or infusion of vegetables. This is probably owing to the solution of the oleaginous colouring particles of the plant; which particles, being opened and separated by the salts, occupy a greater space, and give a deep colour to the liquor. The cloth participates of the liquor and colour. Hence bleachers always judge of the goodness of the bucking by the deepness of its colour. This rule, in general, is good. I observe that in those buckings which continue from the Saturday night to the Monday morning, the cloth has always the deepest colour. When that cloth has been exposed some hours to the influence of the air, these colouring particles, which

are but loosely attached to it, are evaporated, and the linen appears of a brighter colour. This operation does no more than complete what the former had almost finished. If its own merit were thoroughly known, there would be no occasion to attribute that of another operation to it. Thread, and open cloths, such as diaper, may be reduced to a great degree of whiteness, after one bucking, by it alone. No cloth, as would appear, can attain to a bright whiteness without it.

(60.) "Since the only advantage of watering is the removal of the salts, and what they have dissolved, might we not effectuate this by some cheaper and more certain method? for it occupies many hands; and must depend altogether on the uncertainty of the weather; so that in the beginning of the season, the bleacher is often obliged to repeat his buckings without bleaching. We might take out the alkaline salts by acids; but then the other substance would be left alone in the cloth, nor would any washing be able to remove it. Mill-washing appears a more probable method of taking out both salts and oils; and it would seem that this might in a great measure supply the place of watering; but upon trial it does not succeed. Two parcels of linen were managed equally in every other respect, except in this, that one was watered, and exposed to the influence of the air, and the other was only mill-washed. This method was followed until they were fit for souring. The cloth which had been mill-washed had a remarkable green colour, and did not recover the bright colour of the pieces managed in the common way, until it had been treated like them for a fortnight. The green colour was certainly owing to a precipitation of the sulphureous particles, with which the ley is impregnated, upon the surface of the cloth; owing to the salts being washed off more speedily than the sulphur, to which they are united in the ley. The attachment betwixt these two bodies we know is very loose, and the separation easily made. Evaporation then alone is sufficient to carry off these sulphureous particles."

SECT. V. Of SOURING.

(61.) That alkaline salts are convertible, by different methods, into absorbent earths, is a fact well known in chemistry. Frequent solution in water, and evaporation of it again, is one of these. The transmutation then of these salts, which are not volatilised or washed away, must be continually going on in the cloth under these alternate waterings and dryings of the former process: not much indeed after the first two or three buckings; because the salts, not having entered deep into the cloth, are easily washed off, or evaporated. But when they penetrate into the very composition of the cloth and minutest fibres, of which the first vessels are made, they have great difficulty of escaping again, and must be more subject to this transmutation. But if we consider the bleaching ashes as a composition of lime and alkaline salts, we must discover a fresh fund for the deposition of this absorbent earth. The common caustic, a composition of this very kind, is soon converted if exposed to the open air, into a harmless earthy kind of powder.

(62.) Fre-

(62.) Frequent buckings and bleachings load cload with this substance. It becomes then necessary to take it out. No washing can do that, because earth is not soluble in water. Nothing but acids can remove it. These are attracted by the absorbent earth, join themselves to it, and compose a kind of neutral imperfect salt, which is soluble in water, and therefore easily washed out of the cloth. The acid liquors commonly used, are butter-milk, which is reckoned the best, sour milk, infusion of bran, rye-meal, &c. kept for some days till they sour. Sour whey is thought to give the cloth a yellow tinge.

(63.) Before the linen is put in the sour, it should be dried, that the acid particles may penetrate, along with the watery, through the whole. A few hours after it has been there, air-bubbles arise, the liquor swells, and a thick scum is formed; manifest signs of a fermentation. The following experiment, says Dr Home, shows the degree of heat which attends it. "May 25, I put a thermometer of Fahrenheit's into some butter milk, of which the bleachers were composing their sours, and which stood in a vat adjoining to another, where the milk was the same, and the souring process had gone on for two days. After the thermometer had been 20 minutes in the butter milk, the mercury stood at 64 degrees. In the souring vat it rose to 68 degrees. An increase of four degrees shows a pretty brisk intestine motion.

(64.) "To what are all these effects owing? To the acetous fermentation going on in those vegetable liquors, whose acids, extricating themselves, produce heat, intestine motion, and air-bubbles. As the change is slow, the process takes five or six days before it is finished. During this time the acid particles are continually uniting themselves to the absorbent earth in the cloth. That this fermentation goes on in the liquor alone, appears from this consideration, that the same effects, viz. air-bubbles, and scum, are to be seen in the butter milk alone. The only effect then it has is, by the small degree of heat, and intestine motion, which attend it, to assist the junction of the acid and absorbent particles. We shall presently see that this process may be carried on to as great advantage, without any fermentation; and therefore it appears not absolutely necessary.

(65.) "When these absorbent particles are fully saturated, the remaining acids may unite with, and have some small effect in extracting the colouring particles. This appears from the two following experiments. Sept. 30, a piece of cloth which had been steeped, weighing $4\frac{1}{2}$ gr. was put into a half-pound of butter milk, whigged, and well soured, by a mixture of water, and by boiling. Sept. 24, when taken out, and washed in water, it appeared a very little whiter. The mineral acids, as will appear afterwards, whiten cloth, even though they are very much diluted.

(66.) "Just before the acetous fermentation is finished, the cloth should be taken out; otherwise the scum will fall down and lodge in the cloth, and the putrefaction which then begins will weaken it. This appears from the following experiment. Sept. 16, a piece of cloth weighing 42 gr.

laid in butter milk unwhigged. Novem. 15,

the milk had a putrefied smell. The cloth was a little whiter, but very tender; and weighed when well washed in warm water and dried 40 gr."

(67.) Sours made of bran, rye-meal, &c. ought to be prepared before use, to save time. Besides when the water is poured upon the cloth, the linen is not in a better situation than if it had been taken up wet from the field; and thus the acid particles cannot penetrate so deep. Again this method of mixing the bran with the cloth may be attended with still worse consequences. All vegetable substances, when much pressed fall into the putrescent, and not the acetous fermentation. This often happens to the bran pressed betwixt the different layers on the linen, which must weaken the cloth. Hence, all sours should be prepared before the cloth is steeped in them, and none of the bran or meal should be mixed with the cloth.

(68.) The sours are used strongest at first, and gradually weakened till the cloth has attained to its whiteness. In the first sourings, there is more of the earthy matter in the cloth, from the many buckings it has undergone, than there can be afterwards. As the quantity of this matter decreases, so should the strength of the sour. There is not, however, the least danger, at any time, from too strong a sour. What is most wanted in this operation is a more expeditious and cheap method of obtaining the same end. As it takes five or six days, it retards the whitening of the cloth considerably; and as bleachers are obliged to send for milk to a great distance, it becomes very dear. This last consideration makes them keep it so long that, when used, it can have no good effect; perhaps it may have a bad one.

(69.) One consideration may lead us to shorten the time. The souring process is sooner finished in warm than in cold weather. Heat quickens the fermentation, by aiding the intestine motion. The vats therefore should not be buried in the ground, as they always are, and which keep them cold: there should be pipes along the wall of the room, to give it that degree of heat which on trial, answers best. There are few days in summer so hot as is necessary; and the beginning and end of the season are by much too cold. That this is no ideal scheme, the following fact proves. There are two vats in Salton bleachfield, adjoining to a partition wall, at the back of which there is a kitchen fire. In these vats the souring process is finished in three days, whereas it lasts five or six days in those that are placed round the same room.

(70.) This improvement, though it shortens the time of souring a very little, yet is no remedy against the scarcity and dearth of milk sours. Such a liquor as would serve our purpose, must be found either among the vegetable acids, which have no further fermentation to undergo, or among the mineral acids. The former are a large class, and contain within themselves many different species; such as the acid juice of several plants, vinegars made of fermented liquors, and acid salts, called *tartars*. But there is one objection against these vegetable acids: they all contain, along the acid, a great quantity of oily mat-

ING.

9

are increased in strength, while the founts diminished. There are two causes for this. texture of the cloth is now so opened, that such the leys are strong, the alkaline salts and chert earth are easily washed out, and the particles are in a great measure removed which to blunt the acidity of the liquor.

5.) There are two objections however, against use of vitriolic founts. One is, that the process of souring with milk is performed by a fermentation; and as there is no fermentation in the vitriol founts, they cannot serve the purpose so well; other, that they may hurt the texture of the cloth. The answer to the former objection is very art; that the vitriol founts operate successfully without a fermentation, as experience shews; and therefore in them a fermentation is unnecessary. As to the latter objection, that oil of vitriol, being a very convulsive body, may hurt the cloth; not will vanish likewise, when it is considered how much the vitriol is diluted with water, that the liquor is not stronger than vinegar, and that it may be safely taken into the human body. Indeed that it may be safely used much stronger than what is necessary in the bleaching, appears from the following experiment with regard to the stamping of linen.

(76.) After the linen is boiled in a ley of alkali, it is bleached for some time; after which, to make it receive the colour, it is steeped in a fount of water and oil of vitriol, about 25 times stronger than that made use of in the bleaching, for to 100 gallons of water are added 2½ of oil of vitriol. Into this quantity of liquor, made so warm as the hand can just be held in it, is put 7 pieces, of 18 yards each. The linen remains in it about two hours, and comes out remarkably whiter. The fine cloth often undergoes this operation twice; nor is there any danger if the oil of vitriol is well mixed with the water. But if the two are not well mixed together, and the vitriolic acid remains in some parts undiluted, the cloth will be corroded.

(77.) The vitriolic founts have various advantages over those of milk. The latter is full of oily particles, some of which must be left in the cloth; but the case is worse when the scum is allowed to precipitate upon the cloth. The former is liable to neither of these objections. The common founts hasten very fast to corruption, and if, from want of proper care, they ever arrive at that state, must damage the cloth very much. As the milk is kept very long, it is often putrid before it is used; and, without acting as a fount, has considerable bad effects, whilst the vitriol founts are not subject to putrefaction at all. Milk founts are very dear, and often difficult to be got, those of vitriol are cheap, and may be easily procured at any time. The milk takes 7 days to perform its task; but the vitriol founts do it in 25 many hours; nay, perhaps in 25 many minutes. Their junction with the absorbent particles in the cloth must be moderate; whenever these acid particles enter with the water.

(78.) An incontestable proof, that the fact is so, arises from the circumstances which happen when the cloth is first steeped in the vitriol fount; the cloth has no sooner imbibed the acid liquor, than it loses all acidity, and becomes immediately vapour.

Thus be first

effect of vitriol four must be of great advantage in the bleachfield, as the bleachers are at present hindered from enjoying the season by the tediousness of the souring process. The whole round of operations takes 7 days; to answer which they must have 7 parcels, which are often mixing together, and causing mistakes. As three days at most will be sufficient for all the operations when vitriol fours are used, there needs be no more than 3 parcels. The cloth will be kept a shorter time in the bleaching, and arrive sooner at market.

(79.) Vitriol has also another advantage in its power of whitening cloth. Even in this diluted state, its whitening power is very considerable. We have already seen, that it removes the same colouring particles which the alkaline leys do. What then remains of it, after the alkaline and absorbent particles are neutralized in the cloth, must act on these colouring particles, and help to whiten the cloth. That this is really the case, appears from the following fact. A bleacher being obliged to choose 20 of the whitest pieces out of 100, he took 20 of the pieces which were bleached with vitriolic acid. On the whole, from both reason and experience it appears, that it must be for the advantage of our linen manufactures to use vitriolic instead of milk fours.

SECT. VI. Of WASHING, HAND-RUBBING, RUBBING BOARDS, STARCHING, &c.

(80.) As soon as the cloth comes from the souring, it should be well washed in the washing-mill, to take off all the acid particles which adhere to its surface. All acids decompose soap, by separating alkaline salts and oily parts from each other. Were this to happen on the surface of the cloth, the oil would remain; nor would the washing mill afterwards be able to be rubbed by women's hands, with soap and water. As the liquors, which are generally employed for souring, are impregnated with oily particles, many of these must lodge in the cloth, and remain, notwithstanding the preceding milling. It is probable that all the heavy oils are not evaporated by bleaching. Hence it is necessary to apply soap and warm water, which unite with, dissolve, and carry them off. It is observed, that if the cloth, when it is pretty white, gets too much soap, the following bleaching is apt to make it yellow; on that account the soap should be wrung out.

(81.) It has been doubted, whether it be better to use hard or soft soap for the cloth. Most bleachers agree, that the hard soap is apt to leave a yellowness in the cloth; and it is said, that it is disused in Holland on that account. As there must be a considerable quantity of sea-salt in the hard, which is not in the soft soap, and as this salt appears prejudicial to cloth, the soft soap ought certainly to be preferred.

(82.) In this operation, the management of the COARSE cloth is very different from that of the FINE. Instead of being rubbed with hands, which would be too expensive, it is laid on a table, run over with soap, and then put between two rubbing boards, which have ridges or grooves from one side to another, like teeth. These boards have edges to keep in the soap and water, which the cloth. They are moved either by hand

or by a water-wheel, which is more equal and cheap. The cloth is either drawn by degree through the boards, by men; or which is better the same wheel moves two rollers, with ridge and groove, so that the former enters the latter, and by a gentle motion round their own axis, the cloth is gradually pulled through the boards. This mill was invented in Ireland above 30 years ago. The Irish bleachers use it for their fine as well as coarse cloths. These rubbing boards were discharged some years ago in Ireland, by the trustees for the manufactures of that country, being convinced from long experience of their bad effects. But as proper care was not taken to instruct the bleachers by degrees in a safer method, they continued in the old, made a party, and kept possession of the rubbing boards. There were considerable improvements made in them in this country such as the addition of the ledges, to keep the cloth moist; and of the rollers, which pull the cloth more gradually than men's hands. These improvements were first made in SALTON bleachfield.

(83.) Considerable objections have been urged however, against these rubbing boards. By rubbing on so unequal a surface, the fibrous part of the cloth is worn; by which it is much weakened. These boards also give the cloth a cottony surface, so that it does not long keep clean. They also flatten the threads, and take away all that roundness and firmness, which is the distinguishing property of cloth bleached in the Dutch method. For these reasons they must be very prejudicial to *fine* cloth, and should never be used in bleaching it. As they seem to be in some measure necessary to lessen the expence of bleaching *coarse* linen, they ought never to be used above twice or thrice at most. They might be rendered much more safe, by lining their insides with some soft elastic substance, that will not wear the cloth so much as the wooden teeth do. Short hair has been tried in one instance, and is found to answer very well.

(84.) When the coarse cloth has undergone rubbing, it should be immediately milled for an hour, and warm water poured now and then on it to make it lather. This milling has very good effects; for it clears away all the dirt which the rubbing boards have loosened, and which, at the next boiling, would have discoloured the cloth and besides, it makes the cloth less cottony, and more firm, than when whitened by rubbing only.

(85.) Of the last operation, STARCHING and BLUEING, we need say nothing in this place; as there is nothing peculiarly different in the process, from that to which landry women are accustomed. It often happens, that the cloth, when exposed to the weather to be dried after this operation, gets rain, which undoes all again, and puts the bleacher to a new expence. To remedy this inconvenience, some bleachers very properly employ a dry-house, where the cloth may be dried after this operation, in any kind of weather.

SECT. VII. Of BLEACHING with LIME.

(86.) The process of bleaching, it is believed may be very safely undertaken with the assistance of LIME. Dr Home has found, by repeated trials



Fig. 5.
ing Block



Fig. 4.

Fig. 3.

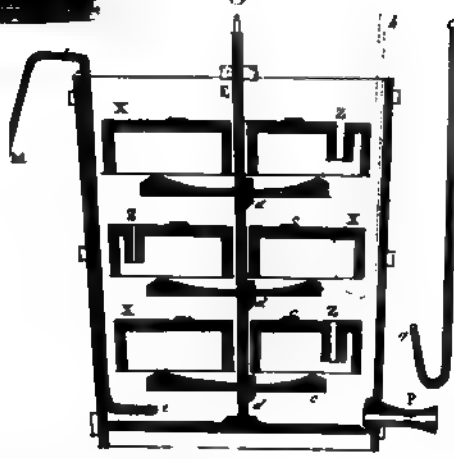


Fig.
Bolt Drawer.

Engraved for the use of the Patent Office

communication with a 3d similar vessel: this 3d vessel should be also provided with a tube of safety, and should communicate with a 4th.

(112.) In the construction of an apparatus for this purpose, it is evident the requisites are, that the receiver should not only be capacious but broad, that the gas, which is very volatile, may meet with a large surface of water to absorb as much of it as possible. It is very improbable, however, that all the gas can be absorbed by a single receiver, let us make it as large as we will; for which reason it will be proper to have several of them connected with each other by glass tubes, so that what escapes from one may be observed by another. Thus we are sure of having the water fully impregnated with the gas; though we cannot by any means concentrate this liquid like the mineral acids.

(113.) By means of condensing engines, indeed, a greater quantity of it might be forced into the water than it can naturally contain: but this could answer no useful purpose; for the moment that a bottle containing such liquor was opened, the superfluous gas would fly off, with violence and danger to the person who opened it. The bottles themselves would also be liable to burst on every slight alteration of temperature in the atmosphere. It is proper, therefore, not to attempt the preparation of the liquor, in any great degree of strength; though this is indeed attended with a very considerable inconvenience, viz. the difficulty of transporting it from the place where it is prepared to the bleachfield, on account of the great bulk and weight of it. M. Berthollet proposes to have it made at the place where the cloth is to be bleached; and so near that the dephlogisticated spirit of salt might be conveyed by spouts to the troughs which contain the cloth. This, however, must in many cases be impracticable, unless we suppose the generality of bleachers to be possessed of a skill in managing chemical operations, which at present they have not. When great quantities of liquor are to be brought from distant places, however, it must undoubtedly be a great discouragement, especially if the best methods, and the cheapest also, have not been used in the preparation of the acid.

SECT. III. ADVANTAGES of the NEW METHOD of BLEACHING.

(114.) It would add much to the importance of this new method of bleaching, if a comparative estimate of the expence of that and of the old mode were fairly laid before the public, and the preference in this respect appeared justly due to the former. This, however, has not yet been done; nor even the first and most essential step towards it taken, viz. the determining how much stuff a certain quantity of dephlogisticated spirit of salt will whiten. From such experiments as have been made on the subject, it is probable, that the acid drawn from one pound of salt will whiten 4 of linen cloth without any addition.— This may seem a small expence; but if we consider the vitriolic acid to be made use of, and that the residuum is useless, it would soon be found very considerable. Glauber's salt may indeed be

ured from the residuum of the distillation;

but so much of that article is prepared otherwise that at present the making of it is no object. M. Berthollet mentions the separation of the mineral alkali from the residuum; and says he has received some instructions on this head from M. Moreau and others, but conceals them on account of their being communicated as secrets.

(115.) To enable the reader to judge for himself of the expence of M. Berthollet's method, we insert the latter part of his memoir, in which the part of the subject is more particularly considered.

(116.) "If (says he) at present, when the oxygenated muriatic acid costs nearly three *denier* (about half an English farthing a quart,) in the provinces which are not subject to the *GABELLE*, tax no longer existing in France,) the new method of bleaching, when properly conducted, is frequently advantageous notwithstanding this expence; it is not to be doubted but that it may become much more so, by means of these economical practices which I have just mentioned. But so long as the preparation of the bleaching liquor is at all expensive, there will always be a great advantage in favour of fine cloths; because, in equal quantities of surface, they present a less quantity of matter, and are bleached much easier; so that an ell, or a pound, of fine cloth, requires much less liquor than an ell, or a pound, of coarse cloth.

(117.) "But, that the advantages of this process may be fully enjoyed, it is necessary to establish it in a country which is not subject to the tax on salt, called the *gabelle*; for, where salt is not at a low price, the oxygenated muriatic acid becomes too expensive.

(118.) "Nevertheless, it is not by the expence of the new process, rigorously compared with that of the ordinary method of bleaching, that we must judge of its advantages, as it is attended with some particular ones which would compensate a superior price. Cloths and thread, which in some places require many months, may be easily bleached in five or six days, even in a large manufactory; and the bleaching of a few pieces only, may, without difficulty, be terminated in two or three days. Besides, the new method of bleaching may be executed in the winter as well as in the summer, only the drying requires more time.

(119.) "An industrious countryman, whose family employ their intervals of leisure in spinning, is obliged to wait for favourable weather, and perhaps to send his thread and cloths to a great distance, where they remain a long time in bleaching; or, if his necessities are pressing, he is obliged to sell them, at a loss, to some intermediate factor, who lays a tax upon his poverty. But, the manufactories for making oxygenated muriatic acid increase in number sufficiently, those who weave a piece of cloth will be able to bleach themselves, and to enjoy the whole fruit of their labour, as soon as it is out of their hands.

(120.) "The warehouseman, in a season which is unfavourable to the ordinary method of bleaching, is not able to fulfil his engagements without great difficulty; he is obliged to employ a considerable capital to fill his warehouse, in the season in which the bleaching is executed; he is un-

the different operations, a project of this kind might miscarry, to the great detriment of the individual who should attempt it.

(132.) On the whole, the principal objections to the new method of bleaching are, that little or none of the alkali commonly used can be saved. The air also and light of the sun, which in the common way is had for nothing, must in the new way be bought at a certain price. The only advantage therefore is, that in the new method, a considerable portion of time is saved. Hence it is impossible to make an exact comparative calculation of the expence of both methods, without estimating how much labour is saved in the new way. If the price of the labour saved exceeds that of the dephlogisticated spirit of salt, there is no doubt that the use of it will be attended with profit, but not otherwise. It is asserted by M. Berthollet, that in the new way of bleaching, the texture of the cloth is less hurt than in the old one: this too must be reckoned an advantage; though by the bleachers, and indeed by the public in general, it will probably be overlooked, unless they are induced by the *cheapness* to prefer the new to the old process.

(133.) The following important particulars have been published by M. Berthollet in the *Annales de Chimie*, in addition to what he had before advanced.

(134.) "It was always my intention (says he), when I published the description of the method of bleaching by means of the muriatic acid, to communicate to the public every useful remark I could add to it, whether they arose from my own observations, or from those of my correspondents, provided the latter were not made known to me under the tie of secrecy; for, it is natural that those who devote themselves to the practice of any particular art, should wish to keep secret those improvements which they may succeed in making; and there is no kind of property which ought to be more respected, than those discoveries which arise from industry.

(135.) "M. WELTER has found it of advantage to finish the process of bleaching, by exposing the cloths and thread on the field for 3 or 4 days, during which they should be sometimes wetted, and afterwards washed in pure water. He thinks that this exposition is absolutely necessary, in order to take away a yellow tinge, which they are apt to retain, but he observes that cotton does not want this operation.

(136.) "Others, however, have bleached to the entire satisfaction of the dealers, without this exposition, and I have convinced myself, by many experiments, that linen may be brought to the most perfect whiteness without it; nevertheless, when thread or cloth is pressed together in any parts, during the process (which, when a large quantity is bleached at the same time, it is very difficult to avoid), those parts are apt to preserve a yellow tinge, which it would perhaps require several operations to efface equally throughout; these repeated operations would increase the charge, and tend to weaken the texture of the linen; whereas a short exposition on the field entirely takes away that tinge. This practice, therefore, seems to me never to be adopted with respect to linen; it re-

quires but a small extent of ground, and it occasions but a small loss of time.

(137.) "M. DECROISILLE, whose establishment at Rouen is in full vigour, has made many advantageous alterations in the process; as indeed might be expected from the attention of so able a chemist. I have his permission to publish the following extract from one of his letters. 'We bleach here, at about the same price as other bleachers; coarse cotton cloths, fine linen for shirts, stockings, caps, &c. of thread and cotton. I flatter myself, that I have improved upon your discovery: very: my great recipient, in the distilling apparatus, is of a kind entirely new; I have no wood in any part of it, and each of my distilling machines contains 60lb. of vitriol acid, &c. I have also left off using wood for those vessels in which the subjects to be bleached are plunged; and the whiteness of our goods is now esteemed to be superior to that produced by the English before your discovery. Cotton yarn bleached by your process takes, very advantageously, the red dye called the Turkey red; as, by means of that process, about one third of the usual labour is spared; less oil is required in the preparation; and your ley, employed in certain stages of the operation, in concurrence with the other ingredients, produces a much more beautiful colour. Your discovery will be particularly useful to our city, many merchants finding it worth while to give us dyed cloths to have their colours discharged; no colour resists, and we return them their cloths as found and as white as if they had never been dyed or printed.'

(138.) "The making use, instead of wood (for the pneumatic tub, and troughs), of a matter which is not acted upon by the liquor, is certainly of great advantage to the success of this method of bleaching; as, by that means, we not only avoid the loss of that portion of the liquor, which exerts its action upon the wood, but we also save expence in repairing the vessels, which are very soon worn out.

(139.) "I have said that the cloths, when taken out of the water acidulated with vitriolic acid, ought to be plunged into common water; but that precaution is not sufficient, they must be plunged into a weak caustic ley, moderately warm, and kept in it during some minutes.

(140.) "When the liquor is immediately drawn off into the troughs, as I directed, we must take care that it is first well stirred with the agitator otherwise, that which is at the bottom of the tub and is most saturated with acid, would first run off, and would act too strongly upon the cloths. We may, indeed, omit the use of the agitator, by drawing off only half, or three quarters, of the liquor, which must afterwards be mixed with a proper quantity of water, according to the proportions I have pointed out; and the rest of the liquor, which is but weakly impregnated, may serve, with an additional quantity of water, for another distillation.

(141.) "Many persons have attempted to execute this process without having any knowledge of chemistry, and without attending to the quality of the thread and cloth they meant to bleach, and it either did not succeed with them, or the expence

LIME, method of bleaching with, 86—93. phenomenon respecting its mixture with alkaline salts, 87. mistakes committed in using it, 91. Dr Black's improvement, 93.

LINEN contracts much foulness in the making, 27. which must be cautiously taken off, 28, 29.

LIQUOR proper for steeping cloth, 31.

MADDER ground, in printed cloths, methods of destroying, 125, 126.

MARINE ACID, method of bleaching by the dephlogisticated, 95—105. of preparing it, 106. apparatus described, 107—113.

MILK, SOUR, method of using, 62—70. contrasted with the vitriolic sour, 77.

MILLING of cloth described, 24, 32.

MINERAL ACIDS, utility of, in bleaching, 70—79.

MURIATIC ACID. See **MARINE**.

MUSCOVY ASHES, defect of, 35.

OBERKAMPF, M. his improvements, 126.

OILS and salts conjoined, capable of exhalation, 53—60.

OPERATIONS, general, in bleaching, described, 4, 6, 10, 12, 15, 25. and recapitulated, 26.

OXYGENATED mariatic acid, price of, in France, before the revolution, 116. uses to which it may be applied, 125.

PUT-STOCK MILL, operation of the, 32.

QUALITIES, dangerous, of salts, not easily ascertained, 34. ought to be guarded against, 35, 47.

ROYER, M. his experiments, 126.

RUBBING BOARDS described, 82. objections against the use of, 83.

SALT, spirit of, used in France, 95. the tax on, inimical to improvements, 116, 117.

SALTON bleachfield, improvements made at, 82.

SALTS, difficulties of ascertaining the strength of, 33, 44. when joined with oils capable of exhalation, 53, 54. operate best when mixed, 86.

SCHEELE, M. the inventor of the dephlogisticated marine acid, 95.

SOAP, experiment with, 53, 54. too much, discolours the cloth in bleaching, 80. soft preferable to hard, 81.

SORREL, improvement proposed to be made by, 130, 131.

SOURING, defined, 12. and described, 13, 14, 16. common method of, 23. fermentation takes place in it, 63. degree of heat, *ib.* souring soonest finished in warm weather, 69.

SOURS, various kinds of, 62—67. used strongest at first, 68.

SPRAT defined, 88.

STARCHING and blueing, and operation in bleaching, 26, 85.

STEEPING described, 4, 5, 27—31. object of, 28. and effects, 29, 30. liquor proper for, 31.

SUN-SHINE, the best weather for bleaching, 56.

TAYLOR, Mr, his improvement, 127.

TUBE OF SAFETY, described, 108.

TUB, PNEUMATIC, described, 109, 110.

VEGETABLE ACIDS, use of, in bleaching, 70. objection against them, *ib.*

VITRIOL, OIL OF, experiments with, 45, 71—79.

VITRIOLIC SOURS, method of using, 72—74. objections, 75. answered, *ib.* proof, 76. advantages of, over milk sours, 77, 79. proofs, 78, 79.

WASHING, operation of, 15, 24, 80.

WATERING AND DRYING, alternate, 51. effects of, 52.

WAX, experiments with bleached and unbleached, 41, 42.

WELTER, M. his improvements, 135.

WINDY WEATHER, cloth dries fast in, 56.

BLEACHLY, a village in Buckinghamshire, W. of Fenny Stratford.

(1.) * **BLEAK**. *adj.* [*blac, blac, Sax.*] 1. Pale. 2. Cold; chill; cheerless.—

Intreat the North

To make his *bleak* winds kiss my parched lips,
And comfort me with cold. *Shakespeare.*

The goddess that in rural shrine
Dwells here with Pan, or Sylvan, by blest song
Forbidding every *bleak* unkindly fog

To touch the prosperous growth of this tall
wood. *Milton.*

—Her desolation presents us with nothing but
bleak and barren prospects. *Addison.*—

Say, will ye bless the *bleak* Atlantick shore,
Or bid the furious Gaul be rude no more?

Pope.

(2.) * **BLEAK**. *n. f.* [*alburnus*, from his white or *bleak* colour.] A small river fish.—The *bleak*, or freshwater sprat, is ever in motion, and therefore called by some the river swallow. His back is of a pleasant, sad sea water green; his belly white and shining like the mountain snow. *Bleaks* are excellent meat, and in best season in August. *Walton.*

(3.) **BLEAK**, in ichthyology. See **ALBURNUS** and **CYPRINUS**. The French call it the **ABLETTE**.

BLEAKLY, *adv.* Palely; coldly. *Asb.*

* **BLEAKNESS**. *n. f.* [from *bleak*.] Coldness; chiliness.—The inhabitants of Nova Zembla go naked, without complaining of the *bleakness* of the air; as the armies of the northern nations keep the field all winter. *Addison.*

BLEAKSWARE, a village in Herefordshire, near Ware.

* **BLEAKY**. *adj.* [from *bleak*.] Bleak; cold; chill.—

On shrubs they browse, and, on the *bleaky* top
Of rugged hills, the thorny bramble crop. *Dryd.*

BLEANE, a village in Kent, 4 miles N. W. of Canterbury.

* **BLEAR**. *adj.* [*blaer*, a blister, Dutch.] 1. Dim with rheum, or water; sore with rheum.—It is a tradition that *blear* eyes affect sound eyes. *Bacon.*—It is no more in the power of calumny to blast the dignity of an honest man, than of the *blear* eyed owl to cast scandal on the sun. *L'Estrange.*—

His *blear* eyes ran in gutters to his chin;

His beard was stubble, and his cheeks were thin.

Dryden.

When

When thou shalt see the *blear* ey'd fathers
teach

Their sons this harsh and mouldy sort of speech.
Dryden.

2. Dim ; obscure in general ; or that which makes
dimness.—

Thus I hurl

My dazzling spells into the spungy air,
Of power to cheat the eye with *blear* illusion,
And give it false presentments. *Milton.*

* *To BLEAR. v. a.* [from the adjective.] 1. To
make the eyes watry, or sore with rheum.—

All tongues speak of him, and the *bleared* sights
Are spectacted to see him. *Shakespeare.*

The Dardanian wives,
With *bleared* visages, come forth to view
Th' issue of th' exploit. *Shakespeare.*

When I was young, I, like a lazy fool,
Would *blear* my eyes with oil to stay from school ;
Averse to pains. *Dryden.*

3. To dim the eyes.—This may stand for a pretty
superficial argument, to *blear* our eyes, and hush
us asleep in security. *Raleigh.*

* *BLEAREDNESS. n. f.* [from *bleared*.] The
state of being *bleared*, or dimmed with rheum.—
The defluxion falling upon the edges of the eye-
lids, makes a *blearedness*. *Wifeman.*

BLEAR-EYED, adj. having the eyes dim with
rheum.

BLEASBEY, a hamlet of Southwell, in Not-
tinghamshire.

* *BLEAT. n. f.* [from the verb.] The cry of a
sheep or lamb.—

Set in my ship, mine ear reach'd, where we
rode,

The bellowing of oxen, and the *bleat*
Of fleecy sheep. *Chapman.*

* *To BLEAT. v. n.* [*blatan*, Sax.] To cry as a
sheep.—

We were as twinn'd lambs, that did frisk i'
th' sun,

And *bleat* the one at th' other. *Shakespeare.*

You may as well use question with the wolf,
Why he hath made the ewe *bleat* for the lamb.

Shakespeare's Merchant of Venice.

While on sweet grass her *bleating* charge does
lie,

Our happy lover feeds upon her eye. *Roscom.*

What bull dares bellow, or what sheep dares
bleat

Within the lion's den ? *Dryden.*

* *BLEB. n. f.* [*blacn*, to swell, Germ.] A blis-
ter. *Stinner.*

BLECHINGLEY, an ancient town of Surry in
England, which sends two members to parliament ;
and has done so ever since parliaments existed.
The bailiff who returns the members is chosen an-
nually at the lord of the manor's court. The town
stands on a hill, and has a fine prospect as far as
the South Downs in Sussex. Lon. o. 15. W. Lat.
51. 20. N.

BLECHINGTON, a town 6 m. from Oxford.

BLECK-HALL, the name of two English vil-
lages ; viz. 1. in Cumberland, S. of Carlisle : 2. in
Middlesex, on the Lee, opposite to Chigford.

BLECTINUM, in botany, a genus of plants of
the class of the *cryptogamia filices* ; the classifica-

tions of which are disposed in parallel lines on the
sides of the leaves.

* *BLEED. preterite and particip.* [from *To bleed*.]

BLEDDINGTON, a village in GENEVA.

BLEDES, Los, an island near Majorca.

BLEDLow, a village in Buckinghamshire, be-
tween Prince's Risborough and Oxfordshire.

BLEE, n. f. obs. Corn. *Chauc.*

(1.) * *To BLEED. v. a.* To let blood ; to take
blood from.—

That from a patriot of distinguish'd note,
Have *bled* and purg'd me to a simple vote. *Pope.*

(2.) * *To BLEED. v. n. pret.* I *bled* ; I have *bled*.
[*bledan*, Saxon.] 1. To lose blood ; to run with
blood.—

I *bleed* inwardly for my lord. *Shakespeare.*

Bleed, bleed, poor country !

Great tyranny, lay thou thy basis sure ;

For goodness dare not check thee ! *Shakefp.*

— Many, upon seeing of others *bleed*, or strangled,
or tortured, themselves are ready to faint, as if
they *bled*. *Bacon.* 2. To die a violent death.—

The lamb thy riot dooms to *bled* to-day ;
Had he thy reason, would he skip and play ?
Pope.

3. To lose blood medicinally ; as he *bled* for a fe-
ver. 4. To drop, as blood. It is applied to any
thing that drops from some body on incision, as
blood from an animal.—

For me the balm shall *bleed*, and amber flow,
The coral redden, and the ruby glow. *Pope.*

(1.) *BLEEDING*, a hæmorrhage or flux of blood
from a wound, rupture of a vessel, or other acci-
dent. See HÆMORRHAGE.

(2.) *BLEEDING*, in farriery. See FARRIERY.

(3.) *BLEEDING*, in surgery. See SURGERY, IN-
DEX.

(4.) *BLEEDING*, in therapeutics. See MEDI-
CINE, INDEX.

(5.) *BLEEDING AT THE NOSE*, or EPISTAXIS.
See MEDICINE, INDEX.

(6.) *BLEEDING OF A CORPSE* is a phenomenon
said to have frequently happened in the bodies of
persons murdered, which, on the touch, or even
the approach, of the murderer, began to bleed at
the nose, ears, and other parts. It was formerly
admitted in England, and is still allowed in some
other places, as a detection of the criminal, and
proof of the fact. Numerous instances of these
posthumous hæmorrhages are given by writers.
But this kind of evidence ought to be of small
weight : for it is to be observed, that this bleeding
does not ordinarily happen, even in the presence
of the murderer ; although sometimes it happens
even in that of the nearest friends, or persons most
innocent ; and sometimes without the presence of
any, either friend or foe. In effect, where is the
impossibility that a body, especially if full of blood,
upon the approach of external heat, having been
considerably stirred or moved, and a putrefaction
coming on, some of the blood-vessels should burst,
as it is certain they all will in time.

(7.) *BLEEDING OF PLANTS*, drawing out the
sap of plants, otherwise called *tapping*. See TAP-
PING.

BLEEDY FAWLDS, a place in Aberdeenshire
in the parish of Tough, near which there is a large

stone standing perpendicular, 12½ feet high, and 9½ in circumference. Below it, tradition says one of Macbeth's sons lies interred. At some distance there are vestiges of a camp of Macbeth's, and near it a cairn, under which he is buried.

BLEGON, a village in Somersetshire, 7 miles from Huntspill. It has a fair, last Frid. in August.

* BLEIT. BLATE. *adj.* Bashful. It is used in Scotland, and the bordering counties.

BLBKING, a province in the S. of Sweden, having the Baltic Sea on the S. Smaland on the N. and the province of Schonen on the W. Its principal towns are Christianstadt, Elleholm, Ahuys, Roterby, and Christianople, which last is the capital. It is 15 miles long, and 4 broad; is mountainous, but pleasant; and contains about 50,000 inhabitants.

(1.) * BLEMISH. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. A mark of deformity; a scar; a diminution of beauty.—As he hath caused a *blemish* in a man, so shall it be done to him again. *Leviticus*.—Open it so from the eye-lid, that you divide not that; for, in so doing, you will leave a remediless *blemish*. *Wiseman*. 2. Reproach; disgrace; imputation.—That you have been earnest, should be no *blemish* or discredit at all unto you. *Hooker*.—And if we shall neglect to propagate these blessed dispositions, what others can undertake it, without some *blemish* to us, some reflection on our negligence? *Spratt*.—None more industriously publish the *blemishes* of an extraordinary reputation, than such as lie open to the same censures; raising applause to themselves, for resembling a person of an exalted reputation, though in the blameable parts of his character. *Addison*. 3. A soil; turpitude; taint; deformity.—

First shall virtue be vice, and beauty be counted a *blemish*,

Ere that I leave with song of praise her praise to solemnize. *Sidney*.

Live thou, and to thy mother dead attest,

That clear she died from *blemish* criminal. *F. & J.*
—Is conformity with Rome a *blemish* unto the church of England, and unto churches abroad an ornament? *Hooker*.—

Not a hair perish'd:

On their sustaining garments not a *blemish*,

But fresher than before. *Shakespeare*.

Evadne's husband! 'tis a fault

To love, a *blemish* to my thought. *Waller*.

That your duty may no *blemish* take,

I will myself your father's captive make. *Dryd.*
—Such a mirth as this is capable of making a beauty, as well as a *blemish*, the subject of derision. *Addison*.

(2.) BLEMISH, in hunting, is used when the hounds, or beagles, finding where chace has been, make a proffer to enter, but return:

* To BLEMISH. *v. a.* [from *blame*, *Junius*; from *bleme*, white, *Fr. Skinner*.] 1. To mark with any deformity.—Likelier that my outward face might have been disguised, than that the face of so excellent a mind could have been thus *blemished*. *Sidney*. 2. To defame; to tarnish, with respect to reputation.—

Not that my verse would *blemish* all the fair;
But yet if some be bad, 'tis wisdom to beware.

Dryden.

—Those, who, by concerted defamations, endeavour to *blemish* his character, incur the complicated guilt of slander and perjury. *Addison*.

BLEMYES, or } a fabulous people of Ethiopia
BLEMYES, } said to have had no heads; their eyes, mouth, &c. being situated in their breasts. See ACEPHALI, N° 3. Bochart derives the word *Blemyes* from בלם, which implies negation, and מוח, brain: in which sense the *Blemyes* should have been people without brains.

BLENA. See BLENNA.

BLENCH, or BLANCH, a sort of tenure of land. To hold land in blench is by payment of sugar loaf, a couple of capons, a beaver hat, or the like, if demanded; *nomine alba firmæ*, i. e. in name of blench.

(1.) * To BLENCH. *v. a.* To hinder; to obstruct. Not used.—The rebels besieged them, winning the even ground on the top, by carrying up great trusses of hay before them, to *blench* the defendants sight, and dead their shot. *Carew*.

(2.) * To BLENCH. *v. n.* To shrink; to start back; to give way: not used.—

I'll observe his looks;

I'll tent him to the quick; if he but *blench*,

I know my course. *Shakespeare*

Patience herself, what goddesses are she be,
Doth lesser *blench* at sufferance than I do. *Shak*

Hold you ever to our special drift;

Though sometimes you do *blench* from this to that,

As cause doth minister. *Shakespeare*

BLENCOGO, a village in Cumberland, near Abbey-Holme.

BLENCOW, MAGNA, } Two villages in Cum
BLENCOW, PARVA, } berland in the parish of Dacor.

BLENCRAG, or } a village in Cumberland,
BLENCRAKE, } miles from Cockermouth up the Derwent.

BLEND, BLENDE, or BLACK-JACK, a mineral called also *false galena*. See BLINDE and ZINC.

* To BLEND. *v. a.* preter. *I blended*; anciently, *blent*. [*blendan*, Saxon.] 1. To mingle together.

'Tis beauty truly *blent*, whose red and white Nature's own sweet and cunning hand hath lain on. *Shakespeare*

—The mixture taught by the ancients is too slight or gross: for bodies mixed according to their hypothesis, would not appear such to the acute eye of a lynx, who would discern the elements, if they were no otherwise mingled, than but *blended* but not united. *Boyle*.—

He had his calmer influence, and his mien

Did love and majesty together *blend*. *Dryden*

The grave where even the great find rest,

And *blended* lie th' oppressor and th' oppressed. *Pope*

2. To confound.—The moon should wander from her beaten way, the times and seasons of the year *blend* themselves by disordered and confused mixture. *Hooker*. 3. To pollute; to spoil; to corrupt. This signification was anciently much in use, but is now wholly obsolete.—

Which when he saw, he burnt with jealous fire;

The eye of reason was with rage *yblent*.

Fairy Queen

Regan

1) B L E

after 12. The troops then advanced to the attack; the right under the direction of Prince Eugene, the left headed by Marlborough, and opposed to Marshal Tallard. Marlborough, at the head of the English troops, having passed the rivulet, attacked the cavalry of Tallard with great bravery. This general being then reviewing the disposition of his troops to the left, his cavalry fought for some time without their commander. Prince Eugene had not yet attacked the forces of the elector, and it was near an hour before he could bring up his troops to the engagement. Tallard was no longer informed that his right was attacked by the duke, than he flew to its head, where he found a furious encounter already begun, his cavalry being three driven back, and rallying as often. He had posted a large body of forces at Blenheim, and he made an attempt to bring them to the charge. They were attacked by a detachment of Marlborough's troops so vigorously, that instead of assisting the main body they could hardly maintain their ground. All the French cavalry being thus attacked in flank, was totally defeated. The English army now penetrated between the two bodies of the French commanded by the marshal and elector, while the forces in Blenheim were separated by another detachment. In this distressed situation Tallard flew to rally some squadrons; but from his shortightedness mistaking a detachment of the enemy for his own, he was made prisoner by the Hessian troops, who were in the allied army. Meanwhile, Prince Eugene, after having been three repulsed, at last put the enemy into confusion. The rout then became general, and the flight precipitate. The consternation of the French soldiers was such that they threw themselves into the Danube, without knowing whither they fled. The allies being now masters of the field of battle, surrounded the village of Blenheim, where a body of 12,000 men had been posted in the beginning of the action, and still maintained their ground. Their troops seeing themselves cut off from all communication with the rest of the army, and despairing of being able to force their way through the allies, threw down their arms, and surrendered prisoners of war. Thus ended the battle of Blenheim, one of the most complete victories that ever was obtained. 12,000 French and Bavarians being slain in the field or drowned in the Danube; and 13,000 made prisoners of war, besides 100 pieces of cannon, 24 mortars, upwards of 120 pairs of colours, 200 standards, 12 pair of kettle-drums, upwards of 3,000 tents, 14 muskets, 100 janded mules, two bridges of boats, and all the French baggage, taken with their military chest. Next day, when the D. of Marlborough visited his prisoner the marshal, the latter assured him that he had never seen the best troops in the world. "I hope, Sir," replied the duke, "you will except those troops by whom they were conquered." The allies, in consequence of this victory, became masters of a country 100 leagues in extent, between the Rhine, N. E. of Strasbourg, and N. W. of Augsburg. Lon. 10. 15. E. and 48. 40. N. Blenheim was a place of some importance, but it was not a great town.

was

was settled on the duke and his heirs, in consideration of the eminent services by him performed for the public; and for building of which house the sum of L. 500,000 was granted by parliament, &c. The tenure by which the manor of Woodstock is held, is the presenting at the castle of Windsor annually, on the day in which the battle of Blenheim was fought, a flag embroidered with flowers-de-lis; which flag is shown to all strangers who visit the castle.

BLINKARN, a village in Cumberland, 4 m. N. W. of Appleby.

BLINKENSHIP, a village in Northumberland near the Picts Wall, on the borders of Cumberland.

BLENNA, **BLENA**, [*βλenna, μυζα, παρυζα*,] is used by Hippocrates for a thick phlegm and mucus flowing from the brain through the nostrils, and shewing signs of a beginning concoction; as Galen explains it in several parts of his works.

BLANNERHASSET, a village in Cumberland near Bothel.

BLENNIUS, the **BLENNY**, in ichthyology, a genus of fishes belonging to the order of jugulares; the characters of which are these: The head slants or declines to one side; there are six rays in the membrane of the gills; the body tapers towards the tail; the belly fins have only two blunt bones; and the tail fin is distinct. The species are 13; viz.

1. **BLENNIUS CORNUTUS**, with a simple ray above the eyes, and a single black fin.

2. **BLENNIUS CRISTATUS**, with a longitudinal bristly crest betwixt the eyes. The above two are natives of the Indies.

3. **BLENNIUS GALERIA**, with a transverse membranous crest upon the head, is found in the European seas.

4. **BLENNIUS GATTORUGINE**, with small palmed fins about the eye-brows and neck. It is about seven or eight inches long, is found in the European seas.

5. **BLENNIUS GUNELLUS** has 10 black spots on the back fin. It is found in the Atlantic Ocean.

6. **BLENNIUS LUMPENUS** has several dusky-coloured areolæ running across its body. It is found in the European seas.

7. **BLENNIUS MUSTELARIS** has 3 rays on the fore part of the back fin. It is a native of India.

8. **BLENNIUS OCELLARIS**, with a furrow betwixt the eyes, and a large spot on the back fin. It is found in the European seas.

9. **BLENNIUS PHOLIS** has a smooth head, a curve line upon the sides, and the upper jaw is larger than the under one.

10. **BLENNIUS PHYCIS**, with a kind of crested nostrils, a cirrus or beard on the under lip, and a double fin on the back. It has 7 rays in the gill membrane; the anus is surrounded with a black ring; and the tail is roundish. The two last are found in the Mediterranean Sea.

11. **BLENNIUS RANINUS**, with six divisions in the belly fins, is found in the lakes of Sweden.—It is remarkable, that when this fish appears in the lake, all the other fishes retire; and what is worse, it is not fit for eating.

12. **BLENNIUS SUPERCILIOSUS**, with small fins

about the eye-brows, and a curved lateral line.—It is a native of India.

13. **BLENNIUS VIVIPARUS** has two tentacles at the mouth. Schonevelde first discovered the species; Sir Robert Sibbald afterwards found on the Scottish coast. They bring forth 200 or 300 young at a time. Their season of parturition is a little after the depth of winter. Before midsummer, they quit the bays and shores; and retire into the deep, where they are commonly taken. They are a very coarse fish, and eaten only by the poor. They are common in the mouth of the river Esk, at Whitby, Yorkshire; where they are taken frequently from off the bridge.—They sometimes grow to the length of a foot.—Their form is slender, and the backbone is green as that of a sea-needle.

BLENNUS, a name given by some authors particularly Schönfelt, to the *SYNGNATHUS cor pore hexagono, cauda pinnata*; the *ACUS* of Aristotle; and *acus secundæ* of other writers; called also by Gösner and Bellonius, *TYPHLE MARINA*. It is a name used also by some for the tobacco pipe fish.

BLENNY. See **BLENNIUS**.

(1.) **BLENT**. *adj.* *Obs.* ceased; blind; disappointed. *Chauc.*

* (2.) **BLENT**. The obsolete *participle* of *blend*. See **BLEND**.

BLEPHARIDES, in anatomy, the hair of the eye-lids, or the part on which it grows.

BLEPHARO, *n. f.* one who has great eye-lids.

BLEPHARON, *n. f.* [*βλεφαρον*, Gr.] the eye-lid.

BLEPHAROXYSTUM, [from *βλεφαρον* and *ξύστω*, to scrape off,] an instrument for pulling hairs out of the eye-lids.

BLERA, in old records, peat or turf.

BLERVIE, a barony in the county of Elgin, comprehending a very fertile district, which produces excellent grain. It belongs to the Hon. Lewis Duff, who has built an elegant seat upon it. The tower of the ancient family seat of the Dunbars, which is all that remains of it, stands upon an elevated ground, and commands a very extensive view of the Moray Firth, and great part of the counties of Elgin, Nairn, Inverness, Cromarty, Ross, Sutherland and Caithness.

BLESENIS BOLUS, *bloë of Blois*, in the *materia medica*, a medicinal earth dug about Saumur, Blois, and Burgoyne in France, and seeming to possess all the virtues of the Armenian bole of Galen, which it also much resembles in external appearance. It is useful in fluxes and other cases, and might be had in any quantities, at a small price; but the common red French bole, a counterfeit of it, or the **BOLE ARMENIAC**, is generally sold for it.

BLESILOQUENT, *adj.* [from *blesus*, an impediment and *loquor*, to speak,] stammering.

BLESS, Henry, painter, was born at Bovine, near Dinant, 1480. He acquired his skill by the strength of his natural genius, assisted by a diligent study of Patenier's works; and rendered himself eminent, particularly by his landscapes. His best performances were bought by the Emperor Rodolph, and they are still preserved at Vienna. His style in historical subjects resembled that of the Flemish artists. But he crowded several subjects,

jects into one design; as, in his picture of the disciples at Emmaus, he represented not only that incident, but likewise, in different groups in the back ground, the different parts of our Saviour's passion. And yet, notwithstanding this impropriety, his pictures were so delicately finished, and so full of variety, that even in Italy his works were in great request. They were stiled the *owl pictures*, for he fixed an owl, as his peculiar mark, in each of them; by which his works are always indisputably known. He died in 1550.

* *To BLESS. v. a. preterite and participle, blessed or blest.* [Saxon.] 1. To make happy; to prosper; to make successful.—

The quality of mercy is not strain'd;
It droppeth as the gentle rain of heaven
Upon the place beneath. It is twice *blest*;
It *blest* him that gives, and him that takes.

Shakespeare.

Had I but died an hour before this chance,
I had liv'd a *blest* time: for, from this instant,
There's nothing serious in mortality. *Shakes.*
—This kingdom enjoyed the greatest calm, and the fullest measure of felicity, that any people, in any age, for so long time together, have been *blest* with. *Clarendon.*—

Happy this isle, with such a hero *blest*;
What virtue dwells not in his loyal breast? *Waller.*
In vain with folding arms the youth assay'd
To stop her flight, and strain the flying shade;
But she return'd no more, to *blest* his longing eyes.

Dryden.

O hospitable Jove! we thus invoke,
Bless to both nations this auspicious hour. *Dryd.*
2. To wish happiness to another; to pronounce a blessing upon him.—And this is the blessing wherewith Moses the man of God *blest* the children of Israel, before his death. *Deuteronomy.* 3. To consecrate by a prayer.—He *blest*, and brake, and gave the loaves. *Matthew.* 3. To praise; to glory by benefits received; to celebrate.—Unto us there is one only guide of all agents natural, and he both the creator and worker of all in all, alone to be *blest*, adored, and honoured by all for ever. *Hooker.*—

But *blest* be that great pow'r, that hath us *blest*;

With longer life than earth and heav'n can have.

Davies.

3. It seems, in one place of *Spenser*, to signify the same as to *move*; to *brandish*; to *flourish*. This signification is taken from an old rite of our Roman ancestors, who *blest* a field directed their hands in quick succession to all parts of it.—

When the prince to battle new addrest,
And threat'ning high his dreadful stroke did see,
His sparkling blade about his head he *blest*,
And smote off quite his right leg by the knee.

Fairy Queen.

(1.) * *BLESSED. particip. adj.* [from *To blest*.]
1. Happy; enjoying felicity.—*Blessed* are the bar-
ca *Luke.* 2. Holy and happy; happy in the fa-
vour of God.—All generations shall call me *blest*.
3. Happy in the joys of heaven.—
4. *Blessed* are the dead that die in the Lord. *Rev.*

(2.) * *BLESSED THISTLE.* [enicus, Lat.] The name of a plant.

* *BLESSEDLY. adv.* [from *blest*.] Happily.

—This accident of Clitophon's taking, had so *blestly* procured their meeting. *Sidney.*

* *BLESSEDNESS. n. s.* [from *blest*.] 1. Happiness: felicity.—Many times have I, leaning to yonder palm, admired the *blestness* of it, that it could bear love without the sense of pain. *Sidney.*—

His overthrow heap'd happiness upon him;
For then, and not till then; he felt himself,
And found the *blestness* of being little. *Shakes.*

2. Sanctity.—

Earthlier happy is the rose distill'd,
Than that, which, withering on the virgin thorn,
Grows, lives, and dies in single *blestness*. *Shakes.*
3. Heavenly felicity.—It is such an one, as, being begun in grace, passes into glory, *blestness*, and immortality. *South.* 4. Divine favour.

* *BLESSER. n. s.* [from *blest*.] He that blesses, or gives a blessing; he that makes any thing prosper.—When thou receivest praise, take it indifferently, and return it to God, the giver of the gift, or *blesser* of the action. *Taylor.*

* *BLESSING. n. s.* [from *blest*.] 1. Benedic-
tion; a prayer by which happiness is implored for any one. 2. A declaration by which happiness is promised in a prophetick and authoritative man-
ner.—The person that is called, kneeleth down before the chair, and the father layeth his hand upon his head, or her head, and giveth the *blessing*. *Bacon.* 3. Any of the means of happiness; a gift; an advantage; a benefit.—

Nor are his *blessings* to his banks confin'd,
But free and common, as the sea and wind.

Denham.

—Political jealousy is very reasonable in persons persuaded of the excellency of their constitution, who believe that they derive from it the most valuable *blessings* of society. *Addison.*—A just and wise magistrate is a *blessing* as extensive as the community to which he belongs: a *blessing* which includes all other *blessings* whatsoever, that relate to this life. *Atterbury.* 4. Divine favour.—

My pretty cousin,

Blessing upon you! *Shakespeare.*

I had most need of *blessing* , and Amen

Stuck in my throat. *Shakespeare.*

—Honour thy father and mother, both in word and deed; that a *blessing* may come upon thee from them. *Ecclesi.*—He shall receive the *blessing* from the Lord. *Psalms.* 5. The Hebrews, under this name, often understood the presents which friends make to one another; in all probability, because they are generally attended with *blessings* and compliments both from those who give, and those who receive. *Calmet.*—And Jacob said, receive my present at my hand; take, I pray thee, my *blessing* that is brought to thee. *Genesis.*

BLESSINGTON, a town of Ireland, in the county of Wicklow, Leinster, pleasantly seated on a rising ground, near the Liffey, 14 m. S. W. of Dublin. Lon. 6. 40. W. Lat. 53. 10. N.

* *BLEST. preterite and participle.* [from *blest*.]
Peace to thy gentle shade, and endless rest!

Blest in thy genius, and in thy love too *blest*! *Pope.*

BLESTIUM, in ancient geography, a town of Britain; now called OLD-TOWN, not far from Hereford.

BLESTRISMUS, [from *βληστίζω*, to *to*s,] in the ancient physic, a continual tossing and inquietude of

of the body occasioned by a tumultuary effervescence of the blood, especially in acute fevers.

BLETA ALBA, an epithet given by some to the milky urine voided in some disorders of the kidneys, ranked by Paracelsus among the causes of the *phtisis*.

BLETARN, a village in Westmoreland, N. W. of Kirby-Lonsdale.

BLETCHINGTON, the name of two villages in Sussex; 1. near Brighthelmstone; and, 2. N. of Eastbourn.

BLETHERWICK, a village in Northamptonshire, near King's-Cliff.

BLETONISM, a faculty of perceiving and indicating subterraneous springs and currents by sensation. The term is modern, and derived from a Mr Bleton, who within these few years excited universal attention by possessing this faculty, which seems to depend upon some peculiar organization. Concerning the reality of this extraordinary faculty, there occurred great doubts among the learned. But M. Thouvenel, a French philosopher, seems to have put the matter beyond dispute, in two memoirs which he published upon the subject. He was charged by the late unfortunate monarch with a commission to analyse the mineral and medicinal waters in France; and, by repeated trials, he had been so fully convinced of the capacity of Bleton, to assist him with efficacy in this important undertaking, that he solicited the ministry to join him in the commission upon advantageous terms. All this shows that the operations of Bleton have a more solid support, than the tricks of imposture or the delusions of fancy. In fact, a great number of his discoveries are ascertained by respectable affidavits. The following is a strong instance in favour of Bletonism. "For a long time the traces of several springs and their reservoirs in the lands of the Abbey de Ver-vains had been entirely lost. It appeared, nevertheless, by ancient deeds and titles, that these springs and reservoirs had existed. A neighbouring abbey was supposed to have turned their waters for its benefit into other channels, and a law-suit was commenced upon this supposition. M. Bleton was applied to: he discovered at once the new course of the waters in question: his discovery was ascertained, and the law-suit was terminated." Bleton, however, was mistaken more than once; and M. Thouvenel enumerates, with candour, the cases in which he failed: but these cases are very rare in comparison with those in which he succeeded. Besides, even the mistakes of Bleton do not invalidate the reality of his talent; since a talent may be real without being perfect, or exerting itself with the same success in every trial. Many argued against Bletonism, because they looked upon the facts on which it is founded as inexplicable. But M. Thouvenel assigns principles, upon which the impressions made by subterraneous waters and mines may be accounted for. Having ascertained a general law, by which subterraneous electricity exerts an influence upon the bodies of certain individuals, eminently susceptible of that influence, and shown that this law is the same whether the electrical action arises from currents of warm or cold water, from currents of humid air, from coal or metallic mines, from sulphur,

and so on, he observes, that there is a diversity in the physical and organical impressions which are produced by this electrical action, according as it proceeds from different fossile bodies, which are more or less conductors of electrical emanations. There are also artificial processes, which concur in leading us to distinguish the different conductors of mineral electricity; and in these processes the use of electrometrical rods deserves the attention of philosophers, who might perhaps in process of time substitute in their place a more perfect instrument. Their physical and spontaneous mobility, and its electrical cause, are demonstrated by indisputable experiments. On the other hand, M. Thouvenel proves, by very plausible arguments, the influence of subterraneous electrical currents: compares them with the electrical currents of the atmosphere, points out the different impressions they produce, according to the number and quality of the bodies which act, and the diversity of those which are acted upon. The ordinary sources of cold water make impressions proportioned to their volume, the velocity of their currents, and other circumstances. Their stagnation destroys every species of electrical influence; at least, in the state they have none that is perceptible. The depth is indicated by geometrical processes, founded upon the motion and divergence of the electrical rays; but there are second causes, which sometimes diversify these indications, and occasion seeming errors. These errors, however, according to our author, are only exceptions to the general rule; exceptions which depend on the difference of mediums and situations, and not on the inconstancy or incertitude of the organical sensitive, or convulsive faculties of the Bletoni. All the hot springs in France, traced by M. Thouvenel, from the places where they flow, to the places where their formation commences (sometimes at a distance of 15 leagues), led him constantly to masses of coal; where they are collected and heated in basins of different depths and dimensions, nourished by the filtration of lakes and the course of torrents, and mineralized by saline sulphureous, metallic, and bituminous substances in the natural furnaces where they are heated, in the strata through which they flow.—The most singular and important phenomenon which our author met with in the course of his experiments, must not be here omitted. Over the veins of iron mines alone the electrometrical rods assume a motion of rotation diametrically opposite to that which they exhibit over all other minerals. This phenomenon takes place with the same distinctness when iron and other metals are extracted from their mines and deposited under ground. But the most remarkable circumstance in this distinctive action of these metals, is, that it has a uniform and constant direction from E. to W. in all metals, iron excepted, just as iron rendered magnetic has an action directed from S. to N. The action of red metals is more palpable than that of the white; but the latter, though weak, has nevertheless a real existence in the sulphur. In the supplement to this memoir, there is an accurate account of the processes that have furnished these invariable results. They naturally suggest the idea of constructing an electrical compass.

usually produced by an easterly wind, bringing vast quantities of insects eggs along with it, from some distant place; and that these, being lodged upon the surface of the leaves and flowers of fruit trees, cause them to shrivel up and perish. To cure this distemper, they advise the burning of wet litter on the windward side of the plants, that the smoke thereof may be carried to them by the wind, which they suppose will stifle and destroy the insects, and thereby cure the distemper. Others direct the use of tobacco dust, or to wash the trees with water wherein tobacco stalks have been infused for 12 hours; which they say will destroy those insects, and recover the plants. Pepper dust scattered over the blossoms of fruit trees, &c. has been recommended as very useful in this case; and there are some that advise the pulling off the leaves that are distempered. The true cause of blights seem to be continued dry easterly winds for several days together, without the intervention of showers, or any morning dew, by which the perspiration in the tender blossom is stopped; and if it so happens that there is a long continuance of the same weather, it equally affects the tender leaves, whereby their colour is changed, and they wither and decay. The best remedy for this distemper, is to wash and sprinkle gently over the tree, &c. from time to time with common water; and if the young shoots seem to be much infected, let them be washed with a woollen cloth, so as to clear them, if possible, from this glutinous matter, that their respiration and perspiration may not be obstructed. This operation ought to be performed early in the day, that the moisture may be exhaled before the cold of the night comes on: nor should it be done when the sun shines very hot. Another cause of blights in spring is sharp hoary frosts, which are often succeeded by hot sunshine in the day time. These are the most sudden and certain destroyers of the fruits that are known.

* *To BLIGHT*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To corrupt with mildew.—This vapour bears up along with it any noxious mineral steams; it then blasts vegetables, *blights* corn and fruit, and is sometimes injurious even to men. *Woodward*. 2. In general, to blast; to hinder from fertility.—My country neighbours do not find it impossible to think of a lame horse they have, or their *blighted* corn, till they have run over in their minds all beings. *Locke*.—

But lest harsh care the lover's peace destroy,
And roughly *blight* the tender buds of joy,
Let reason teach. *Lyttelton*.

BLIGHTED CORN. See SMUT.

BLIKE, in ichthyology, a name given by some to an anadromous fish, resembling our river chub, and called by Gesner *capito anadromus*; but better known by the name of ZARTA, or the ZERTE.

BLILESLOW. See BLIDESLOW.

BLIMHILL, a village in Staffordshire, W. of Penkridge.

To BLIN, *v. n. abs.* To ease. *Spenser*.

(1.) * *BLIND*. *adj.* [*blind*, Sax.] 1. Without sight; wanting the sense of seeing; dark.—The *blind* man that governs his steps by feeling, in defect of eyes, receives advertisements of things through a staff. *Digby*.—

Those other two equall'd with me in fate,
So were I equall'd with them in renown!
Blind Thamyris, and *blind* Mæonides;
And Terebias, and Phineas, prophets old. *Mil-*
2. Intellectually dark; unable to judge; ignorant with *to* before that which is unseen.—

All authors *to* their own defects are *blind*;
Hadst thou, but Janus like, a face behind,
To see the people, what splay mouths they make
To mark their fingers pointed at thy back.

Dryden

3. Sometimes *of*.—

Blind of the future, and by rage misled,
He pulls his crimes upon his people's head.

Dryden

4. Unseen; out of the publick view; private: generally with some tendency to some contempt or censure.—To grievous and scandalous inconveniencies they make themselves subject, with whom any *blind* or secret corner is judged a fit house for common prayer. *Hooker*. 5. Not easily discernible; hard to find; dark; obscure; unseen.—There be also *blind* fires under stone, which flar not out; but oil being poured upon them, the flame out. *Bacon*.—

Where else

Shall I inform my unacquainted sect

In the *blind* mazes of this tangl'd wood? *Mil-*

How have we wander'd a long dismal night
Led through *blind* paths by each deluding light

Roscommon

Part creeping under ground, their journey
blind,

And climbing from below, their fellows meet

Dryden

So mariners mistake the promis'd gulf,
And, with full sails, on the *blind* rocks are lost

Dryden

A postern door, yet unobserv'd and free,
Join'd by the length of a *blind* gallery,

To the king's closet bed. *Dryden*

6. *Blind Vessels*. [with chymists.] Such as have an opening but on one side.

(2.) * *BLIND*. *n. f.* 1. Something to hinder the sight.—Hardly any thing in our conversation pure and genuine; civility casts a *blind* over the duty, under some customary words. *L'Estrange*

2. Something to mislead the eye or the understanding.—These discourses set an opposition between his commands and decrees; making the one a *blind* for the execution of the other. *Decay of Piety*.

(3.) *BLIND*, an epithet applied to a person sensitive creature deprived of the use of his eye or, in other words, to one from whom light, colours, and all the glorious variety of the visible creation, are intercepted by some natural or accidental disease. Such is the literal acceptation of the term; but it is likewise used in a metaphorical sense, (see § 1. *def.* 2.) and frequently implied at the same time, some moral or spiritual depravity in the soul thus blinded, which is either the efficient or continuing cause of this internal mady. Yet, even in metaphor, the epithet is sometimes applied to a species of ignorance, which neither involves the idea of real guilt nor of voluntary error. It is, however, our present intention to consider the word, not in its figurative, but in its natu-

natu

natural and primary sense. Nor do we mean in this place to regard it as a subject of medical speculation, or to explore its causes and enumerate its cures. These belong to another science. See *MEDICINE, INDEX*. Our chief design here is to consider, By what means this inexpressible misfortune may be compensated or alleviated to those who sustain it; what advantages and consolations they may derive from it; of what acquisitions they may be susceptible; what are the proper means of their improvement; or by what culture they may become useful to themselves, and important members of society. See § 5—19.

(4.) *BLIND, ACCOUNT OF THE DISTRESSED SITUATION OF THE.* There is not perhaps any loss or faculty of the corporeal frame, which affords so many sources of utility and entertainment as the power of vision; nor is there any privation which can be productive of disadvantages so various, and so bitter, as the want of sight. By no avenue of corporeal perception is knowledge in her full extent, so accessible to the rational soul, as by the glorious and delightful medium of light. For this not only reveals external things in all their beauties, and varieties, but enables the mind to give body, form, and colour, to intellectual ideas; so that the whole material and intelligent creation lie open, and the majestic frame of nature is perceived at a glance. To the blind, on the contrary, the visible universe is totally annihilated; he has not even any distinct idea of space, except that in which he stands, or to which his extremities can reach. Sound, indeed, gives him some ideas of distant objects; but these ideas are extremely obscure and indistinct. They are obscure, because they consist alone of the objects whose oscillations vibrate on his ear, and do not necessarily suppose any other bodies with which the intermediate space may be occupied; they are indistinct, because sounds themselves are frequently ambiguous, and do not uniformly indicate their real causes. And though by them the idea of distance in general, or even of some particular distances, may be obtained; yet they never fill the mind with those vast and exalted ideas of extension, which are inspired by ocular perception. For though a clap of thunder, or an explosion of ordnance, may be distinctly heard after the sound has traversed an immense region of space; yet, when the distance is uncommonly great, it ceases to be indicated by sound; and therefore the ideas, acquired by auricular experiment, of extension and interval, are extremely confused and inadequate. The comprehensive eye casts its instantaneous glance over extensive valleys, lofty mountains, protracted rivers, illimitable oceans. It views in an instant, the mighty space from earth to heaven, or from one star to another. By the assistance of telescopes, its power is almost infinitely extended, its objects prodigiously multiplied, and the sphere of its observation immensely enlarged. Thus the imagination, injured to vast impressions of distance, can not only recal them in their greatest extent, with as much rapidity as they were at first imbibed; but can multiply them, and add one to another, till all particular boundaries and distances be lost in immensity. The blind are apprehensive of danger in every motion towards any place, from whence their con-

tracted powers of perception can give them no intelligence. All the various modes of delicate proportion, all the beautiful varieties of light and colours, exhibited in the works of nature and art, are to them irretrievably lost. Dependent for every thing, but mere existence, on the good offices of others; obnoxious to injury from every point, which they are neither capacitated to perceive nor qualified to resist; they are, during the present state of being, rather prisoners at large, than citizens of nature. The sedentary life, to which by privation of sight they are destined, relaxes their frame, and subjects them to all the disagreeable sensations which arise from dejection of spirits. Hence the most feeble exertions create lassitude and uneasiness. Hence the native tone of the nervous system, compatible with health and pleasure, being destroyed by inactivity, exasperates and embitters every disagreeable impression. Natural evils, however, are supportable; being either mild in their attacks, or short in their duration: the miseries inflicted by conscious and reflecting agents alone deserve the name of evils. These excruciate the soul with ineffable poignancy, as expressive of indifference or malignity in those by whom such bitter portions are cruelly administered. The negligence or wantonness, therefore, with which the blind are too frequently treated, is an enormity which God alone has justice or power to punish. Those amongst them who have had sensibility to feel, and capacity to express, the effects of their misfortunes, have described them in a manner capable of penetrating the most callous heart. Homer, who, in the person of Demodocus the Phæacian bard, is said to have described his own situation, proceeds thus:

Τὸν περ Μῦσ' ἐπιλεξεν, ἔδωκε δ' ἀγαθὸν τι, κακὸν τι
Ὀφθαλμοῖν μιν ἀμείβετο, λῆδ' δ' ἔδωκεν αὐδῆν. *ODYS. 8*

Dear to the muse, who gave his days to flow
With mighty blessings mix'd with mighty woe,
In clouds and darkness quench'd his visual ray,
Yet gave him power to raise the lofty lay. *POPE.*

Our ancient Caledonian bard, Ossian, who in his old age participated the same calamity, has also, in more than one passage of his works, described his situation in a manner equally delicate and pathetic. And Milton complains, (*Par. Lost, B. iii.*)

“With the year
Seasons return; but not to me returns
Day, or the sweet approach of ev'n or morn,
Or sight of vernal bloom, or summer's rose,
Or flocks, or herds, or human face divine;
But cloud instead, and ever during dark,
Surround me, from the cheerful ways of men
Cut off,” &c.

And in his tragedy of *Samson Agonistes*, in the person of his hero, he deplores the misfortune of blindness with great pathos and energy.

But chief of all,
O loss of sight, of thee I most complain!
Blind among enemies, O worse than chains,
Dungeon, or beggary, decrepid age.
Light, the prime work of God, to me's extinct,
And all her various objects of delight

Annul'd, which might in part my grief have eas'd,
 Inferior to the vilest now become
 Of man or worm. The vilest here excel me :
 They creep, yet see.—
 Scarce half I seem to live, dead more than half
 O dark, dark, dark, amid the blaze of noon,
 Irrecoverably dark, total eclipse
 Without all hope of day !
 Since light so necessary is to life,
 And almost life itself, why was the sight
 To such a tender ball as th' eye confin'd,
 So obvious, and easy to be quench'd ?
 And not, as feeling, through all parts diffus'd,
 That she might look at will thro' ev'ry pore ?
 Then had I not been thus exil'd from light,
 As in the land of darkness, yet in light
 To live a life half dead, a living death ;
 And buried ; but yet more miserable !
 Myself the sepulchre, a moving grave.

Thus dependent on every creature, and passive to every accident, can we be surpris'd, to observe moments when the blind are at variance with themselves and every thing else around them ? With the same instincts of self-preservation, the same irascible passions which are common to the species, and exasperated by a sense of debility either for retaliation or defence ; can the blind be really objects of resentment or contempt, even when they seem peevish or vindictive ? This, however, is not always their character. Their behaviour is often highly expressive, not only of resignation, but even of cheerfulness ; and though they are often coldly, and even inhumanly, treated by men, yet they are rarely, if ever, forsaken of heaven. The common Parent of nature, whose benignity is permanent as his existence, and boundless as his empire, has neither left his afflicted creatures without consolation nor resource. See § 5.

(5.) BLIND, ADVANTAGES ENJOYED BY THE. The blind often derive advantages even from their loss, however oppressive and irretrievable ; not indeed adequate to compensate, but sufficient to alleviate their misery. The attention of the soul, confined to these avenues of perception which she can command, is neither dissipated nor confounded, by the immense multiplicity, nor the rapid succession of surrounding objects. Hence her contemplations are more uniformly fixed upon the revolutions of her own internal frame. Hence her perceptions of such external things, as are contiguous and obvious to her observation, become more exquisite. Hence even her instruments of corporeal sensation are more assiduously improved ; so that from them she derives such notices of approaching pleasure, or impending danger, as entirely escape the attention of those who depend for security on the reports of their eyes. A blind man, when walking swiftly, or running, is kindly checked by nature from rudely encountering such hard and extended objects as might hurt or bruise him. When he approaches bodies of this kind, he feels the atmosphere more sensibly resist his progress ; and in proportion as his motion is accelerated, or his distance from the object diminished, the resistance is increased. He distinguishes the approach of his friend by the

sound of his steps, by his manner of breathing and almost by every audible token which he can exhibit. Prepared for the dangers which he may encounter, from the surface of the ground upon which he walks, his step is habitually firm and cautious. Hence he not only avoids those falls which might be occasioned by its less formidable inequalities, but from its general bias he collects some ideas, how far his safety is immediately concerned ; and though these conjectures may be sometimes fallacious, yet they are generally so true as to preserve him from such accidents as are not incurred by his own temerity. The rapid torrent and the deep cascade not only warn him to keep a proper distance, but inform him in what direction he moves, and are a kind of audible synopses to regulate his course. In places to which he has been accustomed, he as it were recognises his latitude and longitude, from every breath of varied fragrance that tinges the gale, from every ascent or declivity in the road, from every natural or artificial sound that strikes his ear ; if these indications be stationary, and confined to particular places. Regulated by these signs, the blind have not only been known to perform long journeys themselves, but even to conduct others through dangerous paths at midnight, with the utmost security and exactness. See § 11. I would be endless to recapitulate the various mechanical operations of which they are capable, by their nicety and accuracy of touch. In some the tactile powers are said to have been so highly improved, as to perceive that texture and disposition of coloured surfaces, by which some rays of light are reflected and others absorbed, and in this manner to distinguish colours. But the testimonies for this fact still appear too vague and general to deserve public credit. A person who lost the use of his sight at an early period of infancy, who in the vivacity or delicacy of his sensations was not perhaps inferior to any one, and who had often heard of others in his situation capable of distinguishing colours by touch, stimulated, partly by curiosity to acquire a new train of ideas, if possible, but still more by incredulity with respect to the facts related, tried repeated experiments, by touching the surfaces of different bodies, and examining whether any such diversities could be found in them, as might enable him to distinguish colours ; but no such diversity could he ever ascertain. Sometimes, indeed, he imagined that objects which had no colour, or, in other words, such as were black, were somewhat different and peculiar in their surfaces ; but this experiment did not always hold. (See however § 13 & 14.) That their acoustic perceptions are distinct and accurate, we may fairly conclude from the rapidity with which they ascertain the acuteness or gravity of different tones, and from their exact discernment of the various modifications of sound, and of sonorous objects, if the sounds themselves be in any degree significant of their causes. From this accuracy of external sensation, and from the assiduous and vigorous applications of a comprehensive and attentive mind alone, we are able to account for the rapid and astonishing progress which some of them have made, not only in those departments of literature, which were most ob-

or advocate in the council of Brabant, and has had the pleasure of terminating almost every suit in which he has been engaged to the satisfaction of his clients. The following anecdotes of Dr MOYES were not long ago presented to the Manchester Society by Dr G. Bew, and afterwards published. "Dr Henry Moyes, who occasionally read Lectures on Philosophical Chemistry at Manchester, like Dr Saunderson, the celebrated professor of Cambridge, lost his sight by the small-pox in his early infancy. He never recollected to have seen: 'but the first traces of memory I have (says he,) are in some confused ideas of the solar system.' He had the good fortune to be born in a country where learning of every kind is highly cultivated, and to be brought up in a family devoted to learning. Possessed of native genius, and ardent in his application, he made rapid advances in various departments of erudition; and not only acquired the fundamental principles of mechanics, music, and the languages, but likewise entered deeply into the investigation of the profounder sciences, and displayed an acute and general knowledge of geometry, optics, algebra, astronomy, chemistry, and in short of most of the branches of the Newtonian philosophy. Mechanical exercises were the favourite employments of his infant years. At a very early age he made himself acquainted with the use of edged tools so perfectly, that notwithstanding his entire blindness, he was able to make little wind-mills; and he even constructed a loom with his own hands, which still show the cicatrices of wounds he received in the execution of these juvenile exploits. By a most agreeable intimacy and frequent intercourse which I enjoyed with this accomplished blind gentleman, whilst he resided at Manchester, I had an opportunity of repeatedly observing the peculiar manner in which he arranged his ideas and acquired his information. Whenever he was introduced into company, I remarked that he continued some time silent. The sound directed him to judge of the dimensions of the room, and the different voices of the number of persons that were present. His distinctions in these respects was very accurate; and his memory so retentive, that he seldom was mistaken. I have known him instantly recognize a person, on first hearing him speak, though more than two years had elapsed since the time of their last meeting. He determined pretty nearly the stature of those he was speaking with by the direction of their voices; and he made tolerable conjectures respecting their tempers and dispositions, by the manner in which they conducted their conversation. It must be observed, that this gentleman's eyes were not totally insensible to intense light. The rays refracted through a prism, when sufficiently vivid, produced certain distinguishable effects on them. The red gave him a disagreeable sensation, which he compared to the touch of a saw. As the colours declined in violence, the harshness lessened, until the green afforded a sensation that was highly pleasing to him, and which he described as conveying an idea similar to what he felt in running his hand over smooth polished surfaces. Polished surfaces, meandering streams, and gentle declivities, were the figures by which he expressed

his ideas of beauty: Rugged rocks, irregular points, and boisterous elements, furnished him with expressions for terror and disgust. He excelled in the charms of conversation; was happy in his allusions to visual objects; and discoursed on the nature, composition, and beauty of colours, with pertinence and precision. Dr Moyes was a striking instance of the power the human soul possesses, of finding resources of satisfaction even under the most rigorous calamities. Though involved 'in ever during darkness,' and excluded from the charming views of silent or animated nature; though dependent on an undertaking for the means of his subsistence, the success of which was very precarious; in short, though destitute of other support than his genius, and under the mercenary protection of a person whose integrity he suspected, still Dr Moyes was generally cheerful, and apparently happy. Indeed it must afford much pleasure to the feeling heart, to observe this hilarity of temper prevail almost universally with the blind. Though 'cut off from the ways of men, and the contemplation of the human face divine,' they have this consolation; they are exempt from the discernment, and contagious influence of those painful emotions of the soul, that are visible on the countenance, and which hypocrisy itself can scarcely conceal. This disposition likewise may be considered as an internal evidence of the native worth of the human mind, that thus supports its dignity and cheerfulness under one of the severest misfortunes that can possibly befall us. There are few sciences in which the blind have not distinguished themselves: even those whose acquisition seemed essentially to depend upon vision have at last yielded to genius and industry, though deprived of that advantage. Professor SAUNDERSON has left the most striking evidences of astonishing proficiency in those abstract branches of mathematics, which appeared least accessible to blind persons. Sculpture is not the most practicable art for a blind man, yet there are instances of persons who have taken the figure of a face by the touch and moulded it in wax with the utmost exactness as was the case of the blind sculptor mentioned by De Piles, who thus took the likeness of the Duke de Bracciano in a dark cellar, and made a marble statue of K. Charles I. with great elegance and justness. (*Cours de Peint.* p. 329. *Wolf. Psychol. Rat.* § 162.) And, however unaccountable it may appear to the abstract philosopher, yet nothing is more certain in fact, than that a blind man may by the efforts of a cultivated genius, exhibit in poetry the most natural images and animated descriptions, even of visible objects, without either incurring or deserving the imputation of plagiarism. In music, there are, at present, living instances how far the blind may proceed. In former periods, we shall find illustrious examples, how amply nature has capacitated the blind to excel both in the scientific and practical departments of music. In the 16th century, when the progress of improvement both in melody and harmony was rapid and conspicuous, FRANCIS SALINAS was eminently distinguished. He was born A. D. 1513, at Burgos in Spain; and was son to the treasurer of that city. Though afflicted with incurable blindness, he was profoundly skilled both

in the theory and practice of music. As a performer, he is celebrated by his contemporaries with the highest encomiums. As a theorist, Sir John Hawkins says, his book is equal in value to any now extant in any language. Though he was deprived of sight in his earliest infancy, he did not content himself to delineate the various phenomena in music, but the principles from whence they result, the relations of sound, the nature of arithmetical, geometrical, and harmonical ratios, which were then esteemed essential to the theory of music, with a degree of intelligence which would have deserved admiration, though he had been in full possession of every sense requisite for these disquisitions. He was taken to Rome in the retinue of Petrus Sarmenus, archbishop of Compostella; and having passed 20 years in Italy, he returned to Salamanca, where he obtained the professorship of music, an office at that time equally respectable and lucrative. Having discharged it with reputation and success for some time, he died at the venerable age of 77. In the same period flourished CASPAR CRUMBHORN, blind from the 3d year of his age: yet he composed several pieces in many parts with so much success, and performed both upon the flute and violin so exquisitely, that he was distinguished by Augustus elector of Saxony. But preferring his native country, Silesia, to every other, he returned to it, and was appointed organist of the church of St Peter and Paul in Lignitz, where he had often the direction of the musical college, and died June 11, 1621. To these might be added MARTIN PESENTI of Venice, a composer of vocal and instrumental music almost of all kinds, though blind from his nativity; with other examples equally worthy of public attention. But if vulgar prejudice is capable of blushing at its own contemptible character, or of yielding to emulation, those already quoted are more than sufficient to show the musical jugglers of our time, that their art is no monopoly, with which those alone who see are invested, by the irreversible decree of heaven. See farther, § 11—15.

(2.) BLIND, EDUCATION OF THE. It is scarce possible to lay down a plan, or enter into a detail of particulars with respect to the education of the blind. These must be determined by the genius, the capacity, and the circumstances, of those to whom the general rules should be applied. Much therefore must depend on their fortunes, much on their temper and genius; for unless these particulars were known, every answer which could be given to questions of this kind must be extremely general, and of consequence extremely superficial. Besides, the task is so much more arduous, because whoever attempts it can expect to derive no assistance from those who have written on education before him: And though the blind have excelled in more than one science; yet, except in the case of Dr Saunderson, (see § 7 & 15.) it does not appear, that any of them have been conducted to that degree of eminence, at which they arrived, upon a premeditated plan. One should rather imagine, that they have been led through the general course and ordinary forms of discipline; and that, if any circumstances were favourable to their genius, they rather proceeded from accident than design. This melancholy truth re-

flects no honour on human nature. When contemplated by a man of benevolence, it is not easy to guess whether his mortification or astonishment will be greatest. A heart that glows with real philanthropy feels for the whole vital creation, and becomes, in some measure, the *sensorium* of every suffering insect or reptile. How must our sympathy increase then in tenderness and force, when the distressed individuals of our own species become its objects? Nor do the blind bear so small a proportion to the whole community, as, even in a political view, to be neglected. But in this, as in every other political crime, the punishment returns upon the society in which it is committed. Those abandoned and unimproved beings, who, under proper culture and discipline, might have successfully concurred in producing and augmenting the general welfare, become the nuisances and burdens of those very societies who have neglected them. There is perhaps no class of beings in the sensible universe, who have suffered from nature or accident, more meritorious of public compassion, or better qualified to repay its generous exertions, than the blind. They are meritorious of compassion; for their sphere of action and enjoyment is much more limited than that of the deaf, the lame, or of those who labour under any other corporeal infirmity consistent with health: although, on the other hand, it must be owned, that they are more capable of acquiring most branches of science than those born deaf. They are better qualified to repay any friendly interposition for their happiness; because, free from the distraction which attends that multiplicity of objects and pursuits, that are continually obvious to the sight, they are more attentive to their own internal œconomy, to the particular notices of good and evil impressed on their hearts, and to that peculiar province in which they are circumscribed, by the nature and cultivation of their powers. The most important view, which we can entertain in the education of a person deprived of sight, is to redress, as effectually as we possibly can, the natural disadvantages with which he is encumbered; or, in other words, to enlarge as far as possible the sphere of his knowledge and activity. This can only be done by the improvement of his intellectual, imaginative, or mechanical, powers; and which of these ought to be most assiduously cultivated, the genius of every individual alone can determine. Were men to judge of things by their intrinsic natures, less would be expected from the blind than others. But, by some pernicious and unaccountable prejudice, people generally hope to find them either possessed of preternatural talents, or more attentive to those which they have than others; thinking with Rochester,

That if one sense should be suppress'd,
It but retires into the rest.

Hence it unluckily happens, that blind men, who in common life are too often regarded as *rare-shows*, when they do not gratify the extravagant expectations of their spectators, frequently sink in the general opinion, and appear much less considerable and meritorious than they really are. This general diffidence of their powers deprives them both

both of opportunity and spirit to exert themselves; and they descend, at last, to that degree of insignificance, in which the public estimate has fixed them. From the original dawning, therefore, of reason and spirit, the parents and tutors of the blind ought to inculcate this maxim upon them, That it is their indispensable duty to excel, and that it is absolutely in their power to attain a high degree of eminence. To impress this notion on their minds, the first objects presented to their observation, and the first methods of improvement applied to their understanding, ought to be comprehensible by those internal powers and external senses which they possess. Not that improvement should be rendered quite easy to them. For all difficulties, which are not insuperable, heighten the charms and enhance the value of those acquisitions which they seem to retard. But care should be taken that these difficulties be not magnified or exaggerated; for the blind have a painful sense of their own incapacity, and consequently a strong propensity to despair. For this reason, parents and relations ought never to be too ready in offering their assistance to the blind in any office which they can perform, or in any acquisition which they can procure for themselves, whether they are prompted by amusement or necessity. Let a blind boy be permitted to walk through the neighbourhood without a guide, not only though he should run some hazard, but even though he should suffer some pain. If he has a mechanical turn, let him not be denied the use of edge tools; for it is better that he should lose a little blood, or even break a bone, than be perpetually confined to the same place, debilitated in his frame, and depressed in his mind. Such a being can have no employment but to feel his own weakness, and become his own tormentor; or to transfer to others the peevishness arising from the natural, adventitious, or imaginary evils which he feels. Scars, fractures, and dislocations in his body, are trivial misfortunes compared with imbecility, timidity, or fretfulness of mind. Besides the dreadful effects, which inactivity has in relaxing the nerves and depressing the spirits, nothing can be more productive of jealousy, envy, peevishness, and every passion that corrodes the soul to agony, than a painful impression of dependence on others, and of our insufficiency for our own happiness. This impression, which, even in his most improved state, will be too deeply felt by every blind man, is redoubled by that utter incapacity of action, which must result from the officious humanity of those, who would anticipate all his wants, who would prevent all his motions, who would do or procure every thing for him without his own interposition. Blind people, as well as others, may survive their parents, and those who, by the ties of blood and nature, are more immediately interested in their happiness than the rest of mankind. When, therefore, they fall into the hands of strangers, such exigencies, as they themselves cannot redress, will be but coldly and languidly supplied by others. Their expectations will be high and frequent, their disappointments many and sensible; their petitions will often be refused, seldom fully gratified; and, even when granted, the concession will be so ungrace-

ful, as to render its want infinitely more tolerable than its fruition. For all these reasons, in the education of a blind man, it is better to direct than supersede his own exertions. From the time that he can move and feel, let him be taught to supply his own exigencies; to dress and feed himself; to run from place to place, either for exercise, or in pursuit of his own toys or necessities. In these excursions, however, it will be proper for his parent or tutor to superintend his motions at a distance, without seeming to watch over him. A vigilance too apparent, may impress him with a notion that some selfish motive may have produced it. When dangers are obvious and great such as from rivers, precipices, &c. those who are entrusted with the blind need not make their vigilance a secret. They ought to acquaint their pupil, that they are present, and interpose for his preservation, whenever his temerity renders it necessary. But objects of a nature less noxious which may give him some pain without any permanent injury or mutilation, may even with design be thrown in his way; provided that this design be always industriously concealed. For his own experience of their bad effects will be a far more eloquent and sensible monitor, than the abstract and frigid counsels of any adviser whatever. The natural curiosity of children renders them extremely inquisitive. This disposition is often peculiarly prevalent in the blind. Parents and tutors, therefore, should gratify it whenever their answers can be intelligible to the pupil; when it is otherwise, let them candidly confess the impossibility or impropriety of answering his questions. At this period, if their hearts be tender, and their powers inventive, they may render his amusements the vehicles, and his toys the instruments of improvement: why, for instance, may not the centrifugal and centripetal forces be illustrated from the motion of a top, or the nature and power of elasticity by the rebound of a ball. These hints may lead to others, which, if happily improved, may wonderfully facilitate the progress of knowledge. Nor will the violence of exercise and the tumult of play, be productive of such perils as may be apprehended. For the encouragement of parents, we can assure them, that though, till the age of 20, some blind persons were on most occasions permitted to walk, to run, to play at large, they have yet escaped without any corporeal injury from these excursions. Parents in the middle, or higher ranks, who have blind children, ought, by all means, to keep them out of vulgar company. Such persons often have a wanton malignity, which impels them to impose upon the blind, and to enjoy their painful sensations. This is a stricture upon the humanity of our species, which nothing but the love of truth and the dictates of benevolence could extort. Some have suffered so much from this diabolical mirth in their own persons, that it is a duty to prevent others from becoming its victims. Blind people have infinitely more to fear from the levity and ignorance, than from the selfishness and ill nature of mankind. In serious and important affairs, pride and compassion suspend the efforts of knavery or spleen; and that very infirmity, which so frequently renders the blind defenceless to the

achieve, who undertakes the law as a profession. Perhaps assistances might be drawn from Cicero's treatise on Topics and on Invention ; which if improved might lessen the disparity of a blind man to others, but could scarcely place him on an equal footing with his brethren. And it ought to be fixed as an inviolable maxim, that no blind man ought to engage in any province, in which it is not in his power to excel. For the consciousness of the obvious advantages possessed by others, habitually predisposes a blind man to despondency; and if he ever gives way to despair (which he will be too apt to do, when pursuing any acquisition, where others have a better chance of success than himself,) adieu to all proficiency. His soul sinks into irretrievable depression ; his abortive attempts incessantly prey upon his spirit ; and he not only loses that vigour and elasticity of mind, which are necessary to carry him through life, but that patience and serenity which alone can qualify him to enjoy it. As to physic, the obstacles which a blind man must encounter, both in the theory and practice of that art, will be easily conceived. If the blind must depend upon the exercise of their own powers for bread, we have already pointed out music as their easiest and most obvious province ; but let it be remembered, that mediocrity in this art may prove the bitterest and most effectual curse, which a parent can inflict upon his offspring ; as it subjects them to every vicious impression or habit, which may be imbibed or contracted, from the lowest and most abandoned of mankind. If your pupil, therefore, be not endowed with natural talents exquisitely proper both for the theory and practice of this art, suffer him by no means to be initiated in it. If his natural genius favours your attempts, the spinet, harp, or organ, are the most proper instruments for him to begin ; because, by these instruments, he may be made more easily acquainted with the extent of musical scales, with the powers of harmony, with the relations of which it is constituted, and of course with the theory of his art. It would be not only unnecessary, but impracticable, to carry him deep into the theory, before he has attained some facility in the practice. Let, therefore, his head and his hands be taught to go *pari passu*.—Let the one be instructed in the simplest elements, and the others connected in the easiest operations first : contemplation and exercise will produce light in the one and promptitude in the other.—But as his capacity of speculation and powers of action become more and more mature, discoveries more abstract and retired, tasks more arduous and difficult, may be assigned him. He should be taught the names and gradations of the diatonic scale, the nature and use of time, the diversity of modes whether simple or mixed. He should be taught the quantity or value of notes, not only with respect to their pitch, but to their duration. Yet let him be instructed not to consider these durations as absolutely fixed, but variable according to the velocity of the movements in which they are placed. Thus we reckon a semibreve equal to 4 vibrations of a pendulum ; a minim to 2 ; a crotchet to 1, &c. But if the number of aliquot parts, into which a semibreve is divided, be great, consequently the value of each particular part

small, the minim, crotchet, quaver, &c. will increase in their intrinsic durations, though they must always preserve the same proportions relatively one to another. He should never be habituated to take a piece of music, either from the sound of a voice or an instrument. His companion ought to read the music by the names and values of its characters, with the same exactness as the words in any other language. When he becomes a considerable adept in the art, tangible signs may be used, (See § 16.) by which he may not only be enabled to read, but even to set music for himself. Such exercises will render him infinitely more accurate, both in his principles and practice, than he would otherwise be.

(10.) BLIND, EXERCISES, DIET, &c. PROPER FOR THE. When the volatile season of puerile amusement is expired, and the impetuous hum of animal spirits subsides, the tutor will probably observe in his pupil a more sensible degree of timidity and precaution, and his activity will then require to be stimulated more than restrained. In this crisis, exercise will be found requisite, rather to preserve health, and facilitate the vital functions than merely for recreation. Of all kinds of exercise, riding on horseback, is by far the most eligible. Care, however, must be taken that the horses employed be neither capricious nor unmanageable ; for on this not only his safety, but his confidence, will entirely depend. In all his excursions, his attendant ought constantly to be with him ; and the horse should always either be taught implicitly to follow its guide, or be conducted by a leading rein besides the bridle which he himself holds. Next to this mode of exercise is walking. If the constitution of the blind boy be tolerably robust, let him be taught to endure every vicissitude of weather, which the human species can bear with impunity. For if he has been bred with too much delicacy, particular accidents may supersede all his former scruples, and subject him to the necessity of suffering, what will not only be fever in its sensation, but dangerous in its consequences. Yet, when the cold is so intense, or the element so tempestuous, as to render air and exercise almost impracticable, there are methods of domestic exercise, which may be practised ; such as dumbbells, or the bath chair. The first of these are made of lead, consisting of a cylinder, the middle of which may either be rectilineal or arcuated for the convenience of holding, and terminates at each end in a semiglobular mass. The weight should be conformed to the strength of the person who uses them. The method of employing them is to take one in each hand, and swing them backwards and forwards over his head, describing a figure somewhat like a parabola. This not only strengthens the arms, and opens the chest, but promotes the circulation of the fluids. The bath chair is a deal 12 feet in length, as free from knots and as elastic as possible, supported by a fulcrum at each end, upon which may be placed two rolling cylinders to give it greater play ; when seated upon this, by alternately depressing it with his own weight, and suffering it to return to its natural situation, he gives himself a motion, somewhat resembling the trot of a horse. The elastic chair is of still greater utility, especially to one in a violent

ludicrous

ordinary state. It consists of 3 false bottoms, and one real, which is the basis of the whole.—The lowest is by far the most extensive. The highest is stuffed to render it easy, and covered with plush, baize, or duffle. Between each of the false bottoms, at either end, behind and before, are placed steel springs, fixed above and below to the boards; with staples, and curved in a spiral or serpentine form, each consisting of 7 spikes; which are formed in such a manner, that one of them can pass through another, and thus give the springs full play in rising or descending. The lowest bottom or basis of the whole is protruded about 4 inches; which assists one to mount the seat with more facility, and serves as a support for the feet in riding. The operation is performed by alternately depressing and raising one's feet upon the seat; so that the springs yielding to the weight when the person descends, and resisting when he rises, give a motion like that of the deal, but more violent, more rapid, and consequently more salutary. The whole frame of the seat is surrounded with leather, having different apertures to admit or eject the air occasioned by the motion. These general hints are sufficient to give any ingenious artisan an idea of the nature and structure of the machine, which he may alter or improve as convenience shall dictate. To these modes of domestic exercise may be added that of a swing, which is formed by a rope suspended from two screws, which ought to be strongly fixed at proper distances, in the joists of a capacious chamber, with a board and a cushion for a seat, and cords fastened behind and before, lest the impetuosity of the motion should shake the patient out of his position. The blind, in diet as well as in exercise, should neither be mechanically regular, nor entirely excentric. In the one case, he will be a slave to habit, which may create some inconvenience; in the other, he will form no habits at all, which may still be productive of greater. The blind being liable to all the inconveniences of a sedentary life, are peculiarly subjected to that disorder, called *tadium vite*, or low spirits. This disposition may be said to comprehend in it all the other evils of human life; because, by its immediate influence on the mind, it aggravates the weight and bitterness of every calamity to which we are obnoxious. Parents and tutors, therefore, cannot be too careful in observing and obviating the first symptoms of this impending plague. If the limbs of a blind child or pupil be tremulous; if he is apt to start, and easily susceptible of surprise; if he finds it difficult to sleep; if his slumbers, when commenced, are frequently interrupted, and attended with perturbation; if his ordinary exercises appear to him more terrible and insuperable than usual; if his appetites become languid and his digestion slow; if agreeable occurrences give him less pleasure, and adverse events more pain than they ought to inspire;—this is the crisis of vigorous interposition. A proper strengthening diet, and moderate exercise are the best preventives of this evil, and perhaps its best remedies when unhappily incurred. Animal food is the most proper nutriment, as being of easy digestion; better too, if done upon the spit or griddle: neither should it be too fat: beef,

mutton, or fowls, arrived at maturity, give the stomach least labour, and are most nutritive. Of all vegetable substances, white bread is perhaps the only ingredient which may be eat with impunity; and even this would still be safer were it prepared without fermentation. Eggs may be eat by people in low spirits, even at supper, with great advantage. Herbs and roots are not only extremely flatulent, but productive of that sharp acid for which magnesia is the best remedy. Patients of this description should rather be frequent than liberal in their meals, and scrupulously careful of all heterogeneous mixtures. Their most eligible beverage, except simple water, is port wine, if they can afford it, as being least convertible into that poignant fluid: porter likewise, if not stale, may, by its strength and bitterness, assist the action of the stomach. Neither of these fermented liquors should be taken in large quantities; let nature be satisfied, and no more; for if the spirits are unnaturally elated, they will sink proportionably when the stimulus ceases to operate. The moderate use of genuine rum or brandy, properly diluted, when the other liquors cannot be had, may be productive of good effects. In desperate cases opium may be used with advantage, if properly supported by a nutritive diet. See MEDICINE, INDEX. Tea is prohibited by some physicians, but others think, if not drank too warm, or in too great quantities, it is rather beneficial, as it exhilarates the spirits, without inducing that sinking which follows the liberal use of higher stimuli. Care should be taken that the patient may never be too much warmed, either by cloaths or exercise, especially when in bed.—Exertions of body, particularly in the open air, are indispensably necessary for promoting digestion and acquiring strength; but should never be carried to fatigue. The mind should likewise be diverted from attention to itself and its disorder, by reading and conversation. But discernment and delicacy are requisite, that these may neither be too cheerful nor too serious, for the state of the mind.

(II.) BLIND GUIDES, INSTANCES OF. Authors of good credit mention a very surprising blind guide who used to conduct the merchants through the sands and deserts of Arabia. See *Leo Afric. Descri. Afr. lib. vi. p. 246.* and *Casaub. Treat. of Enthuf. c. ii. p. 45.* Dr Bew, in the *Transact of the Manchester Society*, mentions an instance not less marvellous, in our own country. “John Metcalf, a native of the neighbourhood of Manchester, where he is well known, became blind at a very early age, so as to be entirely unconscious of light and its various effects. This man passed the younger part of his life as a waggoner, and occasionally as a guide in intricate roads during the night, or when the tracks were covered with snow. Strange as this may appear to those who can see, the employment he has since undertaken is still more extraordinary: it is one of the last to which we could suppose a blind man would ever turn his attention. His present occupation is that of a projector and surveyor of highways in difficult and mountainous parts. With the assistance only of a long staff, I have several times met this man travelling the roads, ascending precipices, exploring valleys, and investigating their sever-

extents, forms, and situations, so as to answer his designs in the best manner. The plans which he designs, and the estimates he makes, are done in a manner peculiar to himself; and which he cannot well convey the meaning of to others. His abilities in this respect are nevertheless so great, that he finds constant employment. Most of the roads over the Peak in Derbyshire, have been altered by his directions; particularly those in the vicinity of Buxton; and he is at this time constructing a new one betwixt Wilmeslow and Congkton, with a view to open a communication to the great London road, without being obliged to pass over the mountains."

(12.) BLIND, INVENTIONS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE. See § 15—18.

(13.) BLIND LADY, SURPRISING ACQUISITIONS OF A. In the *Annual Register* for 1762, the following narrative is inserted. "A young gentlewoman of a good family in France, now in her 18th year, lost her sight when only two years old, her mother having been advised to lay some pigeons blood on her eyes, to preserve them in the small-pox; whereas, so far from answering the end, it eat into them. Nature, however, may be said to have compensated for the unhappy mistake, by beauty of person, sweetness of temper, vivacity of genius, quickness of conception, and many talents which certainly much alleviate her misfortune. She plays at cards with the same readiness as others of the party. She first prepares the packs allotted to her, by pricking them in several parts; yet so imperceptibly, that the closest inspection can scarce discern her indexes. She sorts the suits, and arranges the cards in their proper sequence, with the same precision, and nearly the same facility, as they who have their sight. All she requires of those who play with her, is to name every card as it is played; and these she retains so exactly, that she frequently performs some notable strokes, such as show a great combination and strong memory. The most wonderful circumstance is, that she should have learned to read and write; but even this is readily believed on knowing her method. In writing to her, no ink is used, but the letters are pricked down on the paper; and by the delicacy of her touch, feeling each letter, she follows them successively, and reads every word with her finger ends. She herself in writing makes use of a pencil, as she could not know when her pen was dry; her guide on the paper is a small thin ruler, and of the breadth of her writing. On finishing a letter, she wets it, so as to fix the traces of her pencil, that they are not obscured or effaced; then proceeds to fold and seal it, and write the direction: all by her own address, and without the assistance of any other person. Her writing is very straight, well cut, and the spelling no less correct. To reach this singular mechanism, the indefatigable cares of her affectionate mother were long employed, who accustomed her daughter to feel letters cut in cards or paste-board, brought her to distinguish an A from a B, and thus the whole alphabet, and afterwards to spell words; then, by the remembrance of the shape of the letters, to delineate them on paper; and, lastly, to arrange them so as to form words and sentences. She has learned to play on the guitar,

and has even contrived a way of pricking down the tunes as an assistance to her memory. So delicate are her organs, that in singing a tune, though new to her, she is able to name the notes. In figured dances she acquits herself extremely well, and in a minuet with inimitable ease and gracefulness. As for the works of her sex, she has a masterly hand; she sews and hems perfectly well; and in all her works she threads the needles for herself, however small. By the watch her touch never fails telling her exactly the hour and minute."

(14.) BLIND LADY, VERY EXTRAORDINARY CASE OF ANOTHER. This lady had been afflicted with the confluent small pox. "In the course of this disease, during which she had been attended by the late Sir Hans Sloane, several threatening symptoms appeared, which however were at length overcome; and the patient being thought out of danger, took several doses of such purgative medicines as are usually administered in the decline of the disease, without any bad consequence. But in the evening of the day, on which she had taken the last dose that was intended to be given her, she was suddenly seized with pains and convulsions in the bowels; the pain and other symptoms became gradually less violent as the force of the medicine abated, and by such remedies as were thought best adapted to the case, they seemed at length to be entirely subdued. They were, however, subdued only in appearance; for at eleven o'clock A.M. next day they returned with great violence, and continued some hours; when they went off, they left the muscles of the lower jaw so much relaxed, that it fell down, and the chin was supported on the breast. The strength of the patient was so much exhausted during this paroxysm, that she lay near two hours with no other signs of life than a very feeble respiration, which was often so difficult to be discerned, that those about her concluded she was dead. From this time the fits returned periodically every day, at about the same hour. At first they seemed to affect her nearly in the same degree; but at length all the symptoms were aggravated, the convulsions became more general, and her arms were sometimes convulsed alternately; it also frequently happened, that the arm which was last convulsed remained extended and inflexible some hours after the struggles were over. Her neck was often twisted with such violence, that the face looked directly backwards, and the back part of the head was over the breast; the muscles of the countenance were also so contracted and writhed by the spasms, that the features were totally changed, and it was impossible to find any resemblance of her natural aspect by which she could be known. Her feet were not less distorted than her head; for they were twisted almost to dislocation at the instep, so that she could not walk but upon her ankles. To remove or mitigate these deplorable symptoms, many remedies were tried; and, among others, the cold bath: but either by the natural effect of the bath, or by some mismanagement in the bathing, the unhappy patient first became blind, and soon afterwards deaf and dumb. It is not easy to conceive what could increase the misery of deafness, dumbness, blindness, and frequent paroxysms of excruciating pain; yet a very considerable

considerable aggravation was added; for the loss of her sight, her hearing, and her speech, was followed by such a stricture of the muscles of her throat, that she could swallow no kind of aliment either solid or liquid. It might reasonably be supposed that this circumstance, though it added to the degree of her misery, would have shortened its duration: yet in this condition she continued near three quarters of a year: and during that time was supported by chewing her food only; which having turned often, and kept long in her mouth, she was obliged at last to spit out.—Liquors were likewise gargled about in her mouth for some time; and then returned in the same manner, no part of them having passed the throat by an act of deglutition: so that whatever was conveyed into the stomach, either of the juices or the solid food, or of liquids, was either gradually imbibed by the sponginess of the parts which they moistened, or trickled down in a very small quantity along the sides of the vessels. But there were other peculiarities in the case of this lady, yet more extraordinary. During the privation of her sight and hearing, her touch and her smell became so exquisite, that she could distinguish the different colours of silk and flowers, and was sensible when any stranger was in the room with her. After she became blind, and deaf, and dumb, it was not easy to contrive any method by which a question could be asked her, and an answer received. This however was at last effected, by talking with the fingers, at which she was uncommonly ready. But those who conversed with her in this manner, were obliged to express themselves by touching her hand and fingers instead of their own. A lady who was nearly related to her, having an apron on, that was embroidered with silk of different colours, asked her, in the manner which has been described, if she could tell what colour it was? and after applying her fingers attentively to the figures of the embroidery, she replied, that it was red, and blue, and green; which was true. The same lady having a pink coloured ribbon on her head, and being willing to satisfy her curiosity and her doubts, asked what colour that was? Her cousin, after feeling some time, answered that it was pink colour: this answer was yet more astonishing, because it showed not only a power of distinguishing different colours, but different kinds of the same colour; the ribbon was not only discovered to be red, but the red was discovered to be of the pale kind called a pink. This unhappy lady, conscious of her own uncommon infirmities, was extremely desirous to be seen by strangers, and therefore generally retired to her chamber, where none but those of the family were likely to come. The same relation, who had by the experiment of the apron and ribbon discovered the exquisite sensibility of her touch, was soon after convinced by an accident, that her power of smelling was acute and refined in the same highly astonishing degree. Being one day visiting the family, she went up to her cousin's chamber, and after making herself known, she intreated her to go down, and sit with her among the rest of the family, assuring her, that there was no other person present; to which she at length consented, and went down to

the parlour door; but the moment the door was opened, she turned back, and retired to her own chamber much displeased; alledging that there were strangers in the room, and that an attempt had been made to deceive her; it happened indeed that there were strangers in the room; but they had come in while the lady was above stairs, so that she did not know that they were there. When she had satisfied her cousin of this particular, she was pacified; and being afterwards asked how she knew there were strangers in the room, she answered, by the smell. But though she could by this sense distinguish in general between persons with whom she was well acquainted and strangers, yet she could not so easily distinguish one of her acquaintance from another without other assistance. She generally distinguished her friends by feeling their hands; and when they came in, they used to present their hands to her, as a mean of making themselves known; the make and warmth of the hand produced in general the differences that she distinguished; but sometimes she used to span the wrist, and measure the fingers. A lady, with whom she was very well acquainted, coming in one very hot day, after having walked a mile, presented her hand as usual; she felt it longer than ordinary, and seemed to doubt whose it was; but after spanning the wrist, and measuring the fingers, she said, 'It is Mrs M. but she is warmer to-day than ever I felt her before.' To amuse herself in the mournful and perpetual solitude and darkness to which her disorder had reduced her, she used to work much at her needle; and it is remarkable, that her needle-work was uncommonly neat and exact; among many other pieces of her work that are preserved in the family, is a pin-cushion, which can scarcely be equalled. She used also sometimes to write; and her writing was yet more extraordinary than her needle-work; it was executed with the same regularity and exactness; the characters were very pretty, the lines were all even, and the letters placed at equal distances from each other; but the most astonishing particular of all, with respect to her writing, is, that she could by some means discover when a letter had by mistake been omitted, and would place it over that part of the word where it should have been inserted, with a caret under it. She used to sit up in bed at any hour of the night, either to write or to work, when her pain or any other cause kept her awake. These circumstances were so very extraordinary, that it was long doubted, whether she had not some faint remains both of hearing and sight, and many experiments were made to ascertain the matter; some of these experiments she accidentally discovered, and the discovery always threw her into violent convulsions. The thought of being suspected of insincerity, or supposed capable of acting so wicked a part, as to feign infirmities that were not inflicted, was an addition to her miseries which she could not bear, and which never failed to produce an agony of mind, not less visible than those of her body. A clergyman who found her one evening at work by a table with a candle upon it, put his hat between her eyes and the candle, in such a manner that it was impossible she could receive any benefit from the light of it, if she had

had her sight. She continued still at her work, with great tranquillity; till, putting up her hand suddenly to rub her forehead, she struck it against the hat, and discovered what was doing; upon which she was thrown into violent convulsions, and was not without great difficulty recovered. The family were by these experiments, and by several accidental circumstances, fully convinced that she was totally deaf and blind; particularly by sitting unconcerned at her work, during a dreadful storm of thunder and lightning, though she was then facing the window, and always used to be much terrified in such circumstances. But Sir Hans Sloane, her physician, being still doubtful of the truth of facts which were scarce less than miraculous, he was permitted to satisfy himself by such experiments and observations as he thought proper; the issue of which was, that he pronounced her to be absolutely deaf and blind. She was at length sent to Bath, where she was in some measure relieved; her convulsions being less frequent, and her pains less acute; but she never recovered her speech, her sight, or her hearing in the least degree. Many of the letters dated at Bath, in some of which there are instances of interlineations with a caret, the writer of this narrative hath seen; and they are now in the custody of the widow of one of her brothers, who with many other persons, can support the facts here related, however wonderful, with such evidence as it would not only be injustice, but folly to disbelieve."

(15.) BLIND LITERATI, METHODS OF CALCULATION INVENTED BY. Of professor Sanderfon's method of calculation, both in arithmetic and algebra, there is a full and circumstantial detail, given by Mr Diderot in his *Letter concerning the Blind, for the use of those who see*, which we shall here quote. "It is much easier, to use signs already invented, than to become their inventor; as one is forced to do, when engaged in circumstances for which he is not provided. Of what advantage might not this be to Sanderfon, to find a palpable arithmetic already prepared for him at 5 years of age, which he might otherwise have felt the necessity of inventing for himself at the advanced period of 25? This Sanderfon, Madam, is an author deprived of sight, with whom it may not be foreign to our purpose to amuse you. They relate prodigies of him; and of these prodigies there is not one, which his progress in the belles lettres, and his mathematical attainments, do not render credible. The same instrument served him for algebraical calculations, and for the construction of rectilinear figures. You would not perhaps be sorry that I should give you an explication of it, if you thought your mind previously qualified to understand it: and you shall soon perceive that it presupposes no intellectual preparations of which you are not already mistress; and that it would be extremely useful to you if you should ever be seized with the inclination of making long calculations by touch. Imagine to yourself a square, such as you see Plate XL. fig. 1. divided into 4 equal parts by perpendicular lines at the sides, in such a manner, that it may present you the 9 points, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. Suppose this square pierced with 9 holes capable of receiving pins of two

kinds, all of equal length and thickness, but some with heads a little larger than the others. The pins with large heads are never placed any where else but in the centre of the square; those with smaller heads never but at the sides, except in one single case, which is that of making the figure 1, where none are placed at the sides. The sign of 0 is made by placing a pin with a large head in the centre of the little square, without putting any other pin at the sides. See fig. 2. The number 1 is represented by a pin with a small head placed in the centre of the square, without putting any other pin at the sides: the number 2, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the square, and by a pin with a small head placed on one of the sides at the point 1: the number 3, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the square, and by a pin with a small head placed on one of the sides at the point 2: the number 4, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the square, and by a pin with a small head placed on one of the sides at the point 3: the number 5, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the square, and by a pin with a small head placed on one of the sides at the point 4: the number 6, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the square, and by a pin with a small head placed on one of the sides at the point 5: the number 7, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the square, and a pin with a small head placed in one of the sides at the point 6: the number 8, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the square, and by a pin with a small head placed on one of the sides at the point 7: the number 9, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the square, and by a pin with a small head placed on one of the sides at the point 8. Here are plainly ten different expressions obvious to the touch, of which every one answers to one of our ten arithmetical characters. Imagine now a table as large as you please, divided into small squares, horizontally ranged, and separated one from the other at similar distances, as you see it in fig. 3. Thus you will have the instrument of Sanderfon. You may easily conceive that there is not any number which one cannot express upon this table; and, by consequence, no arithmetical operation which one cannot execute upon it. Let it be proposed, for instance, to find the sum, or to work the addition of the 9 numbers following.

1	2	3	4	5
2	3	4	5	6
3	4	5	6	7
4	5	6	7	8
5	6	7	8	9
6	7	8	9	0
7	8	9	0	1
8	9	0	1	2
9	0	1	2	3

"I express them on the table in the order as they are dictated to me; the first figure at the left of the first number, upon the first square to the left of the first line; the 2d figure, to the left of the first number, upon the 2d square to the left of the same line; and so of the rest. I place the 2d number upon the 2d row of square, units beneath units, and tens beneath tens, &c. I

Inventions for the Improvement of blind Persons.

Pl. XL.
Fig. 3.

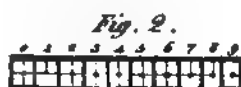
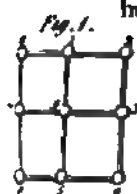


Fig. 4.

Fig. 5.

Fig. 10. Binaele.

Fig. 6.



Fig. 7.



Fig. 8.



Fig. 9.

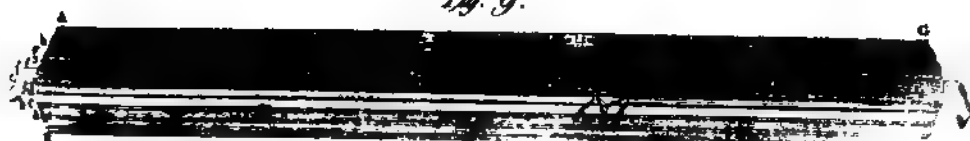
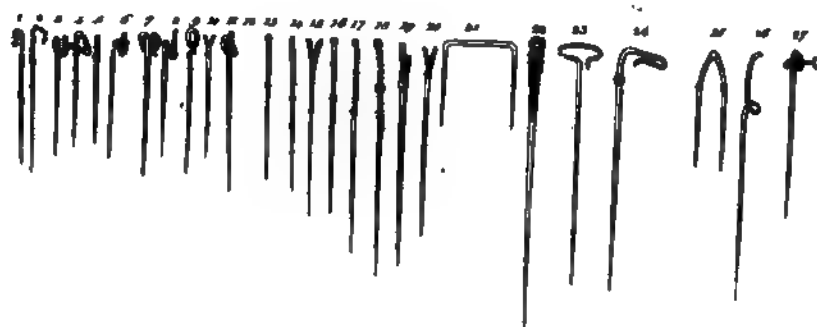
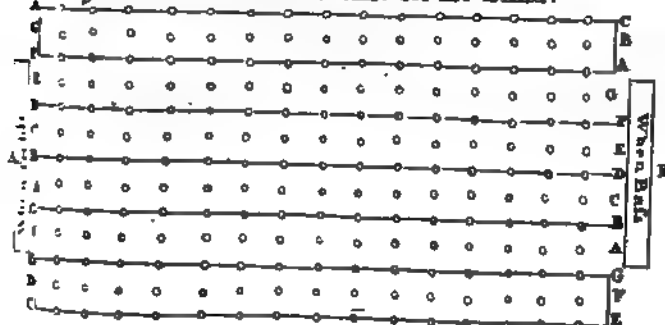


Fig. 10 Tansure's Music Table for the Blind.



Approved for Engraving by the Committee.



place the 3d number upon the 3d row of figures, and so of the rest. Then with my fingers running over each of the rows vertically from the bottom to the top, beginning with that which is nearest to my right, I work the addition of the numbers which are expressed, and mark the surplus of the tens at the foot of that column. I then pass to the 2d column, advancing towards the left; upon which I operate in the same manner; from thence to the 3d; and thus in succession, till I finish my addition. We shall now see how the same table served him for demonstrating the properties of rectilineal figures. Let us suppose this proposition to be demonstrated, That parallelograms, which have the same basis and the same height, are equal in their surfaces. He placed his pins as may be seen in fig. 4. He gave names to the angular points, and finished his demonstration with his fingers. If we suppose that Saunderson only employed pins with large heads to mark the limits of his figures, around these he might arrange his pins with small heads in 9 different manners, all of which were familiar to him. Thus he scarcely found an embarrassment, but in those cases where the great number of angular points, which he was under a necessity of naming in his demonstration, obliged him to recur to the letters of the alphabet. We are not informed how he employed them. We only know, that his fingers ran over the board with astonishing agility; that he undertook with success the longest calculations; that he could interrupt the series, and discover his mistakes; that he proved them with the greatest ease; and that his labours required infinitely less time than one could have imagined, by the exactness and promptitude with which he prepared his instruments and displayed his table. This preparation consisted in placing pins with large heads in the centres of all the squares: having done this, no more remained to him but to fix their values by pins of smaller heads, except in cases where it was necessary to mark a unit; then he placed in the centre of a square, a pin with a small head, with which it had been occupied. Sometimes, instead of forming an entire line with these pins, he contented himself with placing some of them at all the angular points, or points of intersection; around which he tied silk threads, which finished the formation of the limits of his figures." See fig. 4. It may be added by way of improvement, that for the division of one series of numbers from another, a thin piece of timber in the form of a comb, with which lines are drawn, having a pin attached for the holes in the squares, might be employed between the two series to be distinguished. By the notation above exhibited every combination of number may be expressed, and consequently every arithmetical operation successfully performed; but there is another form of palpable arithmetic, equally comprehensive, and much more simple than that of Saunderson, originally invented, and still used in calculation, by Henry Moyes; a gentleman, whose uncommon attainments we have already endeavoured to illustrate. See § 7. In a letter addressed to the Editor of *Encyclopædia Britannica*, the Dr gives the following brief account of a palpable notation,

which he has used for these 29 years, to assist his memory in numerical computations. "When I began to study the principles of arithmetic, which I did at an early period of life, being unacquainted with the writings of Saunderson, in which a palpable notation is described, I embraced the obvious, though imperfect expedient of cutting into the form of numerical characters thin pieces of wood or metal. By arranging these on the surface of a board, I could readily represent any given number, not only to the touch, but also to the eye; and by covering the board with a lamina of wax, my symbols were prevented from changing their places, they adhering to the board from the slightest pressure. By this contrivance, I could solve, though slowly, any problem in the science of numbers: but it soon occurred to me, that my notation, consisting of 10 species of symbols or characters, was much more complicated than was absolutely necessary, and that any given number might be distinctly expressed by 3 species of pegs alone. To illustrate my meaning, let A, B, C, D, (fig. 5.) represent a square piece of mahogany a foot broad and an inch in thickness; let the sides A B, B C, C D, D A, be each divided into 24 equal parts; let every two opposite divisions be joined by a groove cut in the board sufficiently deep to be felt with the finger, and let the board be perforated at each intersection, with an instrument a tenth of an inch in diameter. The surface of the board being thus divided into 576 little squares, with a small perforation at each of their angles, let 3 sets of pegs or pins, resembling those represented in the plate at the figures 6, 7, 8, be so fitted to the holes in the board, that when stuck into them they may keep their positions like those of a fiddle, and require some force to turn them round. The head of each peg belonging to the first set is a right-angled triangle, about one tenth of an inch in thickness; the head of each peg belonging to the 2d set differs only from the former, in having a small notch in its sloping side, or hypotenuse; and the head of each peg belonging to the 3d set is a square, of which the breadth should be equal to the base of the triangle of the other two. These pegs should be kept in a case consisting of 3 boxes or cells, each cell being allotted to a set, and the case must be placed close by the board previous to the commencement of every operation. Each set should consist of 60 or 70 pegs (at least when employed in long calculations); and when the work is finished, they should be collected from the board and carefully restored to their respective boxes. Things being thus prepared, let a peg of the first set be fixed into the board, and it will acquire 4 different values according to its position respecting the calculator. When its sloping side is turned towards the left, it denotes 1, or the first digit; when turned upwards, or from the calculator, it denotes 2, or the 2d digit; when turned to the right, it represents 3; and when turned downwards, or towards the calculator, it denotes 4, or the 4th digit. Five is denoted by a peg of the second set, having its sloping side or hypotenuse turned to the left; 6, by the same turned upwards; 7, by the same turned to the right; and 8, by the same turned directly down, or towards

wards the body of the calculator. Nine is expressed by a peg of the 3d set when its edges are directed to right and left; and the same peg expresses the cypher when its edges are directed up and down. By three different pegs the relative values of the ten digits may therefore be distinctly expressed with facility; and by a sufficient number of each set, the steps and result of the longest calculation may be clearly represented to the sense of feeling. It seems unnecessary to illustrate this by an example; suffice it to express in our characters the present year of the Christian æra 1788: Take a peg of the first set, and fix it in the board with its sloping side turned towards the left equal to one; take a new peg of the 2d set and fix it in the next hole in the same groove, proceeding as usual from left to right, with its sloping side turned to the right equal to 7; next take a peg of the same set and fix it in the next hole, with its sloping side turned downwards, equal to 8; lastly, take another peg of the same set and place it in the next hole in the same position, equal to 8; and the whole will express the number required. When it is necessary to express a vulgar fraction, I place the numerator in the groove immediately above, and the denominator in that immediately below the groove in which the integers stand; and in decimal arithmetic an empty hole in the integer groove represents the comma or decimal point. By similar breaks I also denote pounds, shillings, pence, &c. and by the same expedient I separate in division the divisor and quotient from the dividend. This notation, which supplies me completely with coefficients and indices in algebra and fluxions, seems much superior to any of the kind hitherto made public in the west of Europe. That invented and described by Mr Grenville, having no less than ten sets of pegs, is by much too complicated for general practice; and that which we owe to the celebrated Saunderson is apt to puzzle and embarrass the calculator, as the pegs representing the numerical digits can seldom or never be in the same straight line."

(16.) **BLIND, METHODS OF INSTRUCTING THE, IN MUSIC.** There is a hint of tangible signs for teaching music, in Tansure's Musical Grammar, p. 93. which, though (like the rest of the book) obscure and indigested, may be improved and applied with advantage. We have therefore inserted his MUSIC TABLE, in Plate XL. Fig. 11. and shall here quote his explanation. "Let A—B be a smooth board, 3 or 4 feet long, 1 inch thick, and 9 inches wide, with 5 square ledges glued thereon, each being half an inch asunder, half an inch wide, and half an inch high; which rising ledges represent our 5 lines of music, and their spaces: and the two outward lines being made a little lower, may serve as leger lines, on occasion. The cyphers represent so many holes bored into every line and space, half an inch asunder; wherein pegs of different shapes are to be set, to represent the several sorts of notes and characters of the tune: which pegs the blind person may know by feeling, as well as he does his keys of the organ or harpsichord: so that, by keeping his fingers on the 5 lines, he feels the several pegs as they come, and are set to represent the several sorts of

notes, on both line and space; whilst his right hand strikes the respective key, &c. he first knowing the names of all his keys, his lines, spaces, and the mark of every peg. Let each peg be about half an inch high, when set in very fast [N. B. The blind person must first be taught the names of the above lines and spaces in both the treble and bass clefs; and that he must feel the treble with his right hand, and his bass with the left hand; each being contrary, as you may see by the letters of the above table, A and B; and must learn each part separate.] Of pegs, he must have a great number of every sort, to set his tune with, which he may mark as follows: For a *Semibreve*, 4 top-notches.—*Minim*, 2 top-notches.—*Crotchet*, 1 top-notch.—*Quaver*, 1 corner cut off.—*Semiquaver*, 2 corners cut off.—*Demisemiquaver*, all 4 corners cut off.—*Rests*, a notch in the corner.—*A Flat*, 1 notch on the side.—*Sharp*, 2 notches on the side.—*Point*, 3 notches on the side.—*Bass*, a flat thin top.—*Repeat*, a sharp-pointed top, &c. &c. &c. But it is best for every performer to make and mark his own pegs; and deliver them one by one as they are called for by the person that sets his tune." Such is Mr Tansure's plan of Musical Notation. It is, however, imperfect, and perhaps every table of the kind may be liable to the same censure, as not being comprehensive of all the characters in the written language of music, so that the blind rather may find no deficiency in acquiring any lesson. Mr CHEESE's *Cushion* appears to have more powers than any other instrument hitherto invented for the same purpose; and therefore though it is also attended with formidable objections, we here insert his description of it. It may possibly, however, be best for every blind adept in the musical art, after being sufficiently instructed in its theoretical and practical principles, to invent for himself a table, by which may be expressed all the various phenomena of music; in which, by varying the forms and positions of his pegs, he may habitually associate them with sounds, durations, rests, intervals, chords, cadences, da capos, repeats, and all the various graces which give animation and expression to musical sounds: for thus, being the immediate creatures of his own imagination, they will easily become familiar to his memory, and be more strongly and readily associated with the phenomena which they are intended to express, than the inventions of any other. Mr Cheese's machine (see Plate XL. Fig. 9.) is intended, in "teaching music to people deprived of sight, to enable them to preserve their compositions, in the act of composing, without the assistance of a copyist."—"That part of the machine, which represents the book, or paper, is a small cushion stuffed, on a little frame; along which, is sewed a number of pack-thread strings at equal distances from each other; these represent the lines in a music book: the five which compose the stave are made of large twine; and those which represent the leger or occasional lines, drawn through the heads of the notes, where the music exceeds the compass of the established stave, are made of small twine, and are on this machine of the same length as the others. If the practitioner only wishes to write harpsichord music, the cushion may be of any length

length he pleases, and about five or six inches wide: the strings must be sewed in the following order: beginning with the first or lowest, near the edge of the cushion; 4 small ones, which correspond with the notes in the base of the instrument: f, rr, cc, ee: Next five large ones, for the stave which correspond with the lines in the book, or notes in the instrument, g, b, d, f, r; one small one, which represents the occasional line between the base and treble, or middle c; 5 large ones for the treble stave, which make the notes e, g, b, d, f; 5 small ones, which represent the leger lines when the music goes in alt. These provide for the note a in alt, c in alt, and e in alt; in the space above which, next the edge of the cushion, the f in alt is wrote, when it is wanting, which completes the compass of the instrument. Those who only sing or play on single instruments, such as violins; &c. should have their cushions not above half the width of those before-mentioned, upon which there should be but one stave, and that in the following order:—Two small lines at bottom, 5 large ones in the middle, and 3 small ones at top. Neither of the outside lines of these small cushions should be sewed close to the edge, as there are notes supposed above and below. At either end of these small cushions, there should be a small wire staple, in order that any number of them may be combined together at pleasure, by running a rod through the staples: this will enable the practitioner to write what musicians call SCORE, in any number of parts he pleases; and by this means a thorough knowledge of the great works of Handel, and all other classical authors, may be acquired, as well without sight as with it. The characters used to write on this machine are pins; some with 2, 3, or more heads; others bent in different forms—some, the head taken off and the top bent flat; some of these are split; others the heads taken off, and placed near the middle. The bars are pieces of wire crooked at each end; a double bar is made by placing two single ones close together; a double sharp and double flat in the same manner. The characters are kept in a box in the same style as a printer keeps his types; each different compartment of which must be marked with a character in writing, signifying what each, contained in the several compartments, is intended to represent. That the master may be acquainted with them, the student must be taught to distinguish each of the characters contained in the box by the feel, as well as the names of each line and space upon the cushion. When he can do this readily, the music should be read to him, which it will be well for him to copy on the cushion: and when this is filled, let it be laid on the desk of the harpist before him; and then by feeling over a passage or sentence at a time, and afterwards playing it, his playing always commencing with the beginning of the piece, or at some particular part of it, this will soon enable him to recollect the whole, when the hands are taken off the cushion, to play what has been last felt. One of those characters, called a direct, must be placed against the note to be next felt: This will enable the student to go on again, after playing, without any difficulty. The person who reads the music, must be instructed not to call the lines or spaces by the

letters which distinguish them, lest confusion may ensue, every eighth being the same; but must read in the following manner: first the name of the character must be mentioned, whether minim, crotchet, or quaver, &c. then the line or space; as for example, minim on the first line, crotchet on the first space, quaver on the second, &c. &c. When the music exceeds the compass of the stave, it must be particularly mentioned whether above or below, first calling the character, then the leger line or space. The technical term at the beginning of each piece, is better remembered than wrote down on the machine: The accidental terms, which are best marked by placing some character, not much used, either above or below the note on which it happens, the ingenious mind will find out a method of doing for itself. This machine will not only teach music; but, calling the characters letters, any one will be enabled to spell, read, or write down his sentiments on any subject, and even convey them to his friend without the assistance of a secretary. Arithmetic may be also taught upon this machine; as by calling the dot 1, and the pause 10, a complete set of figures will be formed. *EXPLANATION of the figures:* A, B, C, D, the form of the cushion, which in its full size is about 3 feet long, and 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide, having thereon a representation of musical notes, shown by different pins stuck on it. The lines a, b, c, d, e, are of large packthread; and the lines, f, g, h, are of small twine. Pins; N^o 1. A semibreve. 2. A semibreve rest. 3. A minim. 4. A minim rest. 5. Dots. 6. A crotchet. 7. A crotchet rest. 8. A quaver. 9. A quaver rest. 10. A sharp. 11. A semiquaver. 12. A semiquaver rest. 13. A demiquaver. 14. A demiquaver rest. 15. A flat. 16. A demisemiquaver. 17. A demisemiquaver rest. 18. A semidemiquaver. 19. A semidemiquaver rest. 20. A natural. 21. Bars. 22. A direct. 23. A tie. 24. Bass. 25. Tenor cliff. 26. Treble cliff. 27. A repeat. 28. Pause. 29. This character placed on any line or space, signifies as many notes on that line or space as there are doubles on the pins; if turned upwards, it implies the same number ascending; if downward, that number descending. 30. A beat or inverted shake. 31. A shake; and where there is a dot placed over it, signifies a turned shake. Two dots placed over each other, above the notes, without this character, signify a turn only. 32. This character is used over the note to signify *forte*; and if a dot is placed above it, *fortissimo*; if the dot is placed above the note and below the character, it implies *crescendo*; if the character is placed below the note, it signifies *piano*; and if a dot is placed under it, *pianissimo*; but if the dot is above the character, and below the note, it signifies *diminuendo*. In concertos, the inventor uses the same character placed above the note in the same manner, with two dots over it to signify *toote*; and below the notes, with two dots under it to signify *solo*: In vocal music, the same character above the notes, with three dots over it, signifies *symphony*; and below the notes, with three dots under it, signifies *song*. When playing concertos, or performing in *score*, the blind must depend upon memory, and upon memory alone; but happily their retentive powers are remarkably strong; and there

are few pieces in music which will be found either too intricate to be acquired, or too long to be remembered, by a person deprived of sight. Mr Stanley performs what is still more astonishing: He accompanies any lesson with a thorough bass, though he never has heard it before. We have never yet heard of any person, though blessed with the full use of sight, who could thus anticipate harmony before the chords were sounded, and accompany it in a manner suitable to its nature. When the pupil becomes a more profound theorist, he may be farther instructed by Rameau, in his principles of composition; by D'Alembert, and by Rousseau's Musical Dictionary: (see MUSIC.) Or, if he be persuaded of the necessity of geometry in music, (which some think frivolous,) he may peruse Dr Smith's Philosophical Principles of Harmony, Malcolm's Essay, Treydell's Theory and Practice of Music; or *The Principles and Power of Harmony*; an illustration of Tartini's theory.

(17.) **BLIND, NEW FRENCH PLAN FOR IMPROVING THE.** A work has been lately published at Paris which supercedes every former attempt to promote or facilitate the improvement of the blind. The invention of a plan so arduous in its appearance and so practicable in its execution, demanded the highest exertions of the noblest genius to produce it, and the most strenuous efforts of indefatigable humanity to render it effectual. It is intitled, "An Essay on the Education of the Blind." Its object is to teach them, by palpable characters impressed on paper, not only the liberal arts and sciences; but likewise the principles of mechanical operation, in such a manner, that those who have no genius for literary improvement may yet become respectable, useful, and independent members of society, in the capacity of common artificers. By these tangible signatures they are taught to read, to write, and to print; they are likewise instructed in geometry, in algebra, geography, and, in short, in every branch of natural philosophy. Nor are their efforts circumscribed by mere utility; a taste for the fine arts has likewise been cultivated among them. They have been taught to read music with their fingers, as others do with their eyes; and though they cannot at once feel the notes and perform them upon an instrument, yet they are capable of acquiring any lesson with, as much exactness and rapidity, as those who enjoy all the advantages of sight. In the first chapter of this work, the author points out the end proposed by that culture which he offers to the blind; it is to enlarge their sphere of knowledge, to increase their capacities and improve their powers of action, so that they may become happy and independent in themselves, and useful and agreeable to others. The 2d chapter contains an answer to the objections against the general utility of this institution. The 3d treats of reading as adapted to the practice of the blind. The 4th consists of answers to various objections against the method of reading proposed. In the 5th is shown the art of printing, as practised by the blind, for their peculiar use. In the 6th is described the manner of teaching the blind the art of printing for those that see. In the 7th is presented the manner of teaching the blind to

The 8th explains the method of teaching

the blind arithmetic; the 9th, geography; the 10th, music. The 11th, contains an account of the mechanic arts in which the blind are employed, and of the way by which they are formed for such occupations. The 12th shows in general the proper manner of instructing the blind, and draws a parallel between their education and that of the deaf and dumb. The 13th treats of the method of instructing them in the languages, mathematics, history, &c. The book next contains notes illustrating each chapter; an account of the rise, progress, and present state, of the academy for the formation of the blind; an ode on the cultivation of the blind, by one labouring under that affliction; an extract from the register of the royal academy of sciences; opinion of the printers; models of the various pieces which blind children are capable of printing; and an account of the exercises performed by blind children, in the presence of the late unfortunate king, queen, and royal family, during the Christmas solemnities in 1786. The manner in which the blind print is thus described: The blind compositor has a box for every alphabetical character in use; on the outside of these boxes are palpably marked the peculiar character belonging to each; they are filled with types, which he chooses and sets as they are called for, inverted. He then takes a piece of the strongest paper that can be found, which he gently moistens in a degree sufficient to render it more easily susceptible of impressions, without being disacerated or worn by the shock which it must undergo. He then lays it upon the types; and by the cautious operation of the press, or by the easy strokes of a little hammer, which are frequently repeated over the whole expanse, he causes the impression of the type to rise on the opposite side of the paper, where, when dry, it continues not only obvious to the sight but the touch, and is far from being easily effaced. On the upper side of the paper the letters appear in their proper position, and, by their sensible elevation above the common surface, render it practicable for the blind to read them with their fingers. Their manner of writing is analogous to this operation: the pupil, by repeated experiments, having familiarised himself to the forms of the letters, both in their inverted and proper positions, gradually learns to delineate them upon paper, moistened as before, with the point of an iron pen, which has no split, and which is just sharp enough to impress without piercing the paper: thus, on the side next to the writer's hand, the letters are formed sunk and inverted; but when the paper is turned they appear right and in relievo. Thus the blind are enabled to form and decypher, not only the characters required in common language, but also mathematical diagrams, arithmetical and geographical processes, and all the characters used in writing music. All these wonders they have performed with success, to the universal satisfaction of numberless spectators whom curiosity and compassion impelled to visit the academy, to behold a spectacle so interesting to humanity. The above quoted work is printed and bound by the blind themselves. They exhibit at their own academy every Wednesday and Saturday between one and two o'clock, P. M. to crowds of charitable admirers,

by

when we travel they attend us; and in our rural retirements, they do not forsake us." To this may be added, that the joys of religion are for ever adequate to the largest capacity of a finite and progressive intelligence; and as they are boundless in extent, so they are endless in duration.— We have already observed (§ 10,) that a blind man is extremely obnoxious to melancholy and dejection. Where, therefore, can he find a more copious, intimate, permanent, and efficacious source of comfort than in religion? Let this then be inculcated with the utmost care and assiduity. Let the whole force of the soul be exerted in showing him that it is reasonable. Let all the noblest affections of the heart be employed in recommending it as amiable; for we will venture to assert, that the votary of religion alone is the man,—

"Whom, though with nature's wreck oppress'd,
Uninably fears could ne'er infect."

(19.) **BLIND PERSONS, HINTS TO THE RELATIONS OF, AND APOSTROPHE TO THE PUBLIC RESPECTING.** The relations of persons subjected to this misfortune; if in easy circumstances, will find it highly conducive to the improvement of their charge, to select some one among his co-evals, of a sound understanding, a sweet and patient temper, a docile mind, a warm heart, and a communicative disposition. These two should be taught to find their interest and happiness in their connection one with another. Their bed; their board, their walks, their entertainments, their lessons, should be common. These are the best eyes with which art can endow a blind man: and if properly selected, they will on some occasions yield very little, in utility and perfection, to those of nature; nay, at some junctures they may be preferable. When the situation of the blind, and its natural effects upon their characters, are considered; when we reflect how exquisite their distresses, how pungent their disappointments, how sensible their regrets, how tedious and gloomy their periods of solitude; we must be wretched indeed, if we can grudge either labour or expence in procuring them every source of instruction and entertainment; which, when procured, remains in their own power, and yields what may be in some measure termed *self-derived enjoyment*. These are prolific of numberless advantages; they afford us at once entertainment and exertion; they teach us to explore a thousand resources for preservation and improvement; and they render us awake and sensible to a thousand notices both of external and intellectual objects, which would otherwise have completely escaped our attention.— You who are parents of such unfortunate persons, do not, by a brutal negligence and insensibility, render the existence which you have given a curse to its possessors. Do not give them reason to upbraid your memory; and to answer those, who ask what patrimony you have left them, that their sole inheritance was ignorance, incapacity, and indigence. But it is not the parents and relations alone of the blind, who are culpable if they are neglected. The blind have a right to demand from society, Whether it is more humane and equitable, that such unhappy persons should be suffered to languish out their lives in torpid obscuri-

ty, wretched in themselves and burdensome to others; or to cultivate and improve their powers in such a manner, that they may be qualified for internal enjoyment and public utility? Surely there is not a human being, who does not disgrace the works of God, if he can be at any loss to answer this question. Have not the blind then a right to call the world to account? Have they not a right to demand, what rational being susceptible of felicity in themselves, and capable of transfusing happiness through the societies with whom they are connected, should be abandoned to a state of insignificance and misery? Is it possible, that men who are every moment subjected to the same contingencies, with which they behold their fellow-creatures afflicted, should not with all their souls endeavour to alleviate the misfortunes of their suffering brethren? Is the native and hereditary portion of human woe so light and supportable in itself, that we should neglect and despise those to whom it is embittered by accidental circumstances of horror and distress? You men of wealth and eminence, you whom Providence has rendered conspicuous on the theatre of nature, to whom it has given the noblest opportunities of participating the divine beatitude, by the exercise of universal benevolence and genuine patriotism; yours is the glorious province of bringing neglected merit from obscurity, of healing the wounds inflicted by adverse fortune, and of cultivating those talents, which may be exerted for your own advantage, and the honour of your species. Thus you shall rise in the heraldry of heaven, and your names diffuse a lustre through the extent of space, and the archives of eternity. Otherwise the temporary glare and parade of your situation can produce nothing but a despicable mimicry of real and intrinsic greatness, and are no more than a splendid mask to cover what in itself is infamous or detestable.

(20.) **BLIND, PROBABLE EFFECTS OF LIGHT ON PERSONS BORN.** Much labour has been bestowed to investigate, both from reason *a priori* and from experiment, what might be the primary effects of light and luminous objects upon such as have been born blind, or early deprived of sight, if at a maturer period they should instantaneously recover their visual powers. But upon this topic there is much reason to fear, that nothing satisfactory has yet been said. The fallacy of hypothesis and conjecture, when formed *a priori* with respect to any organ of corporeal sensation and its proper object, is too obvious to demand illustration. But from the nature of the eye, and the mediums of its perception, to attempt an investigation of the various and multiform phenomena of vision, or even of the varieties, of which every particular phenomenon is susceptible, according as the circumstances of its appearance are diversified, would be a project worthy of philosophy in a delirium. Nay, even the discoveries which are said to accrue from experiment, may still be held as extremely doubtful and suspicious; because in these experiments it does not appear to have been ascertained, that the organs to which visible objects were presented immediately after surgical operations, could be in a proper state to perceive them. (See ANATOMY, § 584—588.) There are, however, many desiderata, which the perception

ceptions of a man born blind might considerably illustrate, if his instruments of vision were in a right state, and assisted by a proper medium. Such a person might perhaps give a clearer account, why objects, whose pictures are inverted upon the retina of the eye, should appear to the mind in their real positions; or why, though each particular object is painted upon the retina of both our eyes, it should only be perceived as single. Perhaps, too, this new spectator of visible nature might equally amuse our curiosity and improve our theory, by attempting to describe the earliest sensations of colour, and its original effects upon his organ and his fancy. But it is far from being certain, that trials of this kind have ever been fairly made. Those, who wish to see a more minute detail of these questions, may consult M. Diderot's *Lettre sur les aveugles, a l'usage de ceux qui voyent*: "A letter concerning the blind, for the use of those who see." To these may be added, *Mr Cheselden's Anatomy*, and *Locke's Essay on the human understanding*.

(1.) BLIND, SOCIETIES FOR THE RELIEF OF THE. It is with pleasure we can add to the above structures, (p 19.) that the care and education of the blind are now become objects of public attention, and that respectable societies have been instituted within these few years in this country, as well as in France, to promote these laudable objects. That they may prosper, must be the wish of every philanthropic mind. For a particular account of that instituted at Edinburgh, See SOCIETY.

* To BLIND. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To make blind; to deprive of sight.—

You nimble lightnings, dart your *blinding* flames

Into her scornful eyes!

Shakesp.

—Of whose hand have I received any bribe to blind mine eyes therewith? and I will restore it, *1 Sam.*—A blind guide is certainly a great mischief; but a guide that *blinds* those whom he should lead, is undoubtedly a much greater. *South.* 2. To darken; to obscure the eye.—

As whirl the seas, such darkness *blinds* the sky,
That the black night receives a deeper dye.

Dryden.

3. To darken the understanding.—

This my long-suffering, and my day of grace,
They who neglect and scorn shall never taste,
But hard be harden'd, blind be *blinded* more.

Milton.

4. To obscure to the understanding.—The state of the controversy between us he endeavoured, with his art, to *blind* and confound. *Stillingfl.*

BLINDE, among mineralists, a species of lead carbonate, by miners called mock ore, mock lead, and wild lead. The German mineralists call it *blei*, whence our denomination *blinde*. It answers to what in Agricola is called *Galena inanis*. It usually lies immediately over the veins of lead in the mines which produce it, for it is not found in all. When the miners see this, they know the vein of ore is very near.

BLINDES, or BLINDS, in the art of war, a sort of defence commonly made of oziars, or branches interwoven, and laid across between two rows of stakes, about the height of a man, and

or 5 feet asunder, used particularly at the heads of trenches, when they are extended in front towards the glacis; serving to shelter the workmen, and prevent their being overlooked by the enemy.

* BLINDFOLD. *adj.* [from the verb.] Having the eyes covered.—

And oft himself he chanc'd to hurt unwares,
Whilst reason, blent through passion, nought
descried,

But, as a *blindfold* bull, at random fares,
And where he hits, nought knows, and where
he hurts, nought cares. *Fairy Queen.*

Who *blindfold* walks upon a rivers brim,
When he should see, has he deserv'd to swim?

Dryden.

—When lots are shuffled together, or a man *blindfold* casts a dye, what reason can he have to presume, that he shall draw a white stone rather than a black? *South.*—The women will look into the state of the nation with their own eyes, and be no longer led *blindfold* by a male legislature. *Addison.*

* To BLINDFOLD. *v. a.* [from *blind* and *fold*.] To hinder from seeing, by blinding the eyes.—When they had *blindfold* him, they struck him on the face. *Luke.*

BLIND HARRY. See HENRY, THE MINSTREL.

(1.) BLINDING was a species of punishment anciently inflicted on thieves, adulterers, perjurers, and others; and from which the ancient Christians were not exempt. Sometimes lime and vinegar, or barely scalding vinegar, was poured into the eyes, till their balls were consumed; sometimes a rope was twisted round the head till the eyes started out. In the middle age, they changed total blindness for a great darkness, or diminution of sight, which they produced by holding a red hot iron dish or basin before the eyes, till their humours were dried, and their coats shrivelled up. The inhabitants of the city of Apollonia executed it on their watch when found asleep. Nothing reflects more honour on the present age, than the almost total abolition of barbarous punishments, which have taken place in Britain and France; and which, it is hoped, will soon be universally adopted throughout Europe and America. No crime whatever merits torture. Whipping, however, is still inflicted in the army and navy, to a degree often worse than death. Might not some modes of disgrace be substituted instead of such horrid barbarity?

(2.) BLINDING, VOLUNTARY. Democritus, according to Plutarch, Cicero, and A. Gellius, put out his own eyes, that he might be less disturbed in his mental contemplations, when thus freed from the distraction of the objects of sight.

* BLINDLY. *adv.* [from *blind*.] 1. Without sight. 2. Implicitly; without examination.—

The old king, after a long debate,

By his imperious mistress *blindly* led,

Has given Cydaria to Orbellan's bed. *Dryden.*

—How ready zeal for interest and party, is to charge atheism on those, who will not, without examining, submit, and *blindly* swallow their nonsense. *Locke.* 3. Without judgment or direction.—

How seas and earth, and air, and active flame,
Fell through the mighty void; and, in their fall,
Were *blindly* gather'd in this goodly ball. *Dryd.*

* BLIND-

* **BLINDMAN'S BUFF.** *n. f.* A play in which some one is to have his eyes covered, and hunt out the rest of the company.—

Disguis'd in all the mask of night,
We left our champion on his flight;
At *blindman's buff* to grope his way,
In equal fear of night and day. *Hudibras.*

—He imagines I shut my eyes again; but surely he fancies I play at *blindman's buff* with him; for he thinks I never have my eyes open. *Stillingfleet.*

(1.) * **BLINDNESS.** *n. f.* [from *blind.*] 1. Want of sight.—I will smite every house of the people with *blindness*. *Zechariab.* 2. Ignorance; intellectual darkness.—

All the rest as born of savage brood,
And with base thoughts are into *blindness* led,
And kept from looking on the lightsome day. *Spenser.*

Nor can we call it choice, when what we chuse

Folly and *blindness* only could refuse. *Denham.*
—Whosoever we would proceed beyond these simple ideas, we fall presently into darkness and difficulties, and can discover nothing farther but our own *blindness* and ignorance. *Locke.*

(2.) **BLINDNESS.** See **BLIND**, § 1—21.

(3.) **BLINDNESS**, in farriery, a disease incident to horses, especially those of an iron-grey, or dapple-grey colour, when ridden too hard, or backed too young. It may be discovered by the walk, which in a blind horse is always unequal, because he dares not set down his feet boldly when led in one's hand; though if the same horse be mounted by an expert horseman, and the horse of himself be mettled, the fear of the spur will make him go more freely; so that his blindness can hardly be perceived. Another mark, whereby a horse may be known to have lost his sight, is, that upon hearing any body enter the stable, he will prick up his ears, and move them backwards and forwards, being in continual alarm by the least noise. Dr Lower first showed the ordinary cause of blindness in horses, which is a spongy excrescence, growing in one, sometimes in two, or three places of the *uvea*, which being at length overgrown, covers the pupil when the horse is brought into the light, though in a dark stable it dilates again. Horses, that lose their sight at certain periods of the moon, are said to be **MOON-BLIND**.

(4.) **BLINDNESS**, CAUSES OF, are either ordinary, or extraordinary. The former may arise from a decay of the optic nerve (an instance whereof we have in the Academy of Sciences, where upon opening the eye of a person long blind, the optic nerve was found extremely shrunk and decayed, and having no medulla in it); or from some external violence, vicious confirmation, growth of a cataract, *gutta serena*, small-pox, or the like. See **MEDICINE**, **INDEX**. Extraordinary causes of blindness, are malignant stench, poisonous juices dropped into the eye, baneful vermin, long confinement in the dark, or the like. The author of the Embassy of D. Garcias de Sylva Figueroa into Persia tells us, that in several parts of that kingdom there are vast numbers of blind people of all ages, sexes, and conditions; owing to a species of little flies which prick the eyes and lips,

and enter the nostrils; but carrying certain blindness with them when they light on the eyes.

(5.) **BLINDNESS**, DIURNAL, or **HEMERALOPIA**, a disease of the eyes which affects the patient chiefly, or only in day light.

(6.) **BLINDNESS**, NOCTURNAL, or **NYCTALOPIA**, that which ensues on the setting of the sun in persons who see perfectly in the day, but become quite blind as soon as night comes on. See *Philosoph. Transact.* N° 159. p. 560, where an instance of it is given; also a singular case of this kind related by Dr Samuel Pye, in the *Medic. Observ. and Inquir.* Vol. I. p. 111.

(7.) **BLINDNESS**, PARTIAL, is that wherein some faint glimmering is left, as is always the case in people who have ripe cataracts, who are never quite blind but they can discern day from night.

(8.) **BLINDNESS**, PERIODICAL, is that which comes and goes by turns, according to the season of the moon, time of day, and the like.

(9.) **BLINDNESS**, PERPETUAL, is that which remains alike under all the diversity of seasons, times, ages, &c.

(10.) **BLINDNESS**, TOTAL, is that wherein all sight or perception, even of light, is wanting, as is the case of those who are said to be *stone blind*. A blind man, by the civil law, cannot make a testament except under certain modifications; but in every case he is disabled from being a witness to a testament, on account of his blindness.

(11.) **BLINDNESS**, TRANSIENT, is that which gives way of itself in due time, as that of whelps which continues for several days, sometimes rarely 12, after they are littered. The Nogai Tartars, according to father Du Ban the Jesuit who lived among them, are born blind, and open not their eyes for several days. The ducks which breed under ground, and break out into the Zircnitzzer sea in Carniola after great storms, are blind at their first eruption; but in some time come to their sight.

* **BLINDNETTLE.** *n. f.* [*scrofularia.*] A plant

BLIND RAMPART, [*cacum vallum.*] among the ancients, was that beset with sharp stakes, concealed by grass or leaves growing over them.

* **BLINDS.** See **BLINDS**.

* **BLINDSIDE.** *n. f.* [from *blind* and *side*] Weakness; foible; weak part.—He is too great lover of himself; this is one of his *blind sides*; the best of men, I fear, are not without them. *Savigny.*

(1.) * **BLINDWORM.** *n. f.* [*cecilia*, from *blind* and *worm.*] A small viper, called likewise a slow worm; believed not to be venomous.—

You spotted snakes, with double tongue,
Thorny hedgehogs, be not seen;
Newts and *blindworms*, do no wrong;
Come not near our fairy queen. *Shakespeare.*
—The greater slow worm, called also the *blindworm*, is commonly thought to be blind, because of the littleness of his eyes. *Grew.*

(2.) **BLIND WORM.** See **ANGUIS**, N° I. § 1, and **Plate XIV.**

* **To BLINK.** *v. n.* [*blincken*, Danish.] 1. To wink, or twinkle with the eyes.—

So politick, as if one eye
Upon the other were a spy;
That to trepan the one to think
The other blind, both strove to blink. *Hudibras.*

Then sigh not so, but let them go,
And be you *blithe* and bonny. *Shakespeare.*

For that fair female troop thou saw'st, that
seem'd

Of goddesses, so *blithe*, so smooth, so gay;
Yet empty of all good. *Milton.*

To whom the wily adder, *blithe* and glad:
Empress! the way is ready, and not long. *Milt.*

And the milkmaid singeth *blithe*,
And the mower whets his scythe. *Milton.*

Should he return, that troop so *blithe* and bold,
Precipitant in fear, would wing their flight. *Pope.*

BLITHFIELD, a village in Staffordshire, near
Paget's Bromley.

BLITHFORD, in Suffolk, E. of Halesworth.

BLITH-HALL, in Warwicksh. near Shustock.

* BLITHLY. *adv.* [from *blithe*.] In a blithe
manner.

* BLITHNESS. BLITHSOMNESS. *n. f.* [from
blithe.] The quality of being blithe.

BLITH'S NEWK, a village on the coast of
Northumberland, between Hartley and Newbig-
ging.

* BLITHSOME. *adj.* [from *blithe*.] Gay;
cheerful.—

Frosty blasts deface

The *blithsome* year: trees of their shrivell'd fruits
Are widow'd. *Philips.*

* BLITHSOMNESS. See BLITHNESS.

BLITON, a town in Lincolnshire, W. of Bli-
borough.

BLITUM, the BLITE, or STRAWBERRY SPI-
NACH: A genus of the digynia order, belonging
to the monandria class of plants; and in the na-
tural method ranking in the 12th order, *Holora-
cea*. The calyx is trifid; no petals; the seed is
one, included in a berry-shaped calyx. There
are 3 species, viz.

1. BLITUM CAPITATUM, with flowers in clu-
stered heads at the joints and crown of the stalks,
is a native of Spain and Portugal, but has been
long preserved in the British gardens, for the
beauty of its fruit. It is an annual plant, with
leaves somewhat like those of the Spinach; the stalk
rises 2½ feet high; the upper part of the stalk has
flowers coming out in small heads at every joint,
and is terminated by a little cluster of the same;
after the flowers are past, the heads swell to the
size of wood strawberries, and when ripe have
the same appearance, but are not eatable; they
are full of purple juice, which stains the hands of
those who bruise them of a deep purple colour.

2. BLITUM TARTARICUM, with triangular a-
cutely indented leaves, is a native of Tartary.
Mr Miller received the seeds from Petersburg. It
rises to near three feet high; the flowers come
out from the sides of the stalks, but are smaller
than those of the Capitatum, as is also the fruit.

3. BLITUM VIRGATUM, with small heads grow-
ing from the sides of the stalks, is a native of the
S. of France and Italy. It seldom grows more
than a foot high; the leaves are of the same shape
with those of the Capitatum, but smaller. The
flowers are produced at the wings of the leaves,
almost the length of the stalk; they are smaller,
and not so deeply coloured as the first. All these
species being annual, must be propagated with
seeds; and as they are very hardy, will succeed in

the common borders, if sown in March or April;
covering the seed about half an inch deep with earth,
and leaving the plants 5 or 6 inches asunder.
When they come up, each must be supported
with a small stick, or they will be born down by
the weight of the berries.

BLIVE, *adv. obs.* Quickly; briskly. *Chauc.*

* BLOAT. *adj.* Swelled with intemperance;
turgid.—

The bloat king. *Shakespeare's Hamlet.*

(1.) * To BLOAT. *v. a.* [probably from *blow*.]
To swell, to make turgid with wind: it has *up*,
an intensive particle.—

His rude essays

Encourage him, and bloat him *up* with praise,
That he may get more bulk before he dies.

Dryden.

—The strutting petticoat smooths all distinctions,
levels the mother with the daughter. I cannot
but be troubled to see so many well-shaped in-
nocent virgins, *bloated up*, and waddling up and
down like bigbellied women. *Addison.*

(2.) * To BLOAT. *v. n.* To grow turgid.—If
a person of a firm constitution begins to *bloat*,
from being warm grows cold, his fibres grow
weak. *Arbutnot.*

BLOATED FISH, or } in our statutes, are those

BLOATED HERRINGS, } which are half dried,
See Stat. 18. Car. II. c. 2. They are made by
steeping them in a peculiar brine, and then hang-
ing them in a chimney to dry.

* BLOATEDNESS. *n. f.* [from *bloat*.] Tur-
gidness; swelling; tumour—Lassitude, laziness,
bloatedness, and scorbutical spots, are symptoms
of weak fibres. *Arbutnot.*

BLOATING, in medicine, a pulling up of the
exterior habit of the body, lodged chiefly in the
adipose cells. It is stiled by physicians EMPHY-
SEMA.

* BLOBBER. *n. f.* [from *blob*.] A word used
in some counties for a bubble.—There swimmeth
also in the sea a round slimy substance, called a
blobber, reputed noisome to the fish. *Carew.*

* BLOBBERLIP. *n. f.* [from *blob*, or *blobber*,
and *lip*.] A thick lip.—

They make a wit of their insipid friend,
His *blobberlips*, and beetlebrows commend.

Dryden.

* BLOBBERLIPPED. } *adj.* Having swelled or

* BLOBLIPPED. } thick lips.—A *blobber-*
lipped shell, seemeth to be a kind of mussel. *Grew.*
—His person deformed to the highest degree: flat
nosed, and *blobberlipped*. *L'Estrange.*

(1.) BLOCK, Daniel, a portrait painter, was
born at Stettin in Pomerania in 1580, and gave
early proofs of a good genius; which induced his
parents to place him as a disciple with Jacob Scher-
er. His extraordinary merit recommended him
to the Prince of Mecklenburg, who retained him
in his service for 44 years; during which, he paint-
ed the portraits of his whole family at full length
as large as life, and in the antique habit. He al-
so painted portraits of Christian IV. K. of Den-
mark, and Gustavus Adolphus K. of Sweden. By
his agreeable manner of colouring, and the easi-
attitudes of his figures, his paintings became so
acceptable, that before the decline of life, he had
acquired a very large fortune; but unfortunately

tage, and sail with a more lively and equable motion, than if rigged in the common way."

(12.) BLOCK, VOYAL. See VOYAL.

* To BLOCK. *v. a.* [*bloquer*, Fr.] 1. To shut up; to inclose, so as to hinder egress; to obstruct.—The states about them should neither by encroach of dominion, nor by *blocking* of trade, have it in their power to hurt or annoy. *Clarendon*.—

They *block* the castle kept by Bertram;

But now they cry, down with the palace, fire it. *Dryden*.

2. It has often *up*, to note clausure.—Recommend it to the governor of Abingdon, to send some troops to *block* it *up*, from infesting the great road. *Clarendon*.—The abbot raises an army, and *blocks up* the town on the side that faces his dominions. *Addison*.

(1.) * BLOCKADE. *n. f.* [from *block*.] A siege carried on by shutting up the place.—The enemy was necessitated wholly to abandon the *blockade* of Olivenza. *Tatler*.—

Round the goddess roll

Broad hats and hoods, and caps, a sable shoal;
Thick, and more thick, the black *blockade* extends. *Pope*.

(2.) BLOCKADE, in the art of war, the *blocking up* a place, by posting troops at all the avenues leading to it, to keep supplies of men and provisions from getting into it; and by these means proposing to starve it out, without making any regular attacks.

(3.) BLOCKADE, TO RAISE A, is to force the troops that keep the place blocked up from their posts.

* To BLOCKADE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To shut up by obstruction.—

Huge bales of British cloth *blockade* the door,
A hundred oxen at your levee roar. *Pope*.

BLOCK AND BLOCK, in sea language, is a phrase used, when on hauling any tackle, haulyard, or the like, to which two *blocks* belong, the two meet and touch; so that they can haul no farther.

BLOCK-BATTERY, in the military art, denotes a wooden battery on 4 wheels, moveable from place to place, whereby to fire *en barbe*, or over the parapet; sometimes also used in galleries and casemates, where room is wanted.

BLOCKFIELD, a village in the county of Surry, near E. Grinstead.

* BLOCKHEAD. *n. f.* [from *block* and *head*.] A stupid fellow; a dolt; a man without parts.—Your wit will not so soon out as another man's will; it is strongly wedged up in a *blockhead*. *Shakespeare*.—

We idly sit like stupid *blockheads*,

Our hands committed to our pockets. *Hudibras*.

A *blockhead* rubs his thoughtless skull,

And thanks his stars he was not born a fool. *Pope*.

* BLOCKHEADED. *adj.* [from *blockhead*.] Stupid; dull.—Says a *blockheaded* boy, these are villainous creatures. *L'Estrange*.

(1.) * BLOCK-HOUSE. *n. f.* [from *block* and *house*.] A fortress built to obstruct or block up a pass, commonly to defend a harbour.—His entrance is guarded, with *block-houses*, and that on the town's side fortified with ordnance. *Carew*.—Rochester water reacheth far within the land,

and is under the protection of some *block-houses*. *Raleigh*.

(2.) BLOCK-HOUSES are made of wood, mounted on rollers, or on a vessel, and serve either on the water, or in counter-scraps and counter-approaches. The name is also applied to a brick or stone fort built on a bridge, or the brink of a river, serving not only for its defence, but for the command of the river above and below.

BLOCKING, in middle age writers, a kind of burial used for persons who died excommunicated.

* BLOCKISH. *adj.* [from *block*.] Stupid; dull.—

Make a lott'ry,

And, by decree, let *blockish* Ajax draw

The sort to fight with Hector. *Shakespeare*.

* BLOCKISHLY. *adv.* [from *blockish*.] In a stupid manner.

* BLOCKISHNESS. *n. f.* [from *blockish*.] Stupidity; dullness.

BLOCKLAND, Anthony, history and portrait painter, was of a noble family, and born at Montford in 1532. He learned painting under Francis Floris, whose manner he always followed; and became an artist of great distinction, by imitating the taste of the Roman school. His genius was best adapted to grand compositions, of which he designed many at Delft and Utrecht. The airs of his heads were noble, and the profiles of his female figures approached near to the taste of Parmigiano. Several of his works are in excellent gusto, particularly a Venus, and the history of Joseph and his Brethren. He died in 1583.

(1.) BLOCKLEY, a parish of England, in Worcestershire, surrounded by Gloucestershire; where the bishops of Worcester had a park and an elegant palace, before the reformation.

(2, 3.) BLOCKLEY, two English villages, viz. 1. in Gloucestershire between Camden and Stow; and, 2. in Worcestershire, in the above parish, (No. 1.) 7 m. S. E. of Evesham. It has fairs on the 2d Tues. after Easter and O. Michaelmas.

* BLOCK-TIN. *n. f.* [from *block* and *tin*.] So the tradesmen call that which is pure and unmixed, and yet unwrought. *Boyle*.

BLOCK-WOOD, a name sometimes given in our laws to LOGWOOD. 23. Eliz. c. 9.

BLOCKY, among jewellers, an epithet given to a diamond when its sides are too upright, by its TABLE and COLLET being too large.

BLOCKZIL, or } a fortress of Over-yssel in

BLOCZIL, } the United Provinces, seated on the river Aa, where it falls into the Zuider Zee. It has a port sufficient to contain 200 vessels, and serves to defend those ships that cross the sea. It has six good bastions, and several other regular fortifications. It is 8 m. N. W. of Stenwick. Lon. 5. 39. E. Lat. 52. 44. N.

BLODERIT, *adj.* *Obs.* blubbered. *Cbauc.*

BLODWALL, a village in Shropshire, S. of Oswestry.

BLODWORTH, a village in Nottinghamshire, S. of Sherwood Forest.

BLODWYTA. See BLOODWIT, § 2.

(1.) BLOEMART, Abraham, painter of landscape, cattle, history, and portraits, was born at Gorcum in 1564, according to Houbraken, but according

1. **What is the main purpose of the text?**
 2. **What is the author's attitude towards the subject?**
 3. **What is the main idea of the text?**
 4. **What is the author's main point?**
 5. **What is the author's main argument?**
 6. **What is the author's main conclusion?**
 7. **What is the author's main recommendation?**
 8. **What is the author's main suggestion?**
 9. **What is the author's main opinion?**
 10. **What is the author's main belief?**
 11. **What is the author's main feeling?**
 12. **What is the author's main emotion?**
 13. **What is the author's main attitude?**
 14. **What is the author's main perspective?**
 15. **What is the author's main viewpoint?**
 16. **What is the author's main stance?**
 17. **What is the author's main position?**
 18. **What is the author's main role?**
 19. **What is the author's main function?**
 20. **What is the author's main purpose?**

He wrote, 1. Notes on Savot's architecture: 2. A course of architecture: 3. A course of mathematics: 4. The art of throwing bombs: 5. A new manner of fortifying places: 6. A comparison between Fmdar and Horace: 7. A history of the Roman Calendar, &c.

(s.) BLONDEL, Moses, an elder brother of David, (N. 1.) was a Calvinist minister, first at Meaux, and afterwards at London. He published a book of controversy, entitled, *Jerusalem au Secours de Grace*: printed at Sedan, in 1624.—In this work, he justifies the opinion of the protestants concerning the Apocryphal writings, by the testimonies of the Jews, as well as of the fathers.

To BLONDRIN. v. n. *Obs.* to toil; to bustle, or blunder. *Chauc.*

BLONDUS, Flavius, an historian born at Forlì, in Italy, in 1388, was secretary to Eugenius IV. and other popes. He composed a great many books; and, among others, a History from the year 400 to 1440. He died in 1463; and left all he had to his daughters, because his sons could provide for themselves.

BLONEIZ, or } a town of Poland, in War-
BLONIEZ, } sovia, 20 m. W. of Warsaw.
Lon. 20. 35. E. Lat. 52. 0. N.

* BLONKET. n. f. [I suppose for *blanket*.]—

Our *blanket* livery's been all too sad

For thilke same reason, when all is yclad

With pleasure.

Spenser.

BLONT, *adj.* *Obs.* blunt; dull. *Chauc.*

(L. 1.) * BLOOD. n. f. [*blod*, Saxon.] 1. The red liquor that circulates in the bodies of animals. —But flesh, with the life thereof, which is the life thereof, shall you not eat. *Genesis*. 2. Child; progeny.—

We'll no more meet, no more see one another:

But yet thou art my flesh, my *blood*, my daughter.

Shakespeare.

3. Family; kindred.—

As many and as well born *bloods* as those,

Stand in his face, to contradict his claim. *Shak.*

O! what an happiness is it to find

A friend of our own *blood*, a brother kind. *Waller.*

—According to the common law of England, in attributions, the whole *blood* is preferred to the half *blood*. *Ayliffe*. 4. Descent; lineage.—Epithets of flattery, deserved by few of them; and not running in a *blood*, like the perpetual gentleness of the Ormrod family. *Dryden*. 5. Blood royal; royal lineage.—

They will almost

Give us a prince o' th' *blood*, a son of Priam,

For sake of him.

Shakespeare.

6. *Obs.* high extraction.—

I am a gentleman of *blood* and breeding. *Shak.*

7. Murder; violent death.—

It will have *blood*; they say, *blood* will have

blood.

Shakespeare.

—The voice of thy brother's *blood* crieth unto me from the ground. *Genesis*, iv. 10. 8. Life.—When

wicked men have slain a righteous person in his house, upon his bed, shall I not therefore

require his *blood* at your hand? 2 *Sam.* iv. 11.

9. For *blood*. Though his blood or life was at stake:

—A phrase.—A crow lay battering upon a mussel,

and could not, for his *blood*, break the shell

to come at the fish. *L'Estrange*. 10. The carnal

part of man.—Flesh and *blood* hath not revealed it unto thee, but my Father which is in heaven. *Matthew*, xvi. 17. 11. Temper of mind; state of the passions.—

Will you, great sir, that glory blot,

In cold *blood*, which you gain'd in hot? *Hudib.*

12. Hot spark; man of fire.—The news put divers young *bloods* into such a fury, as the ambassadors were, not without peril, to be outraged. *Bacon*. 13. The juice of any thing.—He washed his garments in wine, and his cloaths in the *blood*

of grapes. *Genesis*, xlix. 11.

(2.) BLOOD appears so immediately and essentially necessary to the preservation of animal life, that in Scripture it is expressly stiled *the life* of the animal. (Gen. ix. 4.) Though there is no living creature as yet known, whose life does not immediately depend upon the circulation of some kind of fluid through its vessels, yet unless such fluid is of a red colour, it does not obtain the name of *blood*; and therefore such creatures as have a colourless or milky liquor circulating through their vessels, are called *exsanguious animals*.

(3.) BLOOD, ACCOUNT OF THE DENSITY, &c. OF. Blood has a different degree of thickness in different animals, and even in the same animal at different times. Though it is in all cases endowed with a considerable degree of tenacity, yet in strong animals that tenacity is remarkably greater than in weak ones; and hence the blood of bulls was made use of by the ancients as a poison, its extreme viscosity rendering it totally indigestible by the powers of the human stomach. There are also some states of the human body, in which the blood becomes vastly tenacious, so as in a great measure to refuse any intimate connection with water; and others, in which its crasis is almost totally dissolved, so as to appear, when drawn out of the body, like a fluid and half putrid mass. See MEDICINE, INDEX. The common appearance of the blood, when drawn from a vein in the human body, is well known. It first seems an homogeneous red liquor; then it consolidates into one uniform mass; in a little time, a yellowish watery liquor begins to separate from it, which is more or less in quantity according to the state in which the blood happens to be; the red mass, in the mean time, contracts greatly in its dimensions, and increases in solidity. But this increase of solidity is likewise proportional to the state of the blood at the time: in strong people, if attacked with a violent inflammatory disease, the solid part is exceedingly tough, insomuch that Dr Huxham says he has sometimes found it almost like a piece of flesh itself; whereas, in other diseases, the solid part is very soft and tender, breaking in pieces with the slightest touch. The spontaneous separation of the blood into crassamentum, serum, and coagulable lymph, has been already taken notice of. See ANATOMY, INDEX. It has been a general opinion, that blood, as it exists in the bodies of animals, contains a considerable quantity of common air; and indeed it is certain, that blood, after it has been drawn from the veins of any animal, and placed under the receiver of an air-pump, yields a very considerable quantity of air upon exhausting the receiver: but if a portion of any blood-vessel is tied up, so as to prevent the

the escape of its contents, and then cut out of the body and placed under a receiver, it will not swell, or shew the least sign of its containing any quantity of air whatever. Of this and every other part of the subject a very comprehensive view is taken in Mr Hunter's work, published since his death, intitled *A Treatise on Inflammation, &c.*

(4.) BLOOD, ANALYSES OF THE. The attention of physiologists has been very much engaged by inquiries into the nature and composition of the blood, and accordingly it has been examined in all possible ways. By a chemical analysis, it discovers the same principles with other animal substances; giving in distillation a great quantity of phlegm, a volatile spirit, and much fetid oil; after which, there remains a charred matter, which, when burnt in an open fire, leaves a white earth similar to calcined hartshorn. Some eminent chemists, Mr Homberg particularly, have asserted that blood contains an acid as well as an alkali, but that the former does not arise till towards the end of the distillation: but what throws no small suspicion on this account, is, that the acid and alkali, notwithstanding their great tendency on all other occasions to unite with each other, do here remain separate, so that the liquor may be even redistilled without their forming any neutral compound. An experiment in confirmation of this is recorded in the memoirs of the Royal Academy for 1712. Six pounds of human blood distilled to dryness with a gentle heat, were reduced to 1½ pound; after which, the mass was urged with a gradual fire, till the retort at last became red hot. The produce was 17 ounces of liquor; 12 of which were a red and very empyreumatic volatile spirit; the other 5 were oil. The caput mortuum was a light coal weighing 4½ ounces. On rectifying the volatile spirit in a small retort, about an ounce of a red fetid liquor remained, which had a very acid smell, and turned the juice of turnsole red. Mr Homberg now imagined, that the acid contained in the blood of animals could not disengage itself perfectly by these distillations without addition. He therefore determined to distil human blood with an admixture of some other substance; but as earths contain a salt, which might render the operation uncertain, he determined to use only the caput mortuum of a former distillation of the same substance. For this purpose, 4lb. of the coagulum of human blood being well mixed with a large quantity of this residuum, and the whole dried in the sun, it was put into a retort, and distilled with a fire raised, towards the end of the operation, to the utmost violence. The oil being separated from the volatile spirit, the latter was rectified; and the consequence was, that there came over 4lb. of a red acid liquor, that turned the tincture of turnsole very red. All the distillations of the aqueous liquors already mentioned, obtained by similar processes, being mixed together, and separated from their yet remaining oil, by careful dilution with water and filtration, they were at length distilled together; the liquor that came over was clear as water, and its first quantities contained a great deal of volatile salt, but the last two ounces were found to be as sour as distilled vinegar. The same products were obtained from the blood of carnivorous animals,

as well as from that of animals feeding solely upon vegetables. In Dr Lewis's notes on Newman's Chemistry we have the following account of the blood, and the parts into which it may be resolved. "Recent blood is equally fluid, and in taste somewhat saline. Viewed by a microscope, it appears composed of numerous red globules swimming in a transparent fluid. On standing for a little time, it separates into a thin crassamentum and fluid serum. By agitation, it continues fluid: A consistent polypous matter adheres to the stirrer which, by repeated ablution with water, becomes white. Received from the vein in warm water, it deposits a quantity of transparent filamentous matter, the red portion continuing dissolved in the water. On evaporating the fluid, a red powdery substance is left. It congeals by frost, and becomes fluid again by warmth; after liquefaction it quickly putrefies. Fluid and florid blood exposed to a temperate air, putrefies sooner than such as is more dense. Inspissated to dryness, it leaves a dark-coloured mass, amounting, at a medium, to about one fourth of the weight of the blood of a bitter saline taste, easily inflammable, burning with a bluish flame. The exsiccated blood is not soluble in acid or alkaline liquors; but gives some tincture to water and to spirit of wine, and is more powerfully acted upon by dulcified spirit of nitre. Recent blood is coagulated by the mineral acids, and by most of the combinations of them with earthy and metallic bodies. With vegetable acids, and with solutions of neutral salts, it mingles equably without coagulation. Alkalis, both fixed and volatile, render it more fluid, and preserve it from coagulating. The serum of blood is more saline than the crassamentum, and does not so speedily putrefy. It freezes somewhat more difficultly than pure water; and its aqueous part evaporates, by a gentle warmth, somewhat more readily, leaving about one twelfth of the weight of the serum of a solid yellowish pellucid matter. Exposed to heat a little greater than that of the human body, it coagulates into a solid mass, without any considerable evaporation. Both this coagulum and the inspissated serum are readily inflammable in the fire, not dissoluble in water, or in spirit of wine, in acid or in alkaline liquors."

(5.) BLOOD, CIRCULATION OF THE. See § 11 and ANATOMY, INDEX.

(6.) BLOOD, ERRONEOUS OPINIONS CONCERNING THE. The texture of the blood discovered by a microscope, hath engaged the attention of the learned much more than the chemical analysis ever did. Lewenhoeck was the first who discovered, or fancied he discovered, that the blood as it exists in the body of an animal, consists of a quantity of red globular particles swimming in a large quantity of transparent liquor. Each of these globules, he imagined, was composed of six smaller ones packed together. While the six continued to adhere, their colour was red; but when separated, they became yellow, and thus formed what is called the *serum*. He even pretended to have discovered, that each of the serous globules consisted of six smaller ones, and that these when broken down constituted some more subtle and penetrating liquor than the serum, &c. This was for a long time received almost universally as an undoubted

undoubted fact; and many theories were built upon it, and elaborate calculations made, of which (we hope) no account needs now be given, as the falsity of these pretended discoveries is generally allowed. Father De Torre, with microscopes which he pretended were capable of magnifying to an incredible degree, found that the red particles of the blood were of an annular figure, with a perforation in the middle; and that the ring itself was formed of several joints. Some of these extraordinary magnifiers, however, being sent over to England, those who were appointed by the Royal Society to make trial of them, found them totally useless, so that the credit of Father De Torre's discoveries must have rested principally on his own evidence. The falsity of his hypothesis, as well as that of Lewenhoeck, was detected by the late Mr Hewson, of whose microscopical experiments on the blood, we insert the following account given by himself in a letter to Dr Haysgarth physician in Chester. See § 7.

(7.) BLOOD, EXPERIMENTS OF MR HEWSON RESPECTING THE. "The red particles of the blood, improperly called *globules*, are flat in all animals, and of various sizes in different animals. In man they are small, as flat as a shilling, and appear to have a dark spot in the middle. In order to see them distinctly, I dilute the blood with fresh serum. My predecessors, not having thought of this, could not see them distinctly.— And Lewenhoeck in particular, imagining a round figure fittest for motion, concluded they must be round in the human body; though he and others allowed that in frogs, &c. where they viewed them distinctly from the blood being thinner, they were flat. Now I prove that they are flat in all animals. In the human blood, where these particles are small, it is difficult to determine what that black spot is, which appears in the centre of each. Some have concluded that it was a perforation; but in a frog, where it is six times as large as in a man, it is easy to show that it is not a perforation, but on the contrary a little solid, which is contained in the middle of a vesicle. Instead, therefore, of calling this part of the blood red *globules*, I should call it red *vesicles*; for each particle is a flat vesicle, with a little solid sphere in its centre. I find that the blood of all animals contains vesicles of this sort. In human blood there are millions of them; and they give it the red colour. But in insects they are white, and less numerous in proportion than in man and quadrupeds. As they are flat in all animals, I suspect that shape is a circumstance of importance, but can be altered by a mixture with different fluids. And I find that it is by a determinate quantity of neutral salt contained in the serum, that this fluid is adapted to preserving these vesicles in their flat shape: for, if they be mixed with water, they become round, and dissolve perfectly; but add a little of any neutral salt to the water, and they remain in it, without any alteration in their shape, and without dissolving. Now, when it is considered, that the blood of all animals is filled with these particles, we must believe that they serve some very important purpose in the animal economy; and since they are so complicated in their structure, it is improbable they should be made

by mechanical agitation in the lungs or blood-vessels, as has been suspected, but probably have some organs set apart for their formation. This I shall endeavour to prove, when I have explained their structure a little more particularly, and mentioned the manner in which I exhibit it. I take the blood of a toad or frog, in which they are very large; I mix it with the serum of human blood to dilute it; I find them appear all flat; so they do in the blood-vessels of this animal, as I have distinctly seen in the web between its toes, whilst the animal was alive and fixed in the microscope. Their appearance in these animals is not unlike slices of cucumber. I next mix a little of the blood with water, which immediately makes them all round, and then begins to dissolve them whilst they are round. I incline the stage of the microscope, so as to make them roll down it; and then I can distinctly see the solid in the middle fall from side to side like a pea in a bladder. A neutral salt added to them at this time brings them back to their flat shape; but if the salt be not added, the water gradually dissolves away the vesicle; and then the little sphere is left naked.— Such is the composition of these particles. I have exhibited these experiments to a considerable number of my acquaintance, who all agree in their being satisfactory. The microscope I use is a single lens, and therefore as little likely to deceive us as a pair of spectacles, which, as is allowed by all who use them, do not disfigure objects, but only represent them larger. From farther experiments, I am convinced, that the use of the thymus and lymphatic glands is to make the middle solid pieces: and I can prove it in as satisfactory a manner as you can do the use of any viscus in the human body; that is, by opening these glands and examining the fluid contained in their cells, which I find to be full of these little solids. I moreover find, that the lymphatic vessels take them up from those glands, and convey them into the blood-vessels which carry them to the spleen, in whose cells they have the vesicles laid over them; so that the thymus and lymphatic glands make the central particles, and the spleen makes the vesicles that surround them. That this is the use of the spleen appears from examining the lymph which is returned from its lymphatic vessels; for that lymph, contrary to what is observed in other parts of the body, is extremely red. But besides having these glands set apart for making the red vesicles of the blood, I find that they are also made in the lymphatic vessels in different parts of the body, whose coats have blood-vessels properly constructed for this secretion. So that the thymus and lymphatic glands are no more than appendages of the lymphatic system, for making the middle particles; and the spleen an appendage to the lymphatic vessels, for making the vesicles which contain these middle particles. I conjecture that it is the coagulable lymph which is converted into this red part of the blood, from a curious fact that has long been known; namely that the blood in the splenic vein does not coagulate when exposed to the air, as the blood of other veins does; so that it seems to be robbed of its coagulable lymph in passing through the spleen.— It is very remarkable, that the spleen can be cut out

out of an animal, and the animal do well without it. I made the experiment on a dog, and kept him a year and a half without observing his health to be in the least impaired. From this some have concluded the spleen to be an useless weight; which is absurd, when we consider that all animals with red blood have it. Therefore it is more consistent with what we know of the animal economy, to conclude, that since an animal can do well without it, there is probably some part of the body that can supply its place. Insects have vesicles constructed in a similar way to ours, but differing in colour. But insects have neither spleen, thymus, nor lymphatic glands; and therefore in them probably these vesicles are entirely fabricated in the lymphatic vessels. But to us, and others of the more perfect animals, besides the lymphatic vessels, nature has given those glands, that a proper quantity of those important vesicles might be the better secured to us; just as she has given us two ears, the better to secure us hearing through life, though we can hear perfectly well with one." On this hypothesis, we shall only remark, that if the red globules are prepared in the manner above mentioned, and the lymphatic vessels are excretories of those glands where the red particles are formed; then if there is any vessel where all these excretories unite, in that vessel the lymph ought to appear very red, on account of the accumulated quantity of red globules brought thither from all parts of the body. But no such redness seems ever to have been taken notice of by any anatomist; which affords an objection to Mr Hewson's hypothesis, perhaps, not easily removed.

(8.) BLOOD, HYPOTHESES CONCERNING THE FORMATION AND COLOUR OF. Many other hypotheses have been invented concerning the formation of the red blood, and various opinions delivered concerning its red colour. In a lecture delivered at Newcastle in 1773, by Dr Wilson of that place, he asserts "that it is self-evidently the office of the veins to elaborate the fluids into that form and composition which we know by the name of *red blood*." The self-evidence here, however, is by no means apparent, nor doth he at all point it out in an intelligible manner.—Dr Cullen, in his physiological part of *The Institutions of Medicine*, acknowledges that we know but little of the formation of any of the animal fluids; and concerning the microscopical observations, &c. on the blood, gives his opinion in the following words, § ccliv. "The red globules have been considered as an oily matter, and from thence their distinct and globular appearance has been accounted for: but there is no direct proof of their oily nature; and their ready union with, and diffusibility in, water, renders it very improbable. As being microscopical objects only, they have been represented by different persons very differently. Some have thought them spherical bodies, but divisible into six parts, (See § 6.) each of which in their separate state were also spherical; but other persons have not observed them to be thus divisible. To many observers they have appeared as perfectly spherical; while others judge them to be oblate spheroids, or lenticular. To some they have appeared as annular, and to others as containing a hollow vesicle. All this, with several

other circumstances relating to them, very variously represented, show some uncertainty in microscopical observations; and it leaves me, who am not conversant in such observations, altogether uncertain with respect to the precise nature of this part of the blood. The chemical history of it is equally precarious; and therefore what has been hitherto said of the production and changes happening to these red globules, we chuse to leave untouched.—We suppose that the red globules, when viewed singly, have very little colour; and that it is only when a certain number of them are laid upon one another, that the colour appears of a bright red: but this also has its limits; so that when the number of globules laid on one another is considerable, the colour becomes of a darker red. Upon this supposition, the colour of the mass of blood will be brighter or darker, as the colouring part is more or less diffused among the other parts of the mass; and we think this appears to be truly the case, from every circumstance that attends the changes which have been at any time observed in the colour of the blood." Concerning the uncertainty of microscopical, as well as chemical experiments, we shall not dispute; though the conclusion against them seems carried too far. But with regard to the colour of the blood, it has been known, almost since the discovery of the circulation, that the florid or dark colour depends on the presence or absence of air, and not upon any number of globules.—Thus the blood returning from the veins is of a dark colour. Though diluted with the fresh chyle from the subclavian vein, it continues of the same dark colour till it passes through the lungs, upon which it instantly assumes a very florid red; but it can never be proved, that the globules in the pulmonary vein are at all less numerous than in the pulmonary artery.—That this change of colour may be effected by the air through membranes much thicker than we can suppose the vessels of the lungs to be, has been demonstrated by Dr Priestley's experiments. (See *DEPHLOGISTICATED AIR*.) But whether the change is occasioned by the mere separation of phlogiston from the blood, or by the absorption of some other principle in its stead, is not yet determined, though the latter is indeed acknowledged by Dr Priestley himself to be the more probable opinion. He even supposes the redness to be owing to a portion of dephlogisticated air absorbed in the lungs; but under the above article, it will appear that this fluid cannot be absorbed by any liquid without decomposition. It must therefore be the elastic principle of this air which is absorbed, while the other combined with part of the phlogiston emitted by the blood is converted into fixed air. Upon this principle, Dr Beddoes and others have of late insisted much on the advantages of what they stile *PNEUMATIC MEDICINE*, or the application of factitious airs to the lungs by a suitable apparatus.

(9.) BLOOD, INFLAMMABILITY OF THE.—Mr Boyle having held a piece of human blood, dried till it was almost pulverable, in the flame of a candle, found it would take fire, and afford a flame burning with a crackling noise, and here, and there melting. But this inflammability appeared much better, when putting together 4 or 5 thorough kindle

a determinate quantity of space in the breast: when it is emptied, there is a nonresisting vacuum of so much space as was full before, and thither there is a mechanical nifus from the remotest filament of a vein over the whole body, which becomes conspicuous in the torrent that rushes every other moment from the mouth of the vena cava into this vacuum." This is a short abstract of Dr Wilson's new theory of the circulation. According to him, this absorbing power of the veins is the principle agent, while the heart and arteries only empty themselves of the blood with which they are filled by the veins. Even this cause, however, he says, would not be sufficient to carry on the circulation for a single moment, without the presence of another, which he calls *life*, and does not consider as absolutely unmechanical, though we cannot reduce it either to mechanical rules or ideas. But as all speculations concerning such causes seem to be arbitrary and without foundation, we forbear to quote the Doctor's opinions farther on this subject.

(12.) BLOOD, VITALITY OF THE. The uses to which the blood is subservient in the animal economy, are so various, and of such an important nature, that some have affirmed the blood to be actually possessed of a living principle, and that the life of the whole body is derived from it. This opinion was first broached by the celebrated Harvey, the discoverer of the circulation: but in this he was never much followed; and the hypothesis itself, indeed, had been pretty much laid aside and neglected, till within these few years, that it was revived by Mr J. Hunter, late professor of anatomy in London; and adopted by Dr Corrie and others. Mr Hunter supports his opinion by the following arguments: 1. The blood unites living parts, in some circumstances, as certainly, as the yet recent juices of the branch of one tree unite it with that of another. Were either of these fluids to be considered as extraneous or dead matters, he thinks they would act as stimuli, and no union would take place in the animal or vegetable kingdom. This argument, Mr Hunter imagines, is still farther established by the following experiment. Having taken off the testicle from a living cock, he introduced it into the belly of a living hen. Many weeks afterwards upon injecting the liver of the hen, he injected the testicle of the cock; which had come in contact with the liver, and adhered to it. He alleges, that in the nature of things, there is not a more intimate connection between life and a solid, than between life and a fluid. For although we are more accustomed to connect it with the one than the other, yet the only real difference which can be shown between a solid and a fluid is, that the particles of the one are less moveable among themselves than those of the other. Besides, we often see the same body fluid in one case and solid in another. 2. The blood becomes vascular like other living parts. Mr Hunter affirms, that, after amputations, the coagula in the extremities of arteries may be injected by injecting these arteries; and he had a preparation in which he demonstrated vessels rising from the centre of what had been a coagulum of blood, and opening into the stream of the circulating blood. 3. Blood taken from the arm in the most

intense cold which the human body can bear raises the thermometer to the same height as blood taken in the most sultry heat. This he considers as a strong proof of the blood being alive; as living bodies alone have the power of resisting great degrees both of heat and cold, and of maintaining in almost every situation, while in health, that temperature which we distinguish by the name of *animal heat*. 4. Blood is capable of being acted upon by a stimulus. In proof of this, he observes that it coagulates from exposure, as certainly as the cavities of the abdomen and thorax inflame from the same cause. The more it is alive, that is, the more the animal is in health, it coagulates the sooner on exposure; and the more it has lost of its living principle, as in the case of violent inflammations, the less it is sensible to the stimulus produced from its being exposed, and it coagulates the later. 5. The blood preserves life in different parts of the body. When the nerves going to a part are tied or cut, the part becomes paralytic, and loses all power of motion; but it does not mortify. If the artery be cut, the part dies and mortification ensues. What keeps it alive in the first case? Mr Hunter says it is the living principle which alone can keep it alive; and he thinks that this phenomenon is inexplicable on any other supposition, than that life is supported by the blood. 6. Another argument he draws from the case of a fractured os humeri he had occasion to observe. A man was brought into St George's hospital for a simple fracture of the os humeri and died about a month after the accident. As the bones had not united, Mr Hunter injected the arm after death. He found that the cavity between the extremities of the bones was filled up with blood which had coagulated. This blood was become vascular. In some places it was very much so. He does not maintain that all coagulated blood becomes vascular: and indeed the reason is obvious; for it is often thrown out and coagulated in parts where its becoming vascular could answer no end in the system: as, for example, in the cavities of aneurismal sacs. If it be supposed, that, in such cases as that just now mentioned, the vessels are not formed in the coagulum, but come from the neighbouring arteries, he thinks it equally an argument that the blood is alive; for the substance into which vessels shoot must be so. The very idea, that such a quantity of dead matter, as the whole mass of blood, circulates in a living body, appears absurd. The system, which at present stands opposed to that of Mr Hunter, considers the brain and nervous system as the fountain of life; and that, so far from receiving its life from the blood, the nervous system is capable of instantaneously changing the crasis of the blood, or any other animal fluid; and although the nervous system cannot continue its actions for any length of time, if the action of the blood-vessels is suspended, yet the heart and blood-vessels cannot act for a single moment without the influence of the nervous fluid. Hence they say they, it is plain we must suppose the nervous system, and not the blood, to contain properly the life of the animal, and consequently to be the principal vital organ. The secretion of the vital fluid from the blood by means of the brain, is, by

the supporters of this hypothesis, denied. They say, that any fluid secreted from the blood must be aqueous, inelastic, and inactive; whereas the nervous fluid is full of vigour, elastic, and volatile in the highest degree. The great necessity for the circulation of the blood through all parts of the body, notwithstanding the presence of the nervous fluid in the same parts, they say is, because some degree of tension is necessary to be given to the fibres, in order to fit them for the influx of the nervous fluid; and this tension they receive from the repletion of the blood-vessels, which are every where dispersed along with the nerves. To follow this dispute through every argument used by both parties, would prove tedious, and in a great measure unnecessary, as the following short consideration seems to decide the matter absolutely against the patrons of the nervous system. In the first place, if we can prove the life of the human body to have existed in, or to have been communicated from a fluid to the nervous system, the analogical argument will be very strongly in favour of the supposition, that the case is so still. Now, that the case once was so, is evident; for the human body, as well as the body of every other living creature, in its first state, is a gelatinous mass, without muscles, nerves, or blood-vessels. Nevertheless, this gelatinous matter, even at that time, contained the nervous fluid. Of this there can be no doubt, because the nerves were formed out of it, and had their power originally from it; and what is remarkable, the brain is observed to be that part of the animal which is first formed. Of this gelatinous fluid we can give no other account, than that it was the nutritious matter from which the whole body appears to be formed. At the original formation of man, and other animals, therefore, the nutritious matter was the substratum of the whole body, consisting of muscles, nerves, blood-vessels, &c. nay more, it was the immediate efficient cause of the nervous power itself. Why should it not be so now as it was then? Again, in the formation of the embryo, we see a vital principle existing as it were at large, and forming to itself a kind of regulator to its own motions, or a habitation in which it chooses to reside, rather than to act at random in the fluid. This habitation, or regulator, was undoubtedly the nervous system, and continues so to this moment; but at the same time, it is no less evident, that a nutritious fluid was the immediate origin of these same nerves, and of that very nervous fluid. Now the fluid, which in the womb nourishes the bodies of all embryo animals, is necessarily equivalent to the blood which nourishes the bodies of adult ones; and consequently, as soon as the blood became the only nutritious juice of the body, at that instant the vital or nervous fluid took up its residence there, and from the blood diffused itself along the nerves, where it was regulated exactly according to the model originally formed in the embryo. Perhaps it may be said, that the vital power, when once it has taken possession of the human or any other body, requires no addition or supply, but continues there in the same quantity from first to last. If we suppose the nervous power to be immaterial, this will indeed be the case, and there is an end of reasoning

upon the subject; but if we call this power a volatile and elastic fluid, it is plain that there will be more occasion for recruits to such a power, than to any other fluid of the body, as its volatility and elasticity will promote its escape in great quantities through every part of the body. It may also be objected, that it is absurd to suppose any fluid, or mechanical cause, capable of putting matter in such a form as to direct its own motions in a particular way: but even of this we have a positive proof in the case of the electric fluid. For if any quantity of this matter has a tendency to go from one place to another where it meets with difficulty; through the air, for instance, it will throw small conducting substances before it, in order to facilitate its progress. Also, if a number of small and light conducting substances are laid between two metallic bodies, so as to form a circle, for example; a shock of electricity will destroy that circle, and place the small conducting substances nearer to a straight line between the two metals, as if the fluid knew there was a shorter passage, and resolved to take that, if it should have occasion to return. (See ELECTRICITY.) Lastly, it is universally allowed, that the brain is a secretory organ, made up of an infinite number of small glands, which have no other excretories than the medullary fibres and nerves. As a considerable quantity of blood is carried to the brain, and the minute arteries end in these small glands, it follows, that the fluid, whatever it is, must come from the blood. Now, there is no gland whatever, in the human, or any other body, but will discharge the fluid it is appointed to secrete, in very considerable quantity, if its excretory is cut. Upon the cutting of a nerve, therefore, the fluid secreted by the brain ought to be discharged; but no such discharge is visible. A small quantity of glairy matter is indeed discharged from the large nerves; but this can be no other than the nutritious juice necessary for their support. This makes it plain even to demonstration, that the fluid secreted in the brain is *invisible* in its nature; and as we know the nervous fluid hath its residence in the brain, it is very probable, to use no stronger expression, that it is the peculiar province of the brain to secrete this fluid from the blood, and consequently that the blood originally contains the vital principle.

(13.) BLOOD, VIVIFYING PRINCIPLE OF THE. When it is allowed that the blood contains the vital principle, (§ 12.) it becomes another question not very easily solved, Whence is this vital principle derived?—For this we can only discover two sources; namely, the chyle or aliment from which the blood is prepared, and respiration. The latter hath been commonly held as the principal source of the vital principle; and, for a long time, it was generally thought that there was a kind of vivifying spirit in the air, which being absorbed by the blood at each inspiration, communicated to that fluid the quality necessary for preserving animal life. As a proof of this it was urged, that life cannot be supported without respiration, and that air which hath been often breathed ceases to be capable of supporting life; because when once it has been totally deprived of its vivifying spirit, it can communicate none to the blood, in any

subsequent respirations. This doctrine, however, has been denied. Dr Hales brings several experiments against it; of which the following may serve for a specimen. "I tied a middle-sized dog alive on a table, and, having laid bare his wind-pipe, I cut it asunder just below the larynx, and fixed fast to it the small end of a common fossét; the other end of the fossét had a large bladder tied to it, which contained 162 cubic inches; and to the other end of the bladder was tied the great end of another fossét, whose orifice was covered with a valve which opened inwards, so as to admit any air that was blown into the bladder, but none could return that way; yet, for further security, that passage was also stopped by a spigot. As soon as the first fossét was tied fast to the wind-pipe, the bladder was blown full of air through the other fossét; when the dog had breathed the air in the bladder to and fro for a minute or two, he then breathed very fast, and showed great uneasiness, as being almost suffocated. Then with my hand I pressed the bladder hard, so as to drive the air into his lungs with some force; and thereby make his abdomen rise by the pressure of the diaphragm, as in natural breathings; then taking alternately my hand off the bladder, the lungs with the abdomen subsided: I continued in this manner to make the dog breathe for an hour; during which time, I was obliged to blow fresh air into the bladder every five minutes, 3 parts in 4 of that air being either absorbed by the vapours in the lungs, or escaping through the ligatures upon my pressing hard on the bladder. During this hour, the dog was frequently near expiring, whenever I pressed the air but weakly into his lungs; as I found by his pulse, which was very plain to be felt in the great crural artery near the groin, which place an assistant held his finger on most part of the time: but the languid pulse was accelerated so as to beat fast, soon after I dilated the lungs much by pressing hard upon the bladder; especially when the motion of the lungs was promoted by pressing alternately the abdomen and the bladder, whereby both the contraction and dilatation of the lungs were increased. And I could by this means rouse the languid pulse whenever I pleased, not only at the end of every 5 minutes, when more air was blown into the bladder from a man's lungs, but also towards the end of the 5 minutes, when the air was fullest of fumes. At the end of the hour, I intended to try whether I could have by the same means kept the dog alive some time longer, when the bladder was filled with the fumes of burning brimstone; but being obliged to cease for a little time from pressing the air into his lungs, while matters were preparing for this additional experiment, in the mean time the dog died, which might otherwise have lived longer, if I had continued to force the air into the lungs. Now, though this experiment was so frequently disturbed, by being obliged to blow more air into the bladder 12 times during the hour; yet since he was almost suffocated in less than two minutes, breathing of himself to and fro the first air in bladder, he would have died in less than two minutes when one fourth of the old air remained in the bladder, immediately to taint the new air

admitted from a man's lungs; so that his continuing to live through the whole hour, must be owing to the forcible dilatation of the lungs by compressing the bladder, and not to the vivifying spirit of the air." Dr Priestley at first concluded from his own observations, and no doubt very justly, that air which hath been often breathed becomes pernicious by its accumulated phlogiston, stimulating the lungs, and making the animal fall into convulsions. Respiration, therefore, he supposed to be a phlogistic process, in which the blood parts with its superfluous phlogiston. He did not say, that the blood receives nothing in exchange; but rather that it may receive some nitrous principle, which gives it the red colour: but as to a vivifying spirit, he doth not appear to have had the least idea of any such thing being received at that time. Nay, in his first volume, p. 277. he expressly adopts the other hypothesis, namely, that the vital principle is received from the chyle. "My conjecture (says he) is, that animals have a power of converting phlogiston, from the state in which they receive it in their nutriment, into that state in which it is called the *electrical fluid*; that the brain, besides its other proper uses, is the great laboratory and repository for this purpose; that by means of the nerves this great principle, thus exalted, is directed into the muscles, and forces them to act in the same manner as they are forced into action, when the electric fluid is thrown into them *ab extra*." With regard to Dr Hales's opinion, that the want of elasticity, or pressure, is the reason why phlogisticated air cannot support animal life, we apprehend it to be totally inconclusive, because it does not appear that phlogisticated air wants elasticity; on the contrary, from Dr Priestley's experiments it appears to be more elastic than common air. Besides, the elasticity of every fluid must always be in proportion to the pressure upon it, as reaction is always equal to action. Supposing therefore the elasticity of any portion of air to be destroyed, the pressure of the superincumbent atmosphere will reduce it into a proportionably less bulk, and then it is equally elastic with the rest; for if it is not, it would behove it still to yield under the pressure. Hence we may see, that as the bladder made use of in Dr Hales's experiment was by no means sufficient to keep off the pressure of the external atmosphere, the death of the dog could not be fairly ascribed to want of elasticity in the tainted air. When he applied more force than the natural elasticity of the air, he kept the dog *alive*, as he calls it, for an hour; but we can by no means allow a mechanical circulation of the blood to be *life*, any more than we can allow a dead body to be alive on account of the motion of its arm, or any other member, by mechanical means. This experiment, however, shows, that respiration is one of the immediate mechanical agents by which the circulation of the blood is carried on; but in order to prove that the dog was really kept alive by this means, he ought to have recovered from the effects of the experiment. Had Dr Hales tried a similar experiment on himself, by taking the fossét in his mouth, closing his nostrils, and causing another person compress the bladder, we have not the least doubt

doubt that he would have felt such a method of breathing, not to be a way of preserving life, but of destroying it. As to Dr Priestley's conclusions, it has been argued, that "though he found air diminished by admitting phlogiston to it, Dr Priestley finds the mere accession of any material substance can never diminish, but must increase, its bulk. The diminution, therefore, on the accession of phlogiston, is an evident proof that some part of the air is actually taken away. That the phlogiston received is not incorporated with the air, is likewise evident, as well as that it takes up space in the tainted air, because, by agitation in water, the phlogistic matter separates from the air, and enters into the water. The consequence of this is, that the air is still farther diminished in bulk; and what remains is pure air, fit for supporting animal life, and of being farther diminished by phlogiston as before. It appears also certain, that phlogiston is not endowed with any inherent power by which it can expand itself; otherwise it would fly off *in vacuo*, which it is never known to do. Another circumstance we must also attend to is, that the action of phlogiston seems to be entirely confined to a particular part of the atmosphere; namely, that which is now so well known by the name of *fixed air*. This it entirely deprives of its elastic principle, so that it is actually no longer air, but becomes a solid substance, making a part, and that no inconsiderable one, of innumerable terrestrial substances, as chalk, lime-stone, &c." That the justness of the conclusion to be drawn from Dr Priestley's experiments may be more apparent, the phenomena were summed up in the two following propositions. "1. Phlogiston cannot act by itself without the assistance of air. 2. The emission of phlogiston is attended with the total destruction of the elasticity of a certain quantity of fixed air, which then ceases to be fixed. Hence we affirm, that it is not the phlogistic substance which acts upon the air, but the elastic principle in the fixed air contained in the common atmosphere, that acts on the phlogistic substance. This elastic principle, entering the phlogistic body, displaces a quantity of phlogiston equivalent to its own quantity, and takes its place; and hence proceeds the first diminution of the air, not from an accession of phlogiston, but from an escape of the elastic principle belonging to fixed air. The phlogiston and fixed particles of the air now hang loose like smoke or vapour, and are ready to be attracted by any thing capable of combining them; and hence proceeds the second diminution by agitation in water. Now to apply this reasoning, The blood is found to emit phlogiston from the lungs at every expiration; therefore we affirm it has received a proportional quantity of elastic vapour which it had not before. Again: The air expelled from the lungs is found to contain much of the fixable part floating loose, and incapable of being attracted by lime-water, &c. therefore we say, this elastic principle hath come from that part of the atmosphere. But, to put the matter beyond doubt, the very inspection of arterial and venous blood shows, that the first has a quantity of elastic matter in it which the last wants: and as the brain as well as all other parts of the body are supplied with arterial blood, we

think it abundantly evident, that this elastic principle is absolutely and essentially necessary to life; that it is continually expended thereon; and that it may be said with the utmost propriety, that every time we draw the air into our lungs, we receive a portion of vivifying or vital spirit from it into our blood. Add to all this, that many substances, which are commonly observed to phlogisticate air, appear to receive an elastic spirit by so doing. Putrefying bodies swell: they would not do so *in vacuo*; and therefore we must conclude, that they receive this elastic principle which swells them from the external air, and experience shows that it is communicated by this fixable part of the atmosphere. The foregoing reasoning leads to a very important discovery in natural philosophy, *viz.* That it is to the atmosphere, and to that particular part of it which goes by the name of *fixed air*, that we are every moment indebted for that vital spirit which animates our bodies, and is the immediate bond of union betwixt our immaterial spirit and this visible world. It may be asked indeed, If fixed air is capable of supplying this spirit in such plenty, how comes it to be so instantaneously fatal when breathed? The reply to this, however, is obvious: it communicates too great a degree of elasticity to the blood; whence the circulation is stopped, and instant death ensues. That this is really the case, appears from the following account of the symptoms observed on the dissection of persons who have been suffocated by this kind of air. 1. The vessels of the brain are gorged with blood, and the ventricles of that viscus are filled sometimes with a frothy, sometimes with a bloody serosity. 2. The trunk of the pulmonary artery is much distended; and the lungs appear nearly in a natural state. 3. The right ventricle and auricle of the heart, the *venæ cavæ*, and jugular veins, are full of frothy blood. 4. Bloody serosity is often found in the bronchiæ. 5. The trunk of the pulmonary veins, and the left auricle, are either empty, or almost empty, of blood. 6. The blood found in the places that have been mentioned is generally fluid, and as it were in a dissolved state. It is easily extravasated into the cellular texture of the head particularly, because it is in this part that it abounds most. 7. The epiglottis in suffocated persons is raised, and the glottis open and free. 8. The tongue is much swelled, and can hardly be contained within the mouth. 9. The eyes protrude, and preserve their lustre to the second or third day. They are often even brighter than natural. 10. The body preserves its heat for a long time. Nay the heat is sometimes greater than it is during life, or at least consistently with health. 11. The limbs are flexible for a long time after death. 12. The face is more swelled, and often more red than usual. 13. The neck and upper extremities are sometimes so much swelled, that they appear to be inflamed. These swellings, however, do not, like œdematous ones, preserve the impressions of the finger. This theory seemed much in favour of what had been advanced concerning the action of fixed air: and it was observed, that this elastic principle would seem to be the cause of animal heat; for as the blood evidently received a vast quantity of elastic fluid, it also received a muc-

greater proportion of heat than usual. Such was the mode of reasoning adopted some years ago, derived from the discoveries which had then been made in AEROLOGY. Succeeding discoveries, however, have made it evident, that fixed air is not one of the natural component parts of our atmosphere, but that it consists of two different fluids; one of which is commonly called PHLOGISTICATED, the other DEPHLOGISTICATED, AIR. It is the latter which supplies the vital principle; and the above reasoning still holds good, only substituting the words *dephlogisticated air* for *fixed air*. The poisonous quality of the latter seems also still to depend on its too easy decomposition; by which means the elastic principle is discharged into the blood in such quantity as to burst the small vessels, as has been observed. This is shown indeed by the remedies most proper for the recovery of those who have suffered from the noxious qualities of fixed air. These consist in evacuation, and especially sprinkling the body with cold water, in order to take off the superfluous heat, and produce an universal contraction of the vessels.

(14.) BLOOD, USES OF, IN ANTIQUITY. Among the ancients blood was used for the sealing and ratifying covenants and alliances, which was done by the contracting parties drinking a little of each other's blood; and for appeasing the manes of the dead, in order to which, blood was offered on their tombs as part of the funeral ceremony.

(15.) BLOOD, USES OF, IN ARTS. The principal use of blood in the arts is for making Prussian blue, or sometimes for clarifying certain liquors; it is also recommended in agriculture as an excellent manure for fruit trees. A mixture of blood with lime makes an exceedingly strong cement; and hence it is of use in the preparation of some chemical lutes, the making floors, &c. See ARCHITECTURE, § 242.

(16.) BLOOD, USES OF, IN DIET. As a food, it hath been disputed whether blood really affords any nourishment or not. The best judges now, however, are generally agreed that it is very nutritious; and though out of the body, like the white of an egg, it is very insoluble, yet, like that too, in the body it is commonly of easy digestion. It is, however, highly alkalescent in hot climates; on which account the prohibition of it to the Israelites was very proper. Even in this country, when blood was used as food in great quantity, the scurvy was more frequent than at other times; but to a moderate use of it here no such objection takes place. In some countries we are told, that the barbarians were accustomed to intoxicate themselves by drinking the warm blood of animals; and as it has been shown (§ 12.) that this fluid is the immediate reservoir of the vital principle, it seems by no means improbable, that it may be possessed of an inebriating quality. Some expressions in Scripture seem to countenance this hypothesis. The eating of blood is supposed to have been prohibited to the Jews, principally with a view to the use of sacrifices in divine worship, and as a token of respect to the altar, at which the blood of every victim was presented before God. The prohibition was repeated by the apostles at the council of Jerusalem, confirmed and defend-

ed by all the fathers, except St Augustin, and the universal practice, both of the eastern and western churches, till his time; and, in many churches, even of the west, much longer, as low as the middle of the 10th, some say of the 11th century. The question is, whether the apostolic precept to abstain from blood, was only a temporary sort of accommodation to the weakness of the Jewish converts; or a perpetual precept founded on moral principles, and consequently still obligatory? The former opinion seems the more probable; though the advocates for the latter urge, that blood is prohibited, because it tends to make men savage; that the prohibition is joined with that of fornication, which is an immorality; that on these accounts it was prohibited to Noah, and that God has enjoined abstinence from blood on all Christians, to manifest his supreme power over all their enjoyments. See BAPTISTS, § 13. x.

(17.) BLOOD, USES OF, IN MEDICINE. Blood was formerly held in great esteem as a medicine for some particular diseases. Baths of the blood of infants have been recommended as an infallible remedy for the elephantiasis, &c. and the blood of goats and some other animals was used by the Galenists, and is recommended by Dr Mead in pleurifies: but the first inhuman medicine, as well as the other, is now deservedly exploded.

(18.) BLOOD, USES OF, IN RELIGION. The blood of victims was anciently the portion of the gods; and accordingly was poured or sprinkled on the altar in oblation to them. The priests made another use of blood, viz. for divination: the streaming of blood from the earth, fire, and the like, was held a prodigy or omen of evil. The Roman priests were not unacquainted with the use of blood in miracles; they had the fluxes of blood from images, ready to serve a turn; witness that said to have streamed from the statue of Minerva at Modena, before the battle at that place. But we know not whether in this their successors have not gone beyond them. How many relations in ecclesiastical writers of Madonas, crucifixes, and wafers, bleeding? The liquefaction of the blood of St Januarius at Naples, repeated annually for so many ages, seems to transcend by far all the frauds of the Grecian or Roman priesthood. But the chemists at last got into the secret; and we find M. Neumann at Berlin, performed the miracle of the liquefaction of dried blood, with all the circumstances of the Neapolitan miracle. Among the schoolmen, we find a famous dispute under Pope Pius II. whether the blood of Christ, which fell from him in the three days passion, retained or lost by the hypostatic union; and consequently whether it was the proper object of adoration. The Dominicans maintained the former, the Franciscans the latter. The dominican doctrine gained the ascendant, as being fittest to favour the profits of the monks; who becoming possessed of a few drops of this precious liquor, were secured of ample offerings from the deluded laity who flocked to pay their homage to the sacred relic. Joseph of Arimathea is said to have first brought into Britain two silver vessels filled with the blood of Christ, which by his order was buried in his tomb. King Henry III. had a crystal bottle containing a portion of the same blood, sent him by

the master of the temple at Jerusalem, attested by the seals of the patriarch; which treasure the king committed to the church of St Peter's Westminster, and obtained from the bishops an indulgence of six years and 116 days to all that should visit it. Mat. Paris even assures us, that the king's summoning his nobles and prelates to celebrate the feast of St Edward in St Peter's church, was chiefly *pro veneratione sancti sanguinis Christi nuper adepti*, "in veneration of the holy blood of Christ lately acquired." Divers others of our monasteries were possessed of this profitable relic; as the college of Bons Hommes at Ashridge, and the abbey of Hales, to whom it was given by Henry, son of Richard duke of Cornwall, and king of the Romans. To it resorted a great concourse of people for devotion and adoration; till in 1538, as the reformation took place, it was perceived to be only honey clarified and coloured with saffron, as was shown at St Paul's cross by the bishop of Rochester. The like discovery was made of the blood of Christ, found among the relics in the abbey of Fescamp in Normandy, pretended to have been preserved by Nicodemus, when he took the body from the cross, and given to that abbey by William duke of Normandy: it was buried by his son Richard, and again discovered in 1171, and attended with different miracles; but the cheat, which had been long winked at, was at length exposed, the relation of which is given by Speed.

(II.) BLOOD, in alchemy and chemistry, is a denomination given to several artificial compositions, on account of their red colour. Alchemists chiefly apply it to tinctures.

(III.) BLOOD, in farriery, denotes a distemper in the back of a horse, which makes him in going draw his head aside, or after him: the cure is by cutting the length of two joints under the tail, and letting the beast bleed plentifully.

(IV.) BLOOD, in law, (See § I. 1. Def. 3.) is distinguished, as either HALF BLOOD, or WHOLE BLOOD.

I. BLOOD, HALF, is applied to persons descended from one common ancestor, either on the father's or mother's side, by two different marriages.

2. BLOOD, WHOLE, is applied to persons descended from the same couple of ancestors.

(V.) BLOOD, in pharmacy, is applied to some rare juices; such as DRAGON'S BLOOD, &c.

(VI.) BLOOD, Thomas, commonly called *Coleridge*; was a disbanded officer of Oliver Cromwell's, famous for his daring crimes and his good heart. He was first distinguished by engaging in a conspiracy to surprise the castle of Dublin; but was defeated by the vigilance of the D. of Ormond, and some of his accomplices were executed. Escaping to England, he meditated revenge against Ormond; and actually seized him one night in his coach at St James's Street, where he might have finished his purpose if he had not studied restraints in his vengeance. He bound him on horseback behind one of his associates, resolved to hang him at Tyburn, with a paper pinned to his breast: but when they got into the fields, the duke threw himself and the assassin, to whom he was fastened, to the ground; and while they

were struggling in the mire, he was rescued by his servants; but the authors of this attempt were not then discovered. After living a considerable time among the malcontents in Ireland, he went to Holland; where he became intimate with some of the principal persons of the republic, particularly the famous admiral De Ruyter. He returned thence to England, with recommendations to the republican party; whence he went to Scotland, where he contributed much to the breaking out of the insurrection; and was present in the action of Pentland Hills, on the 27th Nov. 1666; in which the insurgents were routed, and about 500 killed. He returned to England, where he rescued his friend Captain Mason from a party of soldiers, who were conducting him to his trial. In 1671, Blood formed a design of carrying off the crown and regalia from the tower; a design, to which he was prompted, as well by the surprising boldness of the enterprize, as by the views of profit. He was very near succeeding. He had bound and wounded Edwards the keeper of the jewel office, and had got out of the tower with his prey; but was overtaken and seized, with some of his associates. One of them was known to have been concerned in the attempt upon Ormond; and Blood was immediately concluded to be the ring-leader. When questioned, he frankly avowed the enterprize; but refused to discover his accomplices. "The fear of death, he said, should never engage him either to deny a guilt, or betray a friend." All these extraordinary circumstances made him the general subject of conversation; and the king was moved with an idle curiosity to see and speak with a person so noted for his courage and his crimes. Blood wanted not address to improve this opportunity of obtaining a pardon. He told Charles, that he had been engaged, with others, in a design to kill him with a carabine above Battersea, where his majesty often went to bathe: that the cause of this resolution was the severity exercised over the consciences of the godly, in restraining the liberty of their religious assemblies: that when he had taken his stand among the reeds, full of these bloody resolutions, he found his heart checked with an *awe of majesty*; and he not only relented himself, but diverted his associates from their purpose: that he had long ago brought himself to an entire indifference about life, which he now gave for lost; yet could he not forbear warning the king of the danger which might attend his execution; that his associates had bound themselves by the strictest oaths to revenge the death of any of their confederacy; and that no precaution nor power could secure any one from the effects of their desperate resolutions. Whether these considerations excited fear or admiration in the king, they confirmed his resolution of granting a pardon to Blood; but he thought it a requisite point of decency first to obtain the D. of Ormond's consent. Arlington came to Ormond in the king's name, and desired that he would not prosecute Blood, for reasons which he was commanded to give him. The duke replied, that his majesty's commands were the only reason that could be given; and being sufficient, he might therefore spare the rest. Charles carried his kindness

nels to Blood still farther; he granted him an estate of L.500 a year in Ireland; he encouraged his attendance about his person; he showed him great countenance; and many applied to him for promoting their pretensions at court. And while old Edwards, who had bravely ventured his life, and had been wounded, in defending the crown and regalia, was forgotten and neglected, this man, who deserved to be hanged, became a kind of favourite. Blood enjoyed his pension about 10 years, till being charged with fixing an imputation of a scandalous nature on the D. of Buckingham, he was thrown into prison; yet, though the damages were laid at L.10,000, Blood found bail. He died however soon after, on the 24th Aug. 1680. But the public had now got such a notion of the restless spirit of Blood, that they would not believe he could rest even in the grave. Nor did they indeed permit him to do so; for a story being circulated that his death and burial was only a new trick, preparatory to some extraordinary exploit, it gained credit to such a degree, that the body was obliged to be taken up and the coroner's inquest to sit upon it, and to call witnesses to prove the identity of the Colonel's corpse, before the public could be fully persuaded, that so extraordinary a genius was actually dead.

* *To BLOOD. v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To stain with blood.—

Then all approach the slain with vast surprise,
And, scarce secure, reach out their spears afar,
And *blood* their points, to prove their partnership in war.

Dryden's Fables.

—He was *blooded* up to his elbows by a couple of Moors, whom he butchered with his own imperial hands. *Addison.* 2. To enter; to enure to blood, as a hound.—

Fairest than fairest, let none ever say,
That ye were *blooded* in a yielded prey.

Spenser's Sonnets.

3. To *blood*, is sometimes to let blood medically.
4. To heat; to exasperate.—When the faculties intellectual are in vigour, not drenched, or, as it were, *blooded* by the affections. *Bacon's Apophthegms.*—By this means, matters grew more exasperate; the auxiliary forces of French and English were much *blooded* one against another. *Bacon's Henry VII.*

BLOOD, AVENGER OF, among the Jews, was the next of kin to the person murdered, who was to pursue the murderer.

* BLOOD-BOLTERED. *adj.* [from *blood* and *bolter*.] Blood sprinkled.—

The *blood-bolter'd* Banquo smiles upon me.

Macbeth.

(1.) BLOOD, DRAGON'S, [*sanguis draconis*,] is used by the Arabs for the juice of the ANCHUSA.

(2.) BLOOD, DRAGON'S. See DRAGON'S BLOOD.

BLOOD, EFFUSION OF, in canon law, is supposed to pollute all concerned with it, however innocently; and therefore ecclesiastical judges retire, when judgment is to be given in *cases of blood*, by reason the church is supposed to abhor blood. It condemns no person to death; and its members become irregular, or disabled from their functions, by the effusion of blood.

BLOOD, FIELD OF. See ACELDAMA. It still

serves for a burial-ground, in which all pilgrims who die in their pilgrimage at Jerusalem, are interred.

(1.) * BLOODFLOWER. *n. f.* [*hemanthus* Lat.] A plant.

(2.) BLOOD-FLOWER. See HÆMANTHUS.

* BLOODGUILTINESS. *n. f.* [from *blood* and *guilty*.] Murder; the crime of shedding blood.—

And were there rightful cause of difference,
Yet wer't not better, fair it to accord,
Than with *bloodguiltiness* to heap offence,
And mortal vengeance join to crime abhorr'd.

Fairy Queen.

* BLOOD-HOT. *adj.* [from *blood* and *hot*.] Hot in the same degree with blood.—A good piece of bread first to be eaten, will gain time to warm the beer *blood-hot*, which then he may drink safely.

* BLOODHOUND. *n. f.* [from *blood* and *hound*.] A hound that follows by the scent, and seizes with great fierceness.—

Hear this, hear this, thou tribune of the people
Thou zealous, publick *bloodhound*, hear and melt.

Dryden.

Where are these rav'ning *bloodhounds*, that pursue

In a full cry, gaping to swallow me? *Southern*
—A *bloodhound* will follow the track of the person he pursues, and all hounds the particular game they have in chase. *Arbutnot on Aliments.*—

And though the villain 'scape a while, he feels
Slow vengeance, like a *bloodhound*, at his heels.

Savisi.

(2.) BLOOD-HOUND, in zoology, the CANIS SAGAX of Linnæus (see CANIS), le chien courant of Buffon, the *flow bound* of the Scots: The hound or dog, with long, smooth, and pendulous ears. It was a dog of great use, and in high esteem with our ancestors: its employ was to recover any game that had escaped wounded from the hunter, or been killed and stole out of the forest. It was remarkable for the acuteness of its smell, tracing the lost beast by the blood it had spilt; from whence the name is derived. This species could, with the utmost certainty, discover the thief by following his footsteps, let the distance of his flight be ever so great, and through the most secret and thickest coverts: nor would it cease its pursuit till it had taken the felon. They were likewise used by Wallace and Bruce during the civil wars. The poetical historians of the two heroes frequently relate very curious passages on this subject; of the service these dogs were to their masters, and the escapes they had from those of the enemy. The blood-hound was in great request on the confine of England and Scotland; where the borderers were continually preying on the herds and flocks of their neighbours. The true blood-hound was large, strong, muscular, broad breasted, of a stern countenance, of a deep tan-colour, and generally marked with a black spot above each eye.

* BLOODILY. *adv.* [from *bloody*.] With disposition to shed blood; cruelly.—

I told the pursuivant,
As too triumphing, how mine enemies,
To-day at Pomfret, *bloodily* were butcher'd.

Shakspeare. Rich. III.

Thi

This day, the poet, *bloodily* inclin'd,
Has made me die, full sore against my mind.

Dryden.

* **BLOODINESS.** *n. f.* [from *bloody*.] The state of being bloody.—It will manifest itself by its *bleeds*; yet sometimes the scull is so thin as not to admit of any. *Sharp's Surgery.*

* **BLOODLESS.** *adj.* [from *blood*.] 1. Without blood; dead.—

He cheer'd my sorrows, and, for fums of gold,
The *bloodless* carcase of my Hector sold. *Dryd.*
2. Without slaughter.—

War brings ruin where it should amend;
But beauty, with a *bloodless* conquest, finds
A welcome sov'reignty in rudest minds. *Waller.*

* **TO BLOOD-LET.** † *v. n.* [from *blood* and *let*.] To bleed; to open a vein medicinally.—The chyle is not perfectly assimilated into blood, by its circulation through the lungs, as is known by experiments in *blood-letting*. *Arbuthnot on Aliments.*

* **BLOOD-LETTER.** *n. f.* [from *blood-let*.] A phlebotomist; one that takes away blood medically.—This mischief in aneurisms, proceedeth from the ignorance of the *blood-letter*, who, not considering the error, committed in letting blood, binds up the arm carelessly. *Wise man.*

BLOOD-LETTING, *n. f.* The operation of bleeding, or letting blood.

(1.) **BLOOD OF CHRIST,** a pretended relic. See **BLOOD**, § 12.

(2.) **BLOOD OF CHRIST,** the name of a military order instituted at Mantua in 1608. The number of knights was restricted to 20, besides the grand master. Their device was, *Domine, probasti me; Lord, thou hast proved me: or, Nihil hoc triste nocet; Fortified by this, no evil can prevail.*

BLOOD OF MERCURY, in alchemy, the tincture of mercury.

BLOOD OF ST JANUARIUS. See **BLOOD**, § 12.

BLOOD OF SULPHUR, [*sanguis sulphuris*,] a preparation of liver of sulphur, ground with oil of tartar per deliquium, and digested with dulcified spirit of nitre. It was reputed a good pectoral and emetic, but is seldom prescribed.

BLOOD, PRECIOUS, a denomination given to a reformed congregation of Bernardine nuns at Paris, first established under that name in 1661.

BLOOD-RED HOT, the last degree of heat given by smiths to iron in the forge.

BLOOD-RUNNING ITCH, in farriery, a disease in a horse, proceeding from an inflammation of the blood by over-heating, hard riding, or other hard labour; which, getting between the skin and flesh, makes the beast rub and bite himself; and, if not cured, sometimes turns to a grievous rage, highly infectious to all nigh him.

BLOOD, SALAMANDER'S, the redness remaining in the receiver, after distilling the spirit of nitre.

BLOOD, SATYRIUM, a ruddy liquor produced from the roots of satyrium, baked with bread;

VOL. IV. PART I.

† Dr JOHNSON appears to have no authority for inserting **TO BLOOD-LET** as an English verb. In his quotation from Dr ARBUTHNOT, *Blood-letting is not a participle, but a substantive noun, expressing a branch of surgery. Participles always imply time. We have not met with the verb blood-let in any medical or surgical work whatever. Neither do we find it in any other dictionary, except that of Dr ASH, who says it is "not much used."* We are persuaded he might have said, it is never used. Physicians and surgeons often mention **BLOOD-LETTING**, but they do not speak of having blood-letted a patient, or of ordering one to be blood-letted. The verbs **TO BLEED** and **TO BLOOD**, and the expressions **TO draw blood**, **TO let blood**, and **TO lose blood**, entirely supersede the necessity of such a verb as **TO BLOOD**—

and liquified, as it were, into blood, by a long digestion.

* **BLOODSHED.** *n. f.* [from *blood* and *shed*.]

1. The crime of blood, or murder.—

Full many mischiefs follow cruel wrath;
Abhorred *bloodshed*, and tumultuous strife,
Unmanly murder, and unthrifty scath. *F. Queens*
All murders past do stand excus'd in this;

And this so sole, and so unmatchable,
Shall prove a deadly *bloodshed* but a jest,
Exempl'd by this heinous spectacle. *Shak. K. J.*

→ A man, under the transports of a vehement rage, passes a different judgment upon murder and *bloodshed*, from what he does when his revenge is over. *South.* 2. Slaughter; waste of life.—

So by him Cæsar got the victory,
Through great *bloodshed*, and many a sad assay.
Fairy Queen.

Of wars and *bloodshed*, and of dire events,
I could with greater certainty foretel. *Dryden.*

* **BLOODSHEDDER.** *n. f.* [from *bloodshed*.] Murderer.—He that taketh away his neighbour's living, slayeth him; and he that defraudeth the labourer of his hire, is a *bloodshedder*. *Ecclus. xxxiv. 22.*

(1.) * **BLOODSHOT.** } *adj.* [from *blood* and

* **BLOODSHOTTEN.** } *shot.* Filled with blood bursting from its proper vessels.—

And that the winds their bellowing throats
would try,

When redd'ning clouds reflect his *bloodshot* eye.
Garth.

(2.) **BLOOD-SHOTTEN.** See **OPHTHALMIA**.

BLOOD-SNAKE, the English name of the **HÆMORRHUS**.

BLOOD-SPAVIN. See **FARRIERY**.

BLOOD, SPITTING OF, OR HÆMOPTOE. See **MEDICINE, INDEX**.

(1.) * **BLOOD-STONE.** *n. f.* [*hematites*; from *blood* and *stone*.] The name of a stone.—There is a stone, which they call the *blood-stone*, which, worn, is thought to be good for them that bleed at the nose; which, no doubt, is by astringent, and cooling of the spirits. *Bacon*.—The *blood-stone* is green, spotted with a light blood red. *Woodward on fossils.*

(2.) **BLOOD-STONE.** See **HÆMATITES**.

* **BLOODSUCKER.** *n. f.* [from *blood* and *suck*.]

1. A leech; a fly; any thing that sucks blood. 2. A cruel man; a murderer.—

God keep the prince from all the pack of you;
A knot you are of damned *bloodsuckers*!

Shakesp. Rich. III.

The nobility cried out upon him, that he was a *bloodsucker*, a murderer, and a parricide. *Hayward.*

* **BLOOD-THIRSTY.** *adj.* [from *blood* and *thirst*.] Desirous to shed blood.—

And high advancing his *blood-thirsty* blade,
Struck one of those deformed heads. *Fairy Q.*

I

—The

—The image of God the *blood-thirsty* have not; for God is charity and mercy itself. *Raleigh's Hist.*

(1.) * **BLOOD-VESEL.** *n. f.* [from *blood* and *vessel*.] A vessel appropriated by nature to the conveyance of the blood.—The skins of the forehead were extremely tough and thick, and had not in them any *blood-vessel*, that we were able to discover. *Addison's Spectator*.

(2.) **BLOOD-VESSELS.** See **ANATOMY, INDEX;** and *Plates VII, VIII and IX.*

(1.) * **BLOODWIT.** *n. f.* A fine anciently paid as a composition for blood.

(2.) **BLOOD-WIT, or } [from *blud*, Sax. blood, *BLOOD-WITE* } and *wite*, a fine,] denotes an exemption from the penalty (N. 1.) granted by the king to certain persons and communities as a special favour. K. Henry II. granted to all tenants within the honour of Wallingford—*Ut quieti sint de bidagio et blodwite et bredawite*. The word is also written *blodwite, blodwita, blodwyta, bloud-wit, and bluidweit*.**

BLOOD-WOOD, Log-wood. See **HÆMATOXYLON.**

(1.) * **BLOODWORT.** *n. f.* A plant.

(2.) **BLOODWORT,** in botany. See **RUMEX.**

* **BLOODY.** *adj.* [from *blood*.] 1. Stained with blood. 2. Cruel; murderous: applied either to men or facts.—By continual martial exercises, without blood, she made them perfect in that *bloody art*. *Sidney*.—

False of heart, light of ear, *bloody* of hand.
Shakesp K. Lear.

I grant him *bloody*,
Luxurious, avaricious, false, deceitful.
Shakesp. Macbeth.

Thou *bloodier* villain,
Than terms can give thee out. *Shakesp. Macb.*

Alas! why gnaw you so your nether lip?
Some *bloody* passion shakes your very frame;
These are portents: but yet I hope, I hope,
They do not point on me. *Shakesp. Othello.*

The *bloody* fact
Will be aveng'd; and th' other's faith approv'd,
Lose no reward; tho' here thou see him die,
Rolling in dust and gore. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

The *bloodiest* vengeance which she could pursue,
Would be a trifle to my loss of you.
Dryden's Indian Emp.

Proud Nimrod first the *bloody* chase began,
A mighty hunter, and his prey was man.
Pope's W. Forest.

BLOODY BAY, a harbour on the Sound of the isle of Mull, on the coast of Argyllshire.

BLOODY CRIME, [*sanguineum crimen*,] in writers of the middle age, that which is punished with the blood or life of the offender.

(1.) * **BLOODY-FLUX.** *n. f.* The dysentery; a disease in which the excrements are mixed with blood.—Cold, by retarding the motion of the blood, and suppressing perspiration, produces giddiness, sleepiness, pains in the bowels, looseness, *bloody-fluxes*. *Arbuthnot on Air.*

(2.) **BLOODY FLUX.** See **MEDICINE, INDEX.**

BLOODY HAND, in law, a trespasser apprehended in a forest with his hands or other parts bloody; which is a circumstantial proof of his having killed a deer, though he be not found hunting them.

BLOODY-LAWS, a small hill of Scotland, in Roxburghshire, in the parish of Oxnam, so named from its having been anciently a scene of frequent and bloody feuds between the Scots and English borderers.

* **BLOODY-MINDED.** *adj.* [from *bloody* and *mind*.] Cruel; inclined to bloodshed.—I think you'll make me mad: truth has been at my tongue's end this half hour, and I have not the power to bring it out, for fear of this *bloody-minded* colonel. *Dryden's Spanish Fryar.*

BLOODY RAIN. See **RAIN.**

BLOODY SWEAT. Many instances of this are recorded, owing either to bodily disorder, or extreme mental agitation and agony. See particularly *Aristotle's Hist. Animal. lib. iii. cap. 19. apud Oper. tom. i. Thuanus Hist. Temp. Ec. lib. ii. apud Oper. tom. i. Melanges d'Histoire et de Literature, &c. par M. V. Marville, tom. iii. p. 149. Acta Physico Med. Norimbergæ, vol. i. p. 84. and vol. viii. p. 428.*

BLOODY URINE. See **MEDICINE, INDEX.**

(1.) * **BLOOM.** *n. f.* [*blum*, Germ. *bloem*, Dutch.] 1. A blossom; the flower which precedes the fruit.—

How nature paints her colours, how the
bee
Sits on her *bloom*, extracting liquid sweet.

Paradise Lost.
A medlar tree was planted by;
The spreading branches made a goodly show,
And full of opening *blooms* was ev'ry bough.

Dryden.
Haste to yonder woodbine bow'rs;
The turf with rural dainties shall be crown'd,
While opening *blooms* diffuse their sweets around.

Pope.
2. The state of immaturity; the state of any thing improving, and ripening to higher perfection.—
Were I no queen, did you my beauty weigh,
My youth in *bloom*, your age in its decay.

Dryden's Aurengs.
3. The blue colour upon plums and grapes newly gathered. 4. [In the iron works.] A piece of iron wrought into a mass, two feet square.

(2.) **BLOOM,** in the iron works, (§ 1. *def.* 4.) has yet to undergo many hammerings before it become iron fit for the smith's use, and be made what they call the *ancony*. See **ANCONY**.

(3.) **BLOOM, HALF,** a round mass of metal, which comes out of the finery of an iron work. See **BLOMARY**.

* **To BLOOM.** *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To bring or yield blossoms.—The rod of Aaron for the house of Levi was budded, and brought forth buds, and *bloomed* blossoms, and yielded almonds. *Numbers xvii. 8.*—It is a common experience, that if you do not pull off some blossoms the first time a tree *bloometh*, it will blossom itself to death. *Bacon's Natural History.* 2. To produce, as blossoms.—Rites and customs, now superstitious, when the strength of virtuous, devout or charitable affection *bloomed* them, no man could justly have condemned as evil. *Hooker.* 3. To be in a state of youth and improvement.—

Beauty, frail flow'r, that every season fears,
Blooms in thy colours for a thousand years.
Pope's Epistles.
O greatness

O greatly blest'd with every *blooming* grace!
With equal steps the paths of glory trace.

Pope's Odyssey.

BLOOMARY. See BLOMARY.

* BLOOMY. *adj.* [from *bloom*.] Full of blooms;
Scarcely.—

O nightingale! that on yon *bloomy* spray
Warblest at eve, when all the woods are still.

Milton.

Departing spring could only stay to shed
Her *bloomy* beauties on the genial bed,
But let the manly summer in her stead.

Dryden.

Hear how the birds, on ev'ry *bloomy* spray,
With joyous music wake the dawning day.

Pope.

BLOOSM, *n. f. obs.* blossom. *Spenser.*

BLOOT, Peter, a Flemish painter, whose works are seldom seen in Britain: nor are they easily purchased in Holland, being highly esteemed and carefully preserved in private collections. The subjects he painted were boors drinking, feasting, dancing, or quarrelling; shepherds piping, the marriages of villagers, &c. He was a faithful but too servile imitator of nature; never departing from the attitudes, or draperies of his models. He understood the chiaroscuro, and perspective; he had a delicate manner of penciling, and his colouring was mellow; but he had no idea of elegance: yet his pictures have in many respects great merit, and his defects seem rather imputable to the taste of his country, than to want of genius; some of his works being, for the lightness of the touch, the reticence of handling, and transparency of colour, equal to the best of his time. He died in 1667.

BLOOTELING. See BLOTELING.

* BLORE. *n. f.* [from *blow*.] Act of blowing;
blat: an expressive word, but not used.—

Out rush, with an unmeasur'd roar,
Those two winds, tumbling clouds in heaps;
Others to either's *blore*. *Chapman's Iliad.*

BLORE-HALL, a village in Staffordshire, near
Okeover.

BLORE-HEATH, a village in Staffordshire, near
Stapenhire.

(1.) * BLOSSOM. *n. f.* [*bloſme*, Sax.] The flower that grows on any plant, previous to the seed or fruit. We generally call these flowers *blossoms*, which are not much regarded in themselves, but as a token of some following production.—

Cold news for me:

Thus are my *blossoms* blasted in the bud,
And caterpillars eat my leaves away.

Shakeſp. Henry IV.

Merrily, merrily, shall I live now,
Under the *blossom* that hangs on the bough.

Shakeſp. Tempest.

—The pulling off many of the *blossoms* of a fruit
tree, doth make the fruit fairer.

Bacon's Natural History.

To his green ears your censure you would
suit,

Not blast the *blossom*, but expect the fruit.

Dryden.

(2.) BLOSSOM, in a particular sense, is restrained to the flowers of trees, which they put forth in the spring as the forerunners of their fruit, otherwise called their BLOOM. The office of the

blossom is partly to protect, and partly to draw nourishment to, the embryo, fruit, or seed. *see* FLOWER.

(3.) BLOSSOM, or PEACH-COLOURED, in the manege, a term applied to a horse that has his hair white, but intermixed all over with sorrel and bay hairs. Such horses are so insensible and hard both in the mouth and the flanks, that they are scarce valued; besides they are apt to turn blind.

* To BLOSSOM. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To put forth blossoms.—

This is the state of man: to-day he puts forth
The tender leaves of hope; to-morrow, *blossoms*,
And bears his blushing honours thick upon him.

Shakeſp. Henry VIII.

—Although the fig-tree shall not *blossom*, neither shall fruit be in the vines, yet will I rejoice in the Lord. *Habb. iii 17.*—The want of rain at *blossoming* time, often occasions the dropping off of the *blossoms*, for want of sap. *Mortimer.*

(1.) BLOSSOMING, MIRACULOUS, OF PLANTS. The *pious* blossoming of the Glastenbury thorn on Christmas morning, is a vulgar error. The fact is, that the plant, besides its usual blossoming in the spring, sometimes puts forth a few white transient blossoms in the middle of winter. The blossoming of the rose of Jericho on the same day, as it is said in England, or in the time of midnight mass, as it was believed in France, during the prevalence of priestcraft, is somewhat more than an error, being really a fraud on one side, and a superstition on the other. This rose, whose leaves are only closed in winter, will, at any time, upon setting its pedicle in water, expand and blossom anew; because the pedicle being spongy imbibes the fluid apace, and thus fills and swells out the shrivelled leaves: which property some monks have turned to good account.

(2.) BLOSSOMING. See BLISSOMING.

BLOSTENHIM, a village in Cornwall, N. W. of Saltash.

* BLOT. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. An obliteration of something written.—

Let flames on your unlucky papers prey,
Your wars, your loves, your praises, be forgot,
And make of all an universal *blot*.

Dryd. Juv.

2. A blur; a spot upon paper. 3. A spot in reputation; a stain; a disgrace; a reproach.—

Make known,

It is no vicious *blot*, murder, or foulness,

That hath depriv'd me. *Shakeſp. K. Lear.*

—A lie is a foul *blot* in a man; yet it is continually in the mouth of the untaught. *Ecclus. xxi 24.*

—A disappointed hope, a *blot* of honour, a strain of conscience, an unfortunate love, will serve the turn. *Temple.* 4. [At Backgammon.] When a single man lies open to be taken up; whence to *hit a blot*.—He is too great a master of his art to make a *blot* which may so easily be hit. *Dryden's Dedication, Æneid.*

* To BLOT. *v. a.* [from *blottir*, Fr. to hide.] 1. To obliterate; to make writing invisible by covering it with ink.—

You that are king

Have caus'd him by new act of parliament,
To *blot* out me, and put his own son in.

Shakeſp. Henry V.

Ev'n copious Dryden wanted, or forgot,
The last and greatest art, the art to blot. *Pope.*
—A man of the most understanding will find it impossible to make the best use of it, while he writes in constraint, perpetually softening, correcting, or blotting out expressions. *Swift.* 2. To efface; to erase.—

O Bertram, oh I no more my foe, but brother;
One act like this blots out a thousand crimes.

Dryden.

—These simple ideas, offered to the mind, the understanding can no more refuse, nor alter, nor blot out, than a mirror can refuse, alter or obliterate, the images which the objects produce. *Locke.*
3. To make black spots on a paper; to blur.—
Heads overfull of matter, be like pens overfull of ink, which will sooner blot, than make any fair letter. *Ascham.*—

O sweet Portia!

Here are a few of the unpleasantest words
That ever blotted paper. *Shak. Merch. of Venice.*

4. To disgrace; to disfigure.—

Unknot that threat'ning unkind brow;
It blots thy beauty, as frost bites the meads,
Confounds thy fame. *Shak. Tam. of the Shrew.*

My guilt thy growing virtues did defame;
My blackness blotted thy unblemish'd name.

Dryden's An.

For mercy's sake, restrain thy hand,
Blot not thy innocence with guiltless blood.

Rome.

5. To darken.—

He sung how earth blots the moon's gilded wane,
Whilst foolish men beat sounding brass in vain.

Cowley.

* **BLOTCH.** *n. s.* [from *blot.*] A spot or pustule upon the skin.—Spots and blotches, of several colours and figures, straggling over the body; some are red, others yellow, or black. *Harvey.*

* **To BLOTE.** *v. a.* To smoke, or dry by the smoke; as bloted herrings or red herrings.

BLOTE CHINA WARE, a sort of china, loaded with colours in an irregular manner. This pleases some, but it is a defective sort of ware, the large blotches of colours having been only laid on to cover the blemishes in the first baking.

BLOTELING, or **BLOOTE**LING, Abraham, a designer and engraver of Amsterdam, flourished about 1670. From the style of his etchings, which have great merit, he is supposed to have frequented the school of the Visschers. He came into England about 1672, or 1673, at the time the French invaded Holland; but he did not reside long. He both etched and scraped several mezzotintos, which were much esteemed. Vertue informs us, that whilst he was in England, he received 30 guineas for an etching of the duke of Norfolk.—From hence he returned to Amsterdam, where, in all probability, he died. In 1685, he published at Amsterdam, the *genus* of Leonardo Augustino, and etched the plates himself.

BLOTTING PAPER, a species of paper made without size or stiffening, serving to imbibe the wet ink in books of account, &c. and prevent its blotting the opposite page.

BLOUDWIT. See **BLOOD**WIT.

(1.) **BLOUNT**, Charles, younger brother of Thomas (N. 3.) had an excellent capacity,

and was an eminent writer. His *Anima Mundi*, or, *An historical narration of the opinions of the ancients, concerning man's soul after this life, according to unenlightened nature*, gave great offence, and was complained of to the bishop of London. But the work which rendered him most known, was his translation of Philostratus's *Life of Apollonius Tyanicus*, published in 1680; which was soon suppressed, as an attack on revealed religion. Another work of the same complexion he published the same year, called *Great is Diana of the Ephesians*, &c. in which under colour of expoling superstition, he struck at revelation. In 1684, he printed a kind of *Introduction to Polite Literature*. In the warmth of his zeal for the Revolution, he wrote a pamphlet to prove K. William and queen Mary conquerors; which was condemned to be burnt by both houses of parliament. The close of his life was very unhappy. For, after the death of his wife, he became enamoured of her sister, whose only objection was their prior connection by the marriage; on which he writ a letter on the subject, as the case of a third person, with great learning and address. But the Abp. of Canterbury and other divines deciding against him, and the lady on this growing inflexible, it threw him into a phrenzy in which he shot himself, in 1693.—After his death, his miscellaneous pieces were collected and published.

(2.) **BLOUNT**, Sir Henry, an English writer, born at Tittenhanger, in Hertfordshire, in 1602. After a regular education, he set out on his travels in 1634; and getting acquainted with a janizary at Venice, he accompanied him into the Turkish dominions. Having been abroad two years, he returned and published a relation of his travels in the Levant, which went through several editions. He was knighted by Charles I. and was at the battle of Edge-hill; but after the king's death, was employed by the parliament, and by Cromwell. Yet after the restoration, he was appointed high sheriff of Hertfordshire, and from that time lived as a private gentleman above 20 years. He published, 1. An account of his travels. 2. Six comedies written by John Lilly, under the title of *Court Comedies*. 3. The exchange walk, a satire; and 4. An epistle in praise of tobacco. He died October 9th, 1682.

(3.) **BLOUNT**, Sir Thomas Pope, bart. an eminent writer, and the eldest son of Sir Henry (N. 2.) was born at Upper Holloway, in Middlesex, Sept. 12th, 1649. He distinguished himself as a lover of liberty, a sincere friend to his country, and a true patron of learning. He was made a baronet by Charles II. in whose reign he was elected burgess for St Alban's in two parliaments, and was knight of the shire in 3 parliaments after the revolution. He wrote in Latin, 1. A critique on the most celebrated writers. 2. Essays on several subjects. 3. A natural history, extracted out of the best modern writers; and 4. Remarks upon poetry, with characters and censures of the most considerable poets, whether ancient or modern. He died June 30th, 1697.

(4.) **BLOUNT**, Thomas, a learned English writer of the 17th century, born at Bordesley in Worcester-shire. He had not an university education; but by strength of genius and great application, made

made a considerable progress in literature. Upon the breaking out of the popish plot in the reign of Charles II. being much alarmed on account of his being a zealous Roman-catholic, he contracted a palsy; and died in December 1679, aged 61. He wrote, 1. The academy of eloquence, containing a complete English rhetoric. 2. Glossographica, or a dictionary interpreting such hard words, whether Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Italian, &c. as are now used in our refined English tongue, &c. 3. Botocobol; or the history of his majesty's escape after the battle of Worcester. 4. A law Dictionary. 5. Animadversions upon Sir Richard Baker's chronicle. 6. *Fragmenta Antiquitatis*; and other works.

MOUNTSVILLE, a post town of the United States, in N. Carolina. It is 30 m. S. S. E. of Halifax, and 413 from Philadelphia.

(1.) **BLOW**, Dr John, a famous musician and composer, was a native of N. Collingham in Nottingham; and was one of the first set of chapel boys after the Restoration. He was bred up under Capt. Henry Cook, and also a pupil of Hingston, and Dr Christopher Gibbons. Upon the death of Purcell in 1695, he became organist of Westminster Abbey, and in 1699, composer to the king. Dr Blow was a composer of anthems while a chapel boy, and was distinguished by Charles II. for his merit. He set to music an ode for St Cecilia's day, in 1684, the words by Mr Oldham, published with one of Purcell. In imitation of Purcell's *Orpheus Britannicus*, he published a work entitled *Amphion Anglicus*, in 1700, containing compositions for 1, 2, 3, and 4 voices, with a thorough bass for the organ, harpsichord, or the oratorio. He likewise published a collection of lessons for the harpsichord, and Mr Dryden's ode on the death of Purcell. There are also extant of his composition sundry hymns printed in the *Hymnologia Sacra*, and a great number of catches in the latter editions of the *Musical Companion*.—He died in 1708.

(2.) **BLOW**, *n. s.* [*blowe*, Dutch.] 1. The act of striking. 2. A stroke.—

A most poor man, made tame to fortune's blows,

Who, by the art of known and feeling sorrows,
Am pregnant to good pity. *Shakesf. King Lear.*

A woman's tongue,

That gives not half so great a blow to th' ear,
As will a chefnut. *Shakesf. Taming of the Shrew.*

—Words of great contempt, commonly finding a room of equal scorn, blows were fastened upon the most pragmatical of the crew. *Clarendon.* 3.

The fatal stroke; the stroke of death.—

Assuage your thirst of blood, and strike the blow. *Dryden.*

4. An act of hostility; blows are used for combat in war.—

Be most abated captives to some nation

That won you without blows. *Shakesf.*

Unarm'd if I should go,

What hope of mercy from this dreadful foe,
But woman-like to fall, and fall without a blow. *Pope.*

5. A sudden calamity; an unexpected evil.—People is broken with a grievous blow. *Jeremiab.*—

To all but thee in fits he seem'd to go,

And 'twas my ministry to deal the blow. *Parnel.*
6. A single action; a sudden event.—Every year they gain a victory, and a town; but if they are once defeated, they lose a province at a blow. *Dryden.* 7. The act of a fly, by which she lodges eggs in flesh.—

I must fear, lest with the blows of flies,
His brags inflicted wounds are fill'd.

Chapman's Iliad.

(3.) **BLOW**, in fencing, differs from a thrust, as the former is given by striking, the latter by pushing.

(4.) **BLOW**, in law. See **BATTERY**, § I. & III.

(5.) **BLOW**, **MILITARY**, [*alapa militaris*,] that given with a sword on the neck or shoulder of a candidate for knighthood, in the ceremony of dubbing him. It seems to have taken its rise from the ancient ceremony of manumission. In giving the blow, the prince used the formula, *Ego bonus miles*, "Be a valiant soldier;" upon which the party rose a complete knight, and qualified to bear arms in his own right.

(1.) * **To BLOW**, *v. a.* 1. To drive by the force of the wind; with a particle to fix the meaning.—

Though you unite the winds,

Though bladed corn be lodg'd, and trees blown down,

Though castles topple on their warders heads.

Macbeth.

Fair daughter, blow away those mists and clouds,

And let thy eyes shine forth in their full lustre.

Denham.

—These primitive heirs of the christian church could not so easily blow off the doctrine of passive obedience. *South.* 2. To inflame with wind.—I have created the smith that bloweth the coals. *Isaiab.*—A fire not blown shall consume him. *Job.* 3. To swell; to puff into size.—

No blown ambition doth our arms incite,
But love, dear love, and our ag'd father's right.

K. Lear.

4. To form into shape by the breath.—Spherical bubbles, that boys sometimes blow with water, to which soap hath given a tenacity. *Boyle.* 5. To sound an instrument of wind musick.—Blow the trumpet among the nations. *Jeremiab.*—

Where the bright seraphim, in burning row,
Their loud uplifted angel trumpets blow. *Milt.*

6. To warm with the breath.—

When icicles hang by the wall,

And Dick the shepherd blows his nail,

And Tom bears logs into the hall,

And milk comes frozen home in pail. *Shakesf.*

7. To spread by report.—

But never was there man of his degree,

So much esteem'd, so well belov'd as he:

So gentle of condition was he known,

That through the court his courtesy was blown

Dryden.

8. **To blow out**. To extinguish by wind or the breath.—

Your breath first kindled the dead coal of war,
And brought in matter, that should feed this fire:

And now 'tis far too huge to be blown out,

With that same weak wind which enkindled it.

Moon, slip behind some cloud, some tempest rise,

And *blow out* all the stars that light the skies. *Dryd.*

9. *To blow up.* To raise or swell with breath.—A plague of sighing and grief! it *blows* a man up like a bladder. *Shakespeare.*—Before we had exhausted the receiver, the bladder appeared as full as if *blown up* with a quill. *Boyle.*—

It was my breath that *blew* this tempest up,

Upon your stubborn usage of the pope. *Shakes.*
—An empty bladder gravitates no more than when *blown up*, but some less; yet descends more easily, because with less resistance. *Grew.* 10. *To blow up.* To inflate with pride.—*Blown up* with the conceit of his merit, he did not think he had received good measure from the king. *Bacon.* 11. *To blow up.* To kindle.—

His presence soon *blows up* th' unkindly fight,
And his loud guns speak thick like angry men. *Dryden.*

12. *To move by afflatus.*—When the mind finds herself very much inflamed with devotion, she is too much inclined to think that it is *blown up* with something divine within herself. *Addison.* 13. *To blow up.* To burst with gunpowder; to raise into the air.—The captains hoping, by a mine, to gain the city, approached with soldiers ready to enter upon *blowing up* of the mine. *Knolles's Hist. of the Turks.*—

Their chief *blown up* in air, not waves expir'd,
To which his pride presum'd to give the law. *Dryden.*

—Not far from the said well, *blowing up* a rock, he formerly observed some of these. *Woodward.* 14. *To infect with the eggs of flies.* I know not how this sense belongs to the word.—

I would no longer endure
This wooden slavery, than I would suffer
The flesh-fly *blow* my mouth. *Shakes.*
Rather at Nilus' mud

Let me stark naked, and let the water-flies
Blow me into abhorring. *Shakes.*

15. *To blow upon.* To make stale.—I am wonderfully pleased, when I meet with any passage in an old Greek or Latin author, that is not *blown upon*, and which I have never met with in any quotation. *Addison.*—He will whisper an intrigue that is not yet *blown upon* by common fame. *Addison.*

(2.) * *To BLOW.* v. n. pret. *blew*; particip. pass. *blown*. [*blacwan*, Sax.] 1. To make a current of air.—At his sight the mountains are shaken, and at his will the south wind *bloweth*. *Ecclus.* xlii. 16.—Fruits, for long keeping, gather before they are full ripe, and in a dry day, towards noon, and when the wind *bloweth* not south; and when the moon is in decrease. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

By the fravrant winds that *blow*
O'er the Elysiad flow'rs. *Pope's St Cecilia.*

2. This word is sometimes impersonally with *it*.—*It blew* a terrible tempest at sea once, and there was one seaman praying. *L'Estrange.*—If it *blows* a happy gale, we must set up all our sails, though it sometimes happens, that our natural heat is more powerful than our care and correctness. *Dryden.* 3. To pant; to puff; to be breathless. Here's Mrs Page at the door, sweating and *blowing*, and looking wildly. *Shakespeare.*—

Each aking nerve refuse the lance to throw,
And each spent courser at the chariot *blow*. *Pope.*
4. To breathe.—Says the satyr, if you have gotten a trick of *blowing* hot and cold out of the same mouth, I've e'en done with ye. *L'Estrange.*
5. To sound with being blown.—

Nor with less dread the loud
Ethereal trumpet from on high 'gan *blow*.
Paradise Lost.

There let the prating organ *blow*,
To the full-voic'd quire below. *Milton.*
6. To sound, or play musically by wind.—The priests shall *blow* with the trumpet. *Joshua.*—When ye *blow* an alarm, then the camps that lie on the east parts shall go forward. *Numbers.* 7. *To blow over.* To pass away without effect.—Storms, though they *blow over* divers times, yet may fall at last. *Bacon's Essays.*—

When the storm is *blown over*,
How blest is the swain,
Who begins to discover
An end of his pain. *Granville.*

—But those clouds being now happily *blown over*, and our sun clearly shining out again, I have recovered the relapse. *Denham.* 8. *To blow up.* To fly into the air by force of gunpowder.—On the next day, some of the enemy's magazines *blew up*; and it is thought they were destroyed on purpose by some of their men. *Tatler.*

(3.) * *To BLOW.* v. n. [*blowan*, Saxon.] To bloom; to blossom.—

We lose the prime to mark how spring
Our tender plants, how *blows* the citron grove,
What drops the myrrh, and what the balmy
reed. *Milton.*

This royal fair
Shall, when the blossom of her beauty's *blown*,
See her great brother on the British throne. *Waller.*
Fair is the king cup that in meadow *blows*,
Fair as the daisy that beside her grows. *Gay.*
For thee Idume's spicy forest *blow*,
And seeds of gold in Ophir's mountains glow. *Pope.*

(1.) * *BLOWER.* n. f. [from *blow*.] A melter of tin.—Add his care and coast in buying wood and in fetching the same to the blowing-house together with the *blowers*, two or three months extreme and increasing labour. *Cowley.*

(2.) *BLOWER*, [*souffleur*,] an appellation of contempt sometimes given to an alchemist.

BLOWFIELD, a village 4 m. N. E. of Norwich

(1.) *BLOWING*, [*exsufflatio*,] a ceremony in the ancient administration of baptism, whereby the catechumen, upon rehearsing the renunciation *blew* 3 blasts with his mouth, to signify that he rejected the devil. Something like this is still retained in the Russian church. In the sacramentary of St Gregory, the priest who administers baptism, is enjoined to blow thrice on the child's face, making the sign of the cross and pronouncing the words, *exi ab eo satan*. Justin Martyr, Tertullian, St Cyril, and St Augustin speaks of this ceremony as used in their times.

(2.) *BLOWING*, in gardening, the action of blowing flowers, whereby they open and display the leaves. The regular blowing season is in the spring; though some plants have other extraordinary times and manners of blowing, as the *Glaucocorymbus*.

tenbury thorn. See BLOSSOMING, § 1. Some flowers also, as the tulip, close every evening, and blow again in the morning. Annual plants blow sooner or later as their seeds are put in the ground; whence the curious in gardening sow some every month in summer, and have a constant succession of flowers. The blowing of roses may be retarded by shearing off the buds as they put forth.

(3.) BLOWING AIR INTO FURNACES. See FURNACE.

(4.) BLOWING OF GLASS, one of the methods of forming various kinds of works in the glass manufacture. It is performed by dipping the point of an iron blowing pipe into melted glass, and blowing through it with the mouth, according to the circumstances of the glass to be blown. See GLASS.

(5.) BLOWING OF TIN denotes the melting its ore, after being first burnt, to destroy the mundic.

6.) BLOWING SNAKE, in zoology, a name given in Virginia to a species of serpent, resembling the European viper, but considerably larger, and remarkable for inflating and extending the surface of its head before it bites. Its wound is mortal.

* BLOWN. The *participle passive* of *blow*.—All the sparks of virtue, which nature had kindled in them, were so *blown* to give forth their utmost heat, and justly it may be affirmed, they inflamed the affections of all that knew them. *Shakspeare*.—

The trumpets sleep, while cheerful hours are *blown*,

And arms employ'd on birds and beasts alone *Pope*.

(1.) BLOWN, in heraldry, [*espanoui*,] is applied to a *jeur de lys* when its leaves are opened, so that buds appear among the *fleurons*.

BLOW-NORTON, a village in Norfolkshire, N. E. of Harling.

(1.) BLOW-PIPE, in chemistry and mineralogy, an instrument by which the blast of the breath may be directed upon the flame of a lamp or candle, in such a manner as to vitrify any small portion of mineral substance; and thus the process of assaying in the dry way may be performed in a very short time, where either want of instruments, or opportunity, prevent other methods from being used.

(2.) BLOW-PIPE, ADVANTAGES OF THE. The late Sir Torbern Bergman observed that this instrument is extremely useful to chemists, as many experiments are daily neglected, either because they require furnaces and a large apparatus of vessels; from the want of time to examine them in the ordinary way; or from the quantity required in the common way for examination, when the water may be too scarce or too dear. In all these cases the blow-pipe may be advantageously used; 1. Most of the experiments which can be performed in the large way may also be done with the blow-pipe. 2. The experiments which in the large way require many hours, may in this method be finished in a few minutes; and, 3. The quantity of particle is sufficient. The only defect is, that the proportions cannot be determined with great precision; and therefore where the experiments can be tried on a large scale, it is always

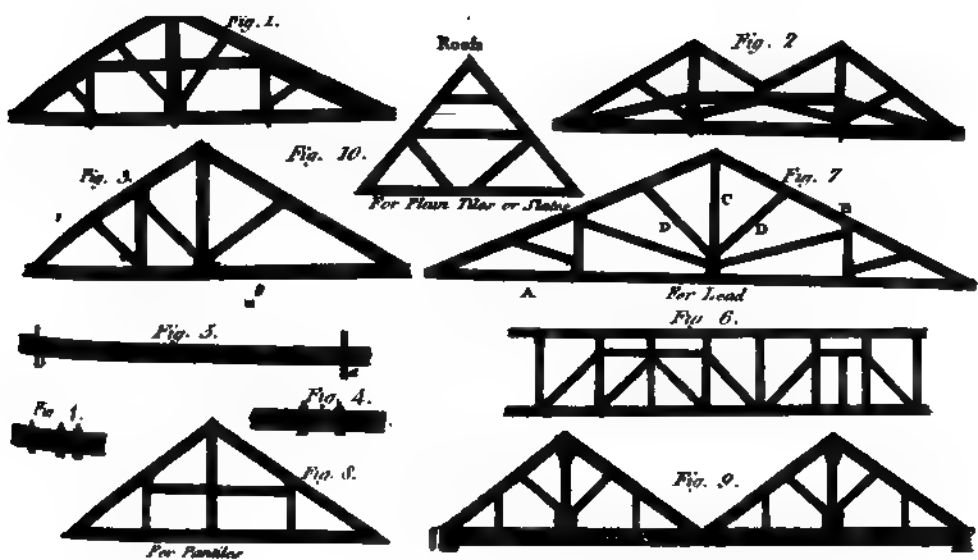
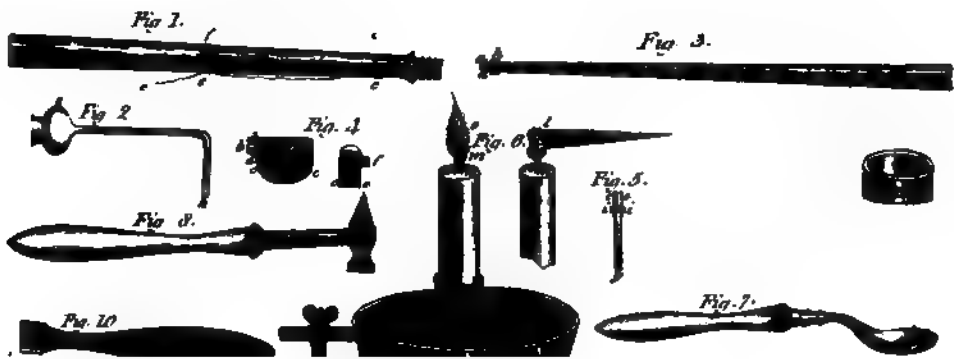
preferred. "But the first inquiry to be made," says Sir Torbern, "is, *what* a substance contains; not *how much*; and I have learned by the experience of many years, that these trials in small quantities suggest the proper methods of instituting experiments in large. These experiments besides have some advantage over those conducted in crucibles, *viz.* we can see all the phenomena from beginning to end, which wonderfully illustrates the series of operations and their causes. Experiments made in crucibles are often fallacious, as the substance of the vessel itself is corroded. We suppose that lime or magnesia melted with fixed alkali are united with it in the way of solution; but the globule, when well fused in the spoon, by its transparency permits us plainly to see that, except the siliceous part, it is only mechanically mixed. The most intense degree of heat may in this way be obtained in a few minutes, which can scarcely be done in a crucible in many hours."

(3.) BLOW-PIPE, IMPROVEMENTS OF THE. The blow-pipe was first introduced into the chemical apparatus about 50 years ago, by the celebrated Swedish metallurgist, Dr Andreas Swab; and was afterwards greatly improved by Messrs Cronstedt, Rinman, &c. Dr Engestrom has an express treatise upon the subject. Bergman proposes that the tube should be made of pure silver, to prevent it from being injured by rust; with the addition of a small quantity of platina, to give a necessary hardness. It consists of 3 parts, which may be occasionally joined: An handle, fig. 3. PLATE XXIII. terminating in a truncated conical apex *a a*, which may, by twisting, be so adapted to the aperture *b*, fig. 4. as to shut it more closely than can be done by a screw. It was an improvement of former chemists to have a hollow ball on the tube, to collect the moisture of the breath, which, if suffered to accumulate, would greatly diminish the intensity of the flame. Instead of this, Mr Berman made use of the little box, fig. 4. formed of an elliptical plate, so bended through the centre that the opposite sides become parallel, and are joined round by a plate equal in breadth to *c c*. Such a box collects the moisture of the breath as well as the sphere, and is besides attended with the advantage of a compressed figure and smaller circumference. The aperture *b* is somewhat conical, and hollowed out of the solid piece; and has no margin turned inward, lest the efflux of the fluid collected after long blowing, or the cleansing of the internal parts, should in any degree be prevented. The tube, fig. 5. is very small, and its shorter conical end *e e* exactly fitted to the aperture *f*, so that no air can escape except through the orifice *g*. Many of those tubes should be provided with orifices of different diameters, to be applied on different occasions: the orifice *g* itself ought to be smooth and circular, otherwise the cone of flame hereafter to be mentioned will be divided. The bands *b b*, fig. 3, and *i i*, fig. 5. prevent the conical apices, *aa*, *ee*, from being thrust in too far, and also serve another purpose; for when these apices are, by repeated attrition, at last so much diminished as to fall out spontaneously, by filing away a little of the bands they may again be made tight.

(4.) BLOW-PIPE, METHOD OF USING THE. The greatest difficulty in the use of the blow-pipe is the supplying it with a constant stream of air by the breath; for to such as are unaccustomed to it, it appears a contradiction to think of blowing a stream of air out by the mouth, at the same time that we are drawing it in by the nostrils to supply the necessary functions of respiration. An uninterrupted stream of air, however, is absolutely necessary; and "to succeed in this operation, (says Sir Forbern) without inconvenience, some labour and practice are necessary." The whole art, however, consists in this, that while the air is inspired through the nostrils, that which is contained in the mouth be forced out through the tube by the compression of the cheeks. To some persons this is extremely difficult; but frequent trials will establish the habit; so that a continual stream of air can be supplied for a quarter of an hour or more, without any other inconvenience than the lassitude of the lips compressing the tube. A very great and obvious improvement, however, is still suggested by Dr Berkenhout, viz. to apply the tube to the wind-bag of a bagpipe; which being first blown full, may easily be kept so; and being compressed by the arm, will produce a blast either strong or weak as we have a mind. It will be a still farther improvement to supply this bag by means of a small bellows instead of blowing into it with the mouth: for thus the air will be more free from moisture, and also fitter for the support of flame, in other respects; as there is always a considerable quantity, of fixed air produced at every respiration, which, according to that quantity, must unfit the air for keeping up the flame, and consequently render the heat less intense. With regard to the flame proper to be chosen, Mr Bergman directs a slender candle, either of wax or tallow, fig. 6. with a cotton wick, *k* *l*. The burned top must be cut at such a length, that the remainder may be bent a little, *l* *m*. The orifice, *g* fig. 5. is to be held above and near to this arch, perpendicular to, *l* *m* fig. 6. and the air equally expressed. The flame being forced to one side by the violence of the blast, exhibits two distinct figures; the internal figure, *l* *n*, conical, blue, and well defined; at the apex of this, *n*, the most violent heat is excited; the external flame, *l* *o*, brownish, vague, and indetermined; which is spoiled of its phlogiston by the surrounding atmosphere, and occasions much less heat at its extremity, *o*, than the interior flame does.

(5.) BLOW-PIPES, CONSTRUCTION, &c. OF. Dr Black and all other eminent chemists greatly recommend the use of the blow-pipe for chemical experiments on minerals. The construction recommended by him differs not from that already described; only he says, that it may be made of tin, a cheaper material than silver; though formerly they were made of glass. The small stream of air issuing from the extremity of the tube, being more intimately mixed with the flame, and agitated with it, occasions a more complete consumption of the vapour arising from the candle, and makes it produce much more heat; so that any small body exposed to the extremity of the flame is heated to a surprising degree. Several

artists who work in metals, as the goldsmiths, &c. find this instrument useful in soldering pieces of metal together; and it is also used by the chemists in examining the effects of violent heat upon small bodies. Some of the artists who use it much, supply the stream of air with a pair of bellows placed under the table, with a pipe rising up through it, and to which the blow-pipe is fixed. In the examination of ores, the more simple instrument is preferred; and by a little practice it is easy to blow a continued stream of air with the mouth, by keeping it always full, and drawing in the air by the nostrils, which answers the same purpose as the upper part of a double bellows. Mr Cronstedt used the blow-pipe much in making the experiments on which his system of mineralogy is founded, blowing air through a bit of charcoal; and though the specimens are small, we can see the changes they undergo as well as if they were larger; and the eye can be assisted by a magnifying glass. The reason of the intense heat produced by the blow-pipe is, that in the ordinary way of burning, the air acts only upon the external surface of the fuel, so that it is not completely inflamed. The blow-pipe used by Mr Cronstedt is composed of two parts; and this for the facility both of making, carrying it along, and cleaning it in the inside when necessary. The two parts are represented separate, fig. 1. and 2; the figure of the instrument, when these are put together, may be easily conceived. The globe *a*, fig. 2. is hollow, and made on purpose to condense the vapours, which are always in the blow-pipe when it has been used some time: if this globe was not there, the vapours would go directly with the wind out into the flame, and thereby cool the assay. The hole in the small end *b*, through which the wind comes out, ought not to be larger than the size of the finest wire. This hole may now and then happen to be stopped up by something coming into it, so as to hinder the force of the wind: one ought therefore to have a piece of the finest wire, to clear it with when required; and in order to have this wire the better at hand, it may be fastened round the blow-pipe, in such manner as is represented in fig. 1.: *c* is the wire fastened round the blow-pipe, and afterward drawn through a small hole at *e*, made in the ring *f*, to keep it more steady. This instrument should neither be made so large as to require too much wind, nor so small as to be too soon filled with it. The canal throughout the pipe, but particularly the hole at the small end, must be made very smooth, so that there be no inequalities in it: else the wind will be divided, and consequently the flame made double. That blow-pipe is to be reckoned the best, through which can be formed the longest and most pointed flame from off a common sized candle. These blow-pipes are commonly made of brass or silver. There are two different kinds of matter made use of for the support of those substances usually examined by the blow-pipe: the one is charcoal of fir, or beech, cut to the form of a parallelopiped; the other a silver or, which is better, a golden spoon, fitted with a wooden handle. The former is generally used excepting where phlogiston is to be avoided, or the subject of examination is apt to be absorbed





the charcoal. The golden spoon, fig. 7. should not be large, as the bulk of the support prevents the heat from being raised to a proper degree. To prevent the fine light particles from being carried off by the blast, a small cavity should be hollowed out in the charcoal; in which, being partly protected by another smaller piece of charcoal, they may be exposed to the apex of the flame. Were it possible to procure a sufficient quantity of dephlogisticated air, experiments with the blow-pipe could be rendered still more important than they are, as we might by this means be able to fuse and vitrify substances *per se*, which we are now scarce able to do with the most powerful fluxes. The difficulty of procuring this kind of air, however, has as yet, in a great measure, excluded the use of it from chemistry, though M. le Rœad, in a letter to the editor of the *Journal de Physique* for February 1787, proposes, instead of blowing through the tube, to adapt to the wide end of it a leathern bag, the size of an ox's bladder, filled with pure air. Were this bag made to communicate, by means of a pair of small bellows, with a reservoir containing a considerable quantity of this dephlogisticated air, there is no doubt that many chemical operations might by its means be very advantageously performed; and we are already assured, that, by the use of this kind of air, platina itself may be melted. As dephlogisticated air, however, has not yet come into use, we can only expect such effects as may be produced by a violent blast of the common atmospheric air; and for this purpose we must accommodate ourselves with proper fluxes. See FLUX.

* **BLOWPOINT.** *n. s.* A child's play, perhaps like *passion*.—

Shortly boys shall not play
At spangcounter or *blowpoint*, but shall pay
Tall to some courtier. *Donne.*

* **BLOWTH.** *n. s.* [from *blow*.] Bloom, or blossom.—Ambition and covetousness being but green, and newly grown up, the seeds and effects were as yet but potential, and in the *blowth* and bud. *Racine.*

* **BLOWZE.** *n. s.* A ruddy fat-faced wench.

* **BLOWZY.** *adj.* [from *blowze*.] Sun burnt; rich coloured.

BLOXHAM, two villages; 1. in Lincolnshire, near Stamford; 2. in Oxfordshire, near Banbury.

BLOXWICH, a village in Staffordshire, N. W. of Wallall.

BLOXWORTH, a town in Dorsetshire, 4 m. E. of Bere.

(1.) * **BLUBBER.** *n. s.* [See **BLOB**.] The part of a whale that contains the oil.

(2.) **BLUBBER** is the name of the fat of large sea animals, as well as of whales, whereof train-oil is made. It is properly the *adeps* of the animal: it lies immediately under the skin, and over the muscular flesh. In the porpoise it is firm and full of fibres, and invests the body about an inch thick. In the whale, its thickness is ordinarily six inches; but about the under lip, it is 2 or 3 feet thick. The whole quantity yielded by one of these animals ordinarily amounts to 40 or 50, sometimes 80 cwt. or even more. The use of the blubber to the animal seems to be partly to poise the body,

and render it equiponderant to the water; partly to keep off the water at some distance from the blood, the immediate contact whereof would be apt to chill it; and partly also for the same use that clothes serve us, to keep the fish warm, by reflecting or reverberating the hot steams of the body, and so redoubling the heat; since all fat bodies are, by experience, found less sensible of the impressions of cold than lean ones. Its use in trade and manufactures is to furnish train-oil, which it does by boiling down. Formerly this was performed ashore, in the country where the whales were caught: but of late the fishers do not go ashore; they bring the blubber home stowed in casks, and boil it down here.

(3.) **BLUBBER**, SEA. See **MEDUSA** and **URTICA**.

(1.) * **To BLUEBER.** *v. a.* To swell the cheeks with weeping.—Fair streams represent unto me my *blubber'd* face; let tears procure your stay. *Sidney.*—

The wild wood gods arriv'd in the place,
There find the virgin doleful, desolate
With ruffled raiment, and fair *blubber'd* face,
As her outrageous foe had left her late.

Fairy Queen.

Tir'd with the search, not finding what she seeks,

With cruel blows she pounds her *blubber'd* cheeks. *Dryden.*

(2.) * **To BLUBBER.** *v. n.* [from the noun.] To weep in such a manner as to swell the cheeks.—

Even so lies she

Blubb'ring and weeping, weeping and *blubb'ring*.

Shakesp. Romeo and Juliet.

—A thief came to a boy that was *blubbering* by the side of a well, and asked what he cried for, *L'Estrange.*—

Soon as Glumdalclitch mis'd her pleasing care,

She wept, she *blubber'd*, and she tore her hair. *Swift.*

* **BLUBBERED.** *particip. adj.* [from *To blubber*.] Swelled; big; applied commonly to the lip. Thou sing with him, thou booby! never pipe Was so profan'd, to touch that *blubber'd* lip. *Dryden.*

* **BLUDGEON.** *n. s.* A short stick, with one end loaded, used as an offensive weapon.

(1.) * **BLUE.** *adj.* [*blaw*, Sax. *bleu*, Fr.] One of the seven original colours.—

There's gold, and here,

My *bluest* veins to kifs; a hand that kings
Have lipt and trembled kissing. *Shakespeare.*
Where fires thou find'st unrak'd, and hearths
unswept,

There pinch the maids as *blue* as bilberry. *Shak.*
O coward conscience! how dost thou afflict
me?

The lights burn *blue*.—Is it not dead midnight?
Cold fearful drops stand on my trembling flesh. *Shakespeare.*

Why does one climate, and one soil endue
The blushing poppy with a crimson hue;
Yet leave the lily pale, and tinge the violet *blue*? *Prior.*

—There was scarce any other colour sensible besides red and *blue*; only the *blues*, and principally the second *blue*, inclined a little to green. *Newton.*

(2.) BLUE is one of the 7 colours into which the rays of light divide when refracted through a glass prism.—For an account of the particular structure of bodies by which they appear of a blue colour, see CHROMATICS.—The principal blues used in painting are Prussian blue, bice, Saunders blue, azure, or smalt, verditer, &c. for the preparation of which, see COLOUR-MAKING.—In dyeing, the principal ingredients for giving a blue colour, are indigo and woad. See DYEING.

(3.) BLUE, in geography, a small river of the United States, in the North Western Territory. It rises near the head of Silver Creek, and after running S. W. for several miles, turns S. by E. and falls into the Ohio about 30 miles below the river Salt. It is 20 yards wide at its mouth.

To BLUE, *v. a.* To make of a blue colour; to give a bluish cast. *A/b.*

BLUE ASHES, [*Cendre bleu*, Fr. by corruption, Sanders blue,] are much used in water-colours, and some are very lively; but in oil they grow greenish, being of the nature of verdigrise. They are found in the form of a soft stone, in places where there are copper mines, and water only is used in levigating them, to reduce them to a fine powder. This kind of blue ought to be used in works to be seen by candle light, as in scene painting; for though a great deal of white is mixed with it, it appears very beautiful, notwithstanding it has a greenish cast.

BLUE, AZURE. See AZURE, § 1 & 2.

BLUE BICE. See BICE, § 1 & 2.

BLUE BIRD. See MOTACILLA.

(1.) * BLUEBOTTLE. *n. f.* [*cyaneus*; from *blue* and *bottle*.] 1. A flower of the bell shape; a species of *bottleflower*.—If you put *bluebottles*, or other blue flowers, into an ant-hill, they will be stained with red: because the ants thrust their stings, and instil into them their stinging liquor. *Ray.* 2. A fly with a large blue belly.—

Say, fire of insects, mighty Sol,

A fly upon the chariot-pole

Cries out, What *blue-bottle* alive

Did ever with such fury drive? *Prior.*

(2.) BLUE-BOTTLE, in botany. See CYANUS.

BLUE-CAP. See BLEW-CAP.

BLUE COLOUR OF THE SKY. See SKY.

* BLUE-EYED. *adj.* [from *blue* and *eye*.] Having blue eyes.—

Rise then, fair *blue-ey'd* maid, rise and discover
Thy silver brow, and meet thy golden lover.

Cryshaw.

Nor to the temple was she gone, to move,
With prayers, the *blue-ey'd* progeny of Jove.

Dryden.

BLUE, FLANDERS, is a colour seldom used but in landscapes, being apt to turn green. The French call it *cendre verte*, or green ashes.

BLUE FISH. See CORYPHÆNA.

* BLUEHAIRD. *adj.* [from *blue* and *hair*.] Having blue hair.—

This place,

The greatest and the best of all the main,

The quarters to his *blue-hair'd* deities. *Milton.*

BLUE-HILLS, a post town of the United States, in the district of Maine, and county of Hancock, E. of the Penobscot; 344 miles from Boston, and 624 from Philadelphia.

BLUE JAPAN, RECEIPT FOR MAKING. Take gum-water, and white lead a sufficient quantity; grind them well upon a porphyry: then take isinglass size, and the finest and best smalt, sufficient quantities; mix them well, and add, of the white-lead, before ground, so much as may give it a sufficient body. Mix all these together to the consistence of a paint.

BLUE-JOHN, among miners, a kind of mineral which is fabricated into vases and other ornamental figures. It is of the same quality with the cubical spar, with respect to its fusibility in the fire. It loses its colour, and becomes white in a moderate heat: the weight of a cubic foot of the bluest kind is 3180 ounces, and that of the least blue is 3140 ounces. This substance began first to be used about 27 years ago at Onin mine in Derbyshire, where the greatest quantities are still found. The largest pieces are sold for 9 l. a ton, the middle-sized for 6 l. and the least for 50 s.

* BLUELY. *adv.* [from *blue*.] With a blue colour.—

This 'squire he drop'd his pen full soon,

While as the light burnt *blue*ly.

Swift.

BLUE-MANTLE, in heraldry, the title of a pursuivant at arms.

(1.) BLUE MOUNTAIN, a high and extensive ridge of the APPALACHIAN mountains, which is about 4000 feet high, and extends through the N. parts of New Jersey into Pennsylvania, as far as the Susquehanna. See ALLEGANY, and AMERICA, § 42.

(2.) BLUE MOUNTAIN. See CAIRNGORM.

* BLUENESS. *n. f.* [from *blue*.] The quality of being blue.—In a moment our liquor may be deprived of its *blueness*, and restored to it again, by the affusion of a few drops of liquours. *Boyle on Colours.*

BLUE NUNS, [*filles blues*,] a title of those of the order of the annunciation. See ANNUNCIADA.

BLUE, PRUSSIAN, or BERLIN BLUE, is considerably in use among painters, though inferior to the ultramarine blue. It is a modern invention, and was discovered by accident, about the beginning of this century. A chemist of Berlin, having successively thrown upon the ground several liquors from his laboratory, was surprised to see it suddenly stained with a most beautiful colour. Recollecting the liquors he had thrown on each other, he made a similar mixture in a vessel, and produced the same colour. He did not publish his process, but prepared and sold his *blue*, which was substituted for *ultramarine*. The account of it was first published in the Berlin Memoirs, 1710; but without the description of its process. See CHEMISTRY, INDEX.

BLUE RIVER. See AZUL, and BLUE, N° 3.

BLUE, SAXON, a dye made by dissolving indigo in oil of vitriol, by which the indigo becomes of a much more lively colour, and is extended to such a degree, that it will go very far in dyeing. See COLOUR-MAKING.

BLUE, STONE OR POWDER, used in washing of linen, is the same with smalt, either in the lump or powdered.

BLUE, TURNSOLE, is used in painting on wood. It is made of the seed of that plant, by boiling 4 ounces

ances of turnsole in a pint and a half of water wherein lime has been slacked.

BLUE, ULTRAMARINE, [*q. d.* beyond sea, from its being first brought into Europe out of India, and Persia,] one of the richest and most valuable colours used in painting, is prepared from Lapis Lazuli, by first calcining the stone in an iron pot; then grinding it very fine on porphyry; then mixing it up with a paste made of wax, pitch, mastic, turpentine, and oil; and at last washing the paste well in clear water, to separate the colouring part from the rest, which precipitates to the bottom, in form of a subtile, beautiful, blue powder. The water is then poured off, and the powder is dried in the sun.

* **BLUFF**, *adj.* Big; surly; blustering.—

Like those whom Nature did to crowns prefer,
Black-brow'd and *bluff*, like Homer's Jupiter.

Dryden.

BLUFF-HEADED, among sailors, is applied to a ship that has an upright stern.

(1.) **BLUING**, the act or art of communicating a blue colour to bodies otherwise destitute thereof. Landresses blue their linsens with smalt; dyers their stuffs and wools with woad or indigo.

(2.) **BLUING OF IRON**, a method of beautifying iron metal sometimes practised; for mourning buckles, swords, and the like. The manner is this: Take a piece of grind-stone or whet-stone, and rub hard on the work, to take off the black rust from it: then heat it in the fire; and as it grows hot, the colour changes by degrees, coming first to light, then to a darker gold colour, and lastly to a blue. Sometimes also they grind indigo and salad-oil together; and rub the mixture on the work with a woollen rag, while it is heating, leaving it to cool of itself.

(3.) **BLUING OF OTHER METALS** is performed by heating them in the fire, till they assume a blue colour; particularly practised by gilders, who heat their metals before they apply the gold and blue leaf. Among sculptors, bluing a figure of brass means the heating it, to prepare it for the application of the gold leaf.

* **BLuish**, *adj.* [from *blue*.] Blue in a small degree.—Side sleeves and skirts, round underborne, with a *bluish* tinsel. *Shakespeare*—

At last, as far as I could cast my eyes
Upon the sea, somewhat, methought, did rise
Like *bluish* mists. *Dryden.*

Here, in full light, the russet plains extend,
There, wrapt in clouds, the *bluish* hills ascend.

Pope.

* **BLuishNESS**, *n. f.* [from *blue*.] A small degree of blue colour.—I could make, with crude copper, a solution without the *bluishness* that is wont to accompany its vulgar solutions. *Boyle.*

BLUNDASHELAY, a village in Dorsetshire, in the parish of Whitchurch.

* **BLUNDER**, *n. f.* [from the verb.] A gross or careless mistake.—It was the advice of Schomberg to an historian, that he should avoid being particular in the drawing up of an army, and other circumstances in the day of battle; for that he had observed notorious *blunders* and absurdities committed by writers not conversant in the art of war. *Madison.*—It is our own ignorance that makes

us charge those works of the Almighty as defects or *blunders*, as ill-contrived or ill-made. *Derham.*

(1.) * **To BLUNDER**, *v. a.* To mix foolishly or blindly.—He seems to understand no difference between titles of respect and acts of worship; between expressions of esteem and devotion; between religious and civil worship; for he *blunders* and confounds all these together; and whatever proves one, he thinks, proves all the rest. *Stillingfleet.*

(2.) * **To BLUNDER**, *v. n.* [*blunderen*, Dutch; perhaps from *blind*.] 1. To mistake grossly; to err very widely; to mistake stupidly. It is a word implying contempt.—It is one thing to forget matter of fact, and another to *blunder* upon the reason of it. *L'Estrange.*—The grandes and giants in knowledge, who laughed at all besides themselves as barbarous and insignificant, yet *blundered*, and stumbled, about their principal concern. *South.* 2. To flounder; to stumble.—

He who now to sense, now nonsense leaning,
Means not, but *blunders* round about a meaning. *Pope.*

(1.) * **BLUNDERBUSS**, *n. f.* [from *blunder*.] A gun that is charged with many bullets, so that, without any exact aim, there is a chance of hitting the mark.—There are *blunderbusses* in every loop-hole, that go off of their own accord at the squeaking of a fiddle. *Dryden.*

(2.) **BLUNDERBUSES** are generally made short and have wide bores.

* **BLUNDERER**, *n. f.* [from *blunder*.] A man apt to commit blunders; a blockhead.—Another sort of judges will decide in favour of an author, or will pronounce him a mere *blunderer*, according to the company they have kept. *Watts.*

* **BLUNDERHEAD**, *n. f.* [from *blunder* and *head*.] A stupid fellow.—At the rate of this thick-skulled *blunderhead*, every plow-jobber shall take upon him to read upon divinity. *L'Estrange.*

BLUNDESDON, a village in Suffolk, N. W. of Leostoff.

BLUND'S COURT, in Oxfordshire, S. W. of Henley.

BLUNGOED, a town in Monmouthshire, 6 miles N. W. of Abergavenny.

BLUNHAM, in Bedfordshire, 4 miles W. of Potton.

BLUNKET, *adj. obs.* Light blue. *Bailey.*

BLUNSDON, BROAD, } 3 villages in Wiltsh.
BLUNSDON-BURY, and } between Cricklade
BLUNSDON-ST ANDREWS, } and Berkshire.

(1.) * **BLUNT**, *adj.* [etymology uncertain.] 1. Dull on the edge or point; not sharp.—Thanks to that beauty, which can give an edge to the *bluntest* swords. *Sidney.*—If the iron be *blunt*, and he do not whet the edge, then must he put to more strength. *Eccles.* 2. Dull in understanding; not quick.—

Valentine being gone, I'll quickly cross,
By some sly trick, *blunt* Thurio's dull proceeding.

Shakespeare.

3. Rough; not delicate; not civil.—Whitehead, a grave divine, was of a *blunt* stoical nature; one day the queen happened to say, I like thee the better, because thou livest unmarried. He answered; Madam, I like you the worse. *Bacon.*—The mayor of the town came to seize them in!

Blunt manner, alledging a warrant to stop them.
Wotton.—

'Tis not enough your counsel still be true ;
Blunt truths more mischiefs than nice falsehoods
do. Pope.

4. Abrupt ; not elegant.—To use too many circumstances, ere one come to the matter, is wearisome ; to use none at all, is *blunt*. Bacon. 5. Hard to penetrate. This use is improper.—I find my heart hardened, and *blunt* to new impressions ; it will scarce receive or retain affections of yesterday. Pope.

(2.) BLUNT, *n. f.* in fencing, a foil.

* To BLUNT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To dull the edge or point.—

So sick'n waning moons too near the sun,
And *blunt* their crescents on the edge of day.

Dryden.

Earthly limbs and gross allay,
Blunt not the beams of heav'n, and edge of day.

Dryden.

He had such things to urge against our marriage,
As, now declar'd, would *blunt* my sword in battle,

And daftardize my courage. Dryden.

2. To repress, or weaken any appetite, desire, or power of the mind.—

Blunt not his love ;
Nor lose the good advantage of his grace,
By seeming cold. Shakespeare.

BLUNTISH, *adj.* Somewhat blunt.

* BLUNTLY, *adv.* [from *blunt*.] 1. In a blunt manner ; without sharpness. 2. Coarsely ; plainly ; roughly.—I can keep honest counsels, marr a curious tale in telling it, and deliver a plain message *bluntly*. Shakespeare.—

A man of honest blood,
Who to his wife, before the time assign'd
For childbirth came, thus *bluntly* spoke his mind.

Dryden.

* BLUNTNESS, *n. f.* [from *blunt*.] 1. Want of edge or point ; dulness ; obtuseness ; want of sharpness.—

The crafty boy, that had full oft essay'd
To pierce my stubborn and resisting breast,
But still the *bluntness* of his darts betray'd.

Suckling.

2. Coarseness ; roughness of manners ; rude sincerity.—His silence grew wit, his *bluntness* integrity, his beastly ignorance, virtuous simplicity. Sidney.—Manage disputes with civility ; whence some readers will be assisted to discern a difference betwixt *bluntness* of speech and strength of reason. Boyle.—

False friends, his deadliest foes, could find no way,

But shows of honest *bluntness* to betray. Dryd.
BLUNTSHAM, a village in Huntingdonshire,
S. of Erith.

* BLUNTWITTED, *adj.* [from *blunt* and *wit*.] Dull ; stupid.—

Bluntwitted lord, ignoble in demeanour.
Shakespeare.

* BLUR. *n. f.* [*borra*, Span. a blot, Skinner.] A blot ; a stain ; a spot.—Man, once fallen, was nothing but a great *blur* ; a total universal pellucidity. South.

* To BLUR. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To blot ; to obscure ; without quite effacing.—

Such an act,
That *blurs* the grace and blush of modesty,
Calls virtue hypocrite. Shakespeare.

Long is it since I saw him ;
But time hath nothing *blurr'd* those lines of favour,

Which then he wore. Shakespeare.

—Concerning innate principles, I desire thee men to say, whether they can, or cannot, by education and custom, be *blurr'd* and blotted out? 2. To blot ; to stain ; to sully.—

Sarcasms may eclipse thine own,
But cannot *blur* my lost renown. Hudibras.

BLURHICH, a district in Dumbartonshire.

* To BLURT. *v. a.* [without etymology.] To speak inadvertently ; to let fly without thinking ; commonly with *out* intensive.—Others cast out bloody and deadly speeches at random, and cannot hold, but *blurt out* those words, which afterwards they are forced to eat. Hakewill.—They had some belief of a Deity, which they, upon surprisal, thus *blurt out*. Cow. of the Tongue.—

They blush if they *blurt out*, ere well aware,
A swan is white, or Queensbury is fair. Young.

BLURTON, a village in Staffordshire, 2 miles S. E. of Newcastle under Lyne.

(1.) * BLUSH. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. The colour in the cheeks, raised by shame or confusion.—

The virgin's wish, without her fears, impart,
Excuse the *blush*, and pour out all the heart.

Pope.

2. A red or purple colour. 3. Sudden appearance ; a signification that seems barbarous, yet used by good writers.—All purely identical propositions, obviously, and at first *blush*, appear to contain no certain instruction in them. Locke.

(2.) BLUSH OF A BUSINESS, is one of the many bombastic metaphors, which modern affectation has of late introduced into the English language. The late Prof. BEATTIE has justly exposed this, along with many similar fashionable innovations, in his humorous dialogue between Dean Swift, a London bookseller, and Mercury. After introducing the bookseller as "speaking English of the very newest and best pattern," he makes the dean apply to Mercury "to interpret some of this learned person's gibberish :"—whereupon the god, among other directions "to make English as well nearly as this learned bookseller," tells him,—"Always when you can, prefer figurative to proper expression, and be not nice in the choice of your figures, nor give yourself much trouble about their consistency."—Thus "instead of—He spoke an hour on various topics, you must say, He was an hour upon his legs, and went into a variety of matter : an idiom which is now very common and much admired, because it is figurative, verbose, and ambiguous : three qualities of style, which are now, among fashionable writers and speakers, indispensable. Instead of—He undervalues his enemies, say, He sits no more by those who are inimical to him.—Instead of—At first view, you must say, At the first *Blush* of the business," &c.

(1.) * To BLUSH. *v. a.* To make red. Not used.—



Fig. 6. BLOCK of the IRON BRIDGE.
at SUNDERLAND.



PLATE.

Fig. 3.
MONOCEROS the Unicorn Pill.



Fig. 8. *Unicorn Pill.*
size.  

ed persons; now called *Bua*, an island in the Adriatic, joined to the continent and to Tragurium, now *Tran*, by a bridge.

(II.) BOA, in zoology, a genus of serpents, belonging to the order of amphibia. Mr Chambers says, the name is derived from some of the species following cows and sucking their teats. The characters are, that the belly and tail are both furnished with scuta. Their bite is not poisonous. See SERPENT. There are 10 species, viz.

1. BOA CANINA, has 203 scuta on the belly, and 77 on the tail; it is greenish, and variegated with white belts. It is a native of America, lodges in the hollow trunk of trees, and is about two feet long.

2. BOA CENCHRIA, has 263 scuta on the belly, and 57 on the tail. It is of a yellow colour, with white eye-like spots. It is a native of Surinam.

3. BOA CONSTRICTOR, has 240 scuta on the belly, and 60 on the tail. This is an immense animal: it often exceeds 36 feet in length; the body is very thick, of a dusky white colour, and its back is interspersed with 24 large pale irregular spots; the tail is of a darker colour; and the sides are beautifully variegated with pale spots. Besides the whole body is interspersed with small brown spots. See Pl. XLI. fig. 9. The head is covered with small scales, and has no broad laminae betwixt the eyes, but has a black belt behind them. It wants the large dog fangs. The tongue is fleshy, and very little forked. Above the eyes, on each side, the head rises high. The scales of this serpent are all very small, roundish and smooth. The tail does not exceed one 8th of the whole length of the animal. The Indians, who adore this monstrous animal, use the skin for cloaths, on account of its smoothness and beauty. There are several of these skins of the above dimensions preserved, and to be seen in the different museums of Europe, particularly in the library and botanic garden of Upsal in Sweden, which has of late been greatly enriched by count Grillinborg. The flesh of this serpent is eat by the Indians and the negroes of Africa. Piso, Margraave, and Kemper, give the following account of its method of living and catching its prey. It frequents caves and thick forests, where it conceals itself, and suddenly darts out upon strangers, wild beasts, &c. When it chooses a tree for its watching place, it supports itself by twisting its tail round the trunk or a branch, and darts down upon sheep, goats, tigers, or any animal that comes within its reach. When it lays hold of animals, especially any of the larger kinds, it twists itself several times round their body, and by the vast force of its circular muscles bruises and breaks all their bones. After the bones are broke, it licks the skin of the animal all over, besmearing it with a glutinous kind of saliva. This operation is intended to facilitate deglutition, and is a preparation for swallowing the whole animal. If it be a stag, or any horned animal, it begins to swallow the feet first, and gradually sucks in the body, and last of all the head. When the horns happen to be large, it has been observed to go about for a time with them sticking out from its mouth. When the animal digests, the horns putrify and fall off. This serpent has swallowed a stag or a

tiger, it is unable for some days to move; the hunters who are well acquainted with this circumstance, always take this opportunity of destroying it. When irritated, it makes a loud hissing noise. It is said to cover itself over with leaves in such places as stags or other animals frequent, in order to conceal itself from their sight, and that it may the more easily lay hold of them. One of them which was killed in the reign of Claudius, was found with a child whole in its belly.

4. BOA CONTORTRIX, has 150 scuta on the belly, and 40 on the tail: the head is broad, very convex, and has poison-bags in the mouth, but no fang, for which reason its bite is not reckoned poisonous: the body is ash-coloured, interspersed with large dusky spots; and the tail is about one 3d of the length of the body. This serpent is found in Carolina.

5. BOA ENYDRIS, has 270 scuta on the belly, and 105 on the tail. The colour is a dusky white, and the teeth of the lower jaw very long. It is a native of America.

6. BOA HIPNALE is of a dull yellow colour, and is found in Asia. It has 179 scuta on the belly, and 120 on the tail.

7. BOA HORTULANA, has 290 scuta on the belly, and 128 on the tail. It is of a pale colour, interspersed with livid wedge-like spots. It is a native of America.

8. BOA MURINA, has 254 scuta on the belly, and 65 on the tail. The colour of it is a light blue, and round spots on the back. It is a native of America.

9. BOA OPHRIAS, has 281 scuta on the belly, and 64 on the tail; the colour is nearly the same with that of the constrictor, (N. 3.) but browner. The place where this serpent is to be found is not known.

10. BOA SCYTALE has 250 scuta on the belly, and 70 on the tail. The body is ash coloured and bluish, with round black spots on the back, and black lateral rings edged with white. It is a native of America; and, like the constrictor, (N. 3.) though not so long, twists itself about sheep, goats, &c. and swallows them whole.

BOADADA BASHAW, in the Turkish military orders, an officer of the janizaries, whose business it is to walk every day about the principal parts of the city, with a number of janizaries, to keep order, and to see that all things are regular, even to the drefs. This office is for 3 months, and from this the person is usually advanced to be a serach.

BOADICEA, or VOADICEA, a valiant British queen in the time of Nero the emperor, wife to Prasutagus king of the Iceni in Britain, who by his will left the emperor and his own daughters co-heirs to his great treasures, in expectation of procuring by that means Nero's protection for his family and people: but he was no sooner dead, than the emperor's officers seized all. Boadicea opposed these unjust proceedings; which was resented to such a pitch of brutality, that they ordered the lady to be publicly whipped, and her daughters to be ravished by the soldiers. The Britons took arms, to the number of 120,000, with Boadicea at their head, to shake off the Roman yoke; and made a general and bloody massacre of about

Fig. 6. BLOCK of the IRON BRIDGE.
SUNDERLAND.



PLATE,

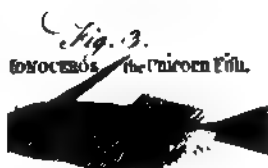
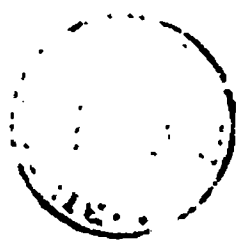


Fig. 8. *inthus.*

Fig. 10. BALÆNA MYSTICETUS. The whale. *E R.*

Fig. 9. *inthus.*



saeco Romans. The whole province of Britain would have been lost, if Suetonius Paulinus had not hastened from the isle of Mona to London, and with 10,000 men engaged the Britons. The battle was fought for a long time with great vigour and doubtful success, till at last victory inclined to the Romans. Boadicea, who had behaved with all the bravery imaginable, dispatched herself by poison, A. D. 61.

BOAE-ARUM. See BOA, N. I.

BOANERGES, [from בנ and נר, Syr. i. e. *bars of thunder,*] a title given by our Saviour to the apostles James and John.

(1.) * **BOAR.** *n. s.* [*bar*, Saxon; *beer*, Dutch.] The male swine.—

To fly the *boar*, before the *boar* pursues,
Were to incense the *boar* to follow us. *Shakes.*
She sped the *boar* away;
His eyeballs glare with fire, diffus'd with blood;
His neck shuts up a thickest thorny wood;
His bristled back a trench impal'd appears.
Dryden.

(2.) **BOAR.** See SUS.

(3.) **BOAR, WILD,** among huntsmen, has several names, according to its different ages: the first year, it is called a *pig of the faunder*; the second it is called a *bog*; the third, a *bog-steer*; and the fourth, a *boar*; when leaving the faunder, he is called a *jangler* or *sangler*. The boar generally lives to 25 or 30 years, if he escapes accidents. The time of rutting is in December, and lasts about 3 weeks. Boars feed on all sorts of fruits, and on the roots of many plants, particularly fern. When near the sea-coasts, they will descend to the shore and demolish the tenderer shell-fish in very great numbers. Their general places of rest are among the thickest bushes that can be found: and they are not easily put up out of them, but will stand the bay a long time. In April and May they sleep more sound, than at any other time of the year. This is therefore the successful time for taking them in the toils. When a boar is driven out of the thicket, he always goes from it, if possible, the same way by which he came to it; and when he is once up, he will never stop till he comes to some place of more security. If it happens that a faunder of them are found together, when any one breaks away, the rest all follow the same way. When the boar is hunted in the wood where he was bred, he will scarce ever be brought to bay; he will sometimes make towards the hunters to the noise of the dogs, but retires to the middle again, and usually dies or escapes. When a boar runs a-head, he will not be so easily put out of his way, by man or beast, till he has any strength left. He makes no noise nor crossings when chased. An old boar when wounded. The season for hunting the wild boar begins in September, and ends in November, when they go to rut. If it be a large boar, and one that has lain long at rest, he must be hunted with a great number of dogs, and those dogs will keep close to him; and the huntsman, with his spear, should always be riding in among them, and charging the boar as often as he can, to discourage him: such a boar as this, with 3 or 6 couples of dogs, will run to the first

place of shelter, and there stand at bay, and make at them as they attempt to come up with him. There ought always to be relays also set of the best and staunchest hounds in the kennel; for if they are of young eager dogs, they will be apt to seize him, and be killed or spoiled before the rest come up. Collars with bells about the dogs necks are a great security for them; for the boar will not so soon strike at them when they have these, but will rather run before them. The huntsmen generally kill the boar with their swords or spears: but great caution is necessary in making the blows; for he is very apt to catch them upon his snout or tusks; and if wounded and not killed, he will attack the huntsman in the most furious manner. The places to give the wound with the spear is either between the eyes in the middle of the forehead, or in the shoulder; both these places make the wound mortal. When this animal makes at the hunter, there is nothing for it but courage and address; if he flies, he is sure to be overtaken and killed. If the boar comes straight up, he is to be received at the point of the spear: but if he makes doubles and windings, he is to be watched very cautiously, for he will attempt getting hold of the spear in his mouth; and if he does, nothing can save the huntsman, but another person attacking him behind: he will on this attack the second person, and the first must then attack him again: two people will thus have enough to do with him; and were it not for the forks of the boar-spears that make it impossible to press forward upon them, the huntsman who gives the creature his death's wound would seldom escape falling a sacrifice to his revenge. The modern way of boar-hunting is generally to dispatch the creature by all the huntsmen striking him at once: but the ancient Roman way was, for a person on foot, armed with a spear, to keep the creature at bay; and in this case the boar would run of himself upon the spear to come at the huntsman, and push forward till the spear pierced him through. The hinder claws of a boar are called *guards*. In the corn, he is said to *feed*; in the meadows or fallow-fields, to *root*, *worm*, or *fern*; in a close, to *graze*. The boar is farrowed with as many teeth as he will ever have; his teeth increasing only in bigness, not in number: among these there are 4 called *tushes*, or *tusks*; the two biggest of which do not hurt when he strikes, but serve only to whet the other two lowest, with which the beast defends himself, and frequently kills, as being greater and longer than the rest. These creatures in the West Indies are subject to the stone: few of them are absolutely free from it, yet scarce any of them have the stones of any considerable size. It is common to find a great number in the same bladder. They are usually of about a scruple weight, and are angular and regular, each having 5 angles. Among the ancient Romans, boar's flesh was a delicacy; a boar served up a whole dish of state. The boar was sometimes the military ensign of the Roman armies, in lieu of the eagle. Among physicians, a boar's bladder has been reputed a specific for the epilepsy. The tush of the wild boar still passes with some as of great efficacy in quinzies and pleurifies.

To BOAR, in the menage, is spoke of a horse when he shoots out his nose as high as his ears, and tosses his nose in the wind.

(I.) * **BOARD**. *n. f.* [*baurd*, Goth. *bræd*, Sax.]

1. A piece of wood of more length and breadth than thickness.—With the saw they sundred trees in *boards* and planks. *Raleigh*.—Every house has a *board* over the door, whereon is written the number, sex, and quality of the persons living in it. *Temple*.—

Go now, go trust the wind's uncertain breath,
Remov'd four fingers from approaching death;
Or seven at most, when thickest is the *board*.

Dryden.

2. A table. [from *burdd*, Welch.]—

Soon after which, three hundred lords he flew,
Of British blood, all sitting at his *board*. *Four. 2.*

In bed he slept not, for my urging it;
At *board* he fed not, for my urging it. *Shak.*

I'll follow thee in fun'ral flames; when dead,
My ghost shall thee attend at *board* and bed.

Sir J. Denham.

—Cleopatra made Anthony a supper, which was sumptuous and royal; howbeit there was no extraordinary service upon the *board*. *Hakewill*.—

May ev'ry god his friendly aid afford;

Pan guard thy flock, and Ceres blest thy *board*.

Prior.

3. Entertainment; food. 4. A table at which a council or court is held.—Both better acquainted with affairs, than any other who sat then at that *board*. *Clarendon*. 5. An assembly seated at a table; a court of jurisdiction.—I wish the king would be pleased sometimes to be present at that *board*; it adds a majesty to it. *Bacon*. 6. The deck or floor of a ship; *on board* signifies in a ship.

Now *board* to *board* the rival vessels row,

The billows leave the skies, and ocean groans below.

Dryden.

—Our captain thought his ship in so great danger, that he confessed himself to a capuchin, who was *on board*. *Addison*.—He ordered his men to arm long poles with sharp hooks, wherewith they took hold of the tackling, which held the mainyard to the mast of their enemy's ship; then, rowing their own ship, they cut the tackling, and brought the mainyard by the *board*. *Arbutnot on Coins*.

(II.) **BOARD**, [*Bureau*,] a public office, where accounts are taken, payments ordered, and the like; such as the board of works, board of ordnance, board of treasury, &c.

(III.) **BOARD**, in architecture and commerce, a long piece of timber, sawed thin for building and several other purposes. See **TIMBER**. Deal boards are generally imported into England, ready sawed, because done cheaper, as we want saw-mills. *Clap-boards* are imported from Sweden and Dantzic; oak boards chiefly from Sweden and Holland; some from Dantzic. We also import white boards for shoemakers; mill and scale boards, &c. for divers artificers. Scale boards are a thinner sort, used for the covers of primers, thin boxes, &c. and are made with large planes.

(IV.) **BOARD**, in gaming, is applied to a machine, or frame, used in certain games, as a draught-board, a chess-board, &c.

(V.) **BOARD**, in mechanic arts, a table or bench,

whereon artificers perform their work; such as a work board, shop board, taylor's board, &c.

(VI.) **BOARD**, in the language of seamen, admits of various significations, according to the words conjoined with it. Thus,

1. **BOARD, A GOOD**. A ship is said to *make a good board*, when she gets up much to windward, or advances much at one tack and sails upon a straight line.

2. **BOARD, A LONG**, is when the ship stands a great way off, before she tacks.

3. **BOARD AND BOARD** is when two ships come so near as to touch one another, or when they lie side by side.

4. **BOARD, A SHORT**, is when she stands off a little.

5. **BOARD, BACK**, the same with **ASTERN**.

6. *To BOARD IT UP*, is to beat it up, sometimes upon one tack and sometimes upon another.

7. **BOARD, TO GO ON, OR TO GO ABOARD**, signifies to go into the ship.

8. **BOARD, TO MAKE A**, is to turn to windward and the longer your boards are, the more you work into the wind.

9. **BOARD, TO SLIP BY THE**, is to slip down by the ship's side.

10. **BOARD, WEATHER**, the windward side.

(VII. I.) **BOARD OF AGRICULTURE**, a public spirited Society, established by Act of Parliament 17th May 1793, and constituted by royal charter 23d August following, for the encouragement of Agriculture and Internal Improvement. See § 2.

(2.) **BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, ACCOUNT OF THE ORIGIN OF THE**. "The circumstances" (says Sir J. Sinclair, the president and founder of the excellent institution,) "which led to the establishment of a board, so likely to be of material service both to this country, and to society at large, cannot fail to be interesting, not only to the Members of that Board, but to the Public."—In enumerating these, Sir John mentions, that, "in 1791 he undertook an extensive journey through the most interesting parts of Europe, to obtain political information, to ascertain the state of other countries, and to discover every means, which had been sanctioned by the experience of other nations, that could be successfully introduced to the improvement of Great Britain:" that "in the course of that tour," (wherein he travelled 75 miles in 7½ months,) he became acquainted with the most distinguished authors, the ablest statesmen, and the most zealous patriots, that Europe could then boast of:" and that he "returned full of ardour, to establish, in his own country, all the beneficial institutions, which were scattered elsewhere; and to make this island the centre of various improvements of which political society was capable, more especially those of an agricultural nature. But that circumstances having occasioned a coldness with the minister, he found that any attempt, to carry such measures into effect, was not likely to be successful in parliament and thence was under the necessity of waiting for a more favourable opportunity." Sir John informs us, that when he published the 2d volume of his History of the Revenue, he "had intended to have concluded it with a chapter on the political circumstances

circumstances of the country ; but after taking all possible pains to become master of the subject ; all the information he could obtain was extremely defective ; and he then saw the necessity of forming some institution, for the express purpose of collecting useful political information, the public having felt the most serious inconveniences and losses, from information of that nature not being any where to be obtained." This suggested the idea of "beginning that useful and extensive work, *the Statistical Account of Scotland*, now nearly concluded in 10 vols. 8vo. and to the completion of which 900 individuals of intelligence and ability have contributed their assistance." About the same time, Sir John having received information respecting the celebrated wool of the Shetlands, and of the dangers to which their flocks were exposed, he was led, not only to lay a state of these facts before the Highland Society, who gave every assistance in their power, but to get a new society erected, entitled the **BRITISH WOOL SOCIETY**, for the special purpose of improving British wool. The business of that Society was carried on with such energy and success, that in summer 1792, "the greater part of the island had been surveyed, by persons skilled in the management of sheep, whose observations were circulated over the kingdom." It was in the preface to an account published by that Society of one of these tours, that Sir John first hinted at the establishment of a Board of Agriculture. After stating that "they had established many important facts ; that they had proved that the finest breeds of Spain or of England will thrive in the wildest of the Cheviot hills, and that very fine woolled breeds may be propagated in the most mountainous districts of Scotland : " he added, "But unless this object is thought worthy of public attention and encouragement ; *unless a BOARD OF AGRICULTURE is constituted*, for the sole purpose of superintending the improvement of the sheep and wool of the country and other objects connected, either with the cultivation or pasturage of the soil, the exertions of any private society must soon slacken, and its labours become useless and inefficient : whereas, under the protection of the government of the country, and the superintendence of such a board, properly constituted, (more especially if formed of persons, who *gratuitously* devoted their labours to promote such valuable and truly national interests,) every field would soon be cultivated to the best advantage, and every species of stock would soon be brought to their greatest possible perfection." Impressed with these ideas, Sir John returned to London in December 1792, resolved without farther delay to attempt the establishment of such a Board, although he says, "being at that time, in opposition to the minister, the prospect of succeeding was not very promising." See § 5.

BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, ADVANTAGES OF THE. On the 15th May 1793, Sir John Sinclair made his motion in parliament for the establishment of this Board ; which he introduced with a suitable speech, setting forth the great advantages that would arise from such an institution. "We had heard much (he said) of other sources of national prosperity, but we seem to forget that a nation could be permanently happy and power-

ful, that did not unite a judicious system of agriculture to the advantages of domestic manufacturing industry, and the benefits of foreign commerce."—"It is supposed, that there are 67 millions of acres in Britain, of which 7 millions are occupied with houses, roads, rivers, lakes, &c. There remained 60 millions, of which 5 millions only were employed in raising grain ; 25 millions were appropriated to pasturage, and there remained 30 millions either completely waste, or under a very defective system of husbandry. That was an object of astonishing importance. Disgraceful indeed it was, that nearly one half of the kingdom, which might furnish subsistence to above 10 millions of people, should remain in such a state." He then pointed out the advantages that would arise from the proposed establishment. "The stock of the farmer might be rendered infinitely more valuable, without requiring a greater quantity of food, or any additional care or expence." The additional value of black cattle, of which it is supposed there are 5 millions in the island, he estimated, at 20s. a-head, would add 5 millions per annum to the national wealth. There are at least 20 millions of sheep in Britain. By improving the fleece, 1s. per sheep might be added to the value of the wool, which would produce one million ; the manufacturer of the wool can treble the value ; hence an addition of other 3 millions per annum ; and the profits arising from improving the carcase would be still more considerable. "Great improvements might also be made in other kinds of stock. Great savings would arise by the use of improved instruments of husbandry, while by following judicious systems adapted to the different soils, ground would be cultivated at much less expence and with greater advantage. These improvements would furnish the means of healthful occupations to many thousands, almost millions of people, who, from the integrity of their private conduct, and the vigour of their constitutions, should as much as possible be multiplied." To secure these advantages, a Board of Agriculture was absolutely necessary, 1. As a general magazine for agricultural knowledge. 2. As the best means of collecting and circulating that knowledge, and exciting a spirit of experiment. 3. As the most certain method of establishing an extensive foreign correspondence, to procure the most speedy information of agricultural improvements and discoveries, in all quarters of the globe. 4. As a public body, capable of being entrusted with the privilege of franking, to render its correspondence less expensive. 5. As the only medium, through which any general improvement of stock could be expected, the authority and influence of a public board far surpassing the exertions of private societies, however active, in removing deep-rooted prejudices, and concentrating the knowledge of many individuals of different professions. And, 6. As the best means of obtaining a Statistical Account of England, and giving a view of the real situation of that country ; such as had already been nearly completed in Scotland, and which might soon be universally followed in other countries : "And thus the principles of political society, and the sources of national improvement, would be more completely ascertained, than in any for-

mer period of history." In way of contrast to these advantages, Sir J. Sinclair argued, "That when persons talked with raptures of the great wealth brought into this country by commerce, they did not consider that the nation in many cases lost as much by neglecting agriculture, as they gained by commerce; of which a stronger instance could not be given than this—that in the northern parts of England, in the course of last harvest (1792) grain to a very considerable amount, actually perished, for want of labourers to gather in the crop; all the hands in the neighbourhood being employed in manufactures." See farther § 5—7.

(4.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, CONSTITUTION OF THE. Without attempting to enumerate the privileges and powers granted by the royal charter, it is only necessary to mention here, that by that deed, the Board is appointed to consist of a President, Treasurer, Secretary, Under-Secretary, two or more surveyors, one or more clerks, with such other officers as may be necessary, and 30 ordinary members: besides the Abps. of Canterbury and York, the Lord Chancellor, or Lord keeper of the Great Seal, Lord President, Lord Privy Seal, Lord Treasurer, or first Commissioner of the Treasury, Lord High Admiral, or first Lord Commissioner of the Admiralty, the Bps. of London and Durham, the two Secretaries of State, the Master of Ordnance, the Speaker of the House of Commons, the President of the Royal Society, the Surveyor General of Woods and Forests, and the Surveyor of the Crown Lands, for the time being; who are all members *ex officio*. The annual election of Officers and Members takes place on the 25th of March, when 5 of the ordinary members go out, and 5 others are chosen. At all meetings of the Board 7 is a quorum for doing business, the president or his deputy being always one. The number of honorary members is unlimited.

(5.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, HISTORY OF THE. From the circumstances above-mentioned (§ 2.), Sir J. Sinclair's friends had so little hopes of his success in getting the Board established, that Mr Arthur Young, afterwards appointed Secretary to the Board, betted a copy of his *Annals of Agriculture* against a set of Sir John's *Statistical Account*, that he would not succeed. And when he afterwards informed him, that he had an appointment with Mr Pitt to explain the advantages of the measure, and that he ought to send his *Annals* to the binder, Mr Young wrote him—"When you come from Mr Pitt I shall have won the wager. Pray don't give Ministers more credit than they deserve. In Manufactures and Commerce, you may bet securely, but they *never did, and never will* do any thing for the plough. Your Board will be a *Board in the Moon*." Sir John, however, took every prudent measure to insure success. Mr Dundas early promised his assistance, notwithstanding their political differences; and Mr Pitt assured him, "that he would not oppose the measure, but that his support would depend that he judged was the sense of the house."

To satisfy the house of the beneficial tendency of the measure, Sir John, previous to his motion in parliament, (See § 3.) circulated a printed paper among the members, containing a plan of the

Board, its objects, advantages, (§ 3) and probable expences. Still, however, a few members, suspecting some deep scheme of corruption or ministerial influence to be at the bottom, opposed it vehemently; notwithstanding which it was carried by a majority of 75; 101 voting for it and 26 against it. Mr Sheridan and others, who then opposed it, have since very handsomely expressed their conviction of the utility of the measure, and their wishes for its success. But although the Board was established by Act of Parliament, on the 17th May 1793, and L.3000 per annum voted for its support, the charter (§ 4) was not drawn up and ultimately sanctioned by the Great Seal, till the 23d of August; although the high fees paid for it, which amounted to no less than L.1189 : 12 : 2, might, one would think, have expedited the business more quickly. The Board, of consequence, could not be assembled till the 4th of Sept. and the regular meetings did not commence till Jan. 23, 1794. One of the first objects of the attention of the Board was to collect materials for a Statistical Account of England. Accordingly specimens of parochial reports were printed, with a view of rousing the clergy of the church of England to exertions similar to those of their brethren in Scotland. But it was afterwards thought proper, on various accounts, to prefer *general* to *particular* inquiries, and to procure *county* instead of *parochial* reports. Accordingly surveys have been made within these 3 years, and reports printed of the State of Agriculture, in all the counties of the United Kingdom: and many of the gentlemen employed, having executed their tasks gratis, the charge of collecting this mass of information, and surveying the whole Island, has not exceeded the inconsiderable sum of L.2170. The expences of printing the reports, however, being great, subscriptions of 10 guineas have been procured from those who wished for copies of the reports.—As a specimen of the expedition with which the business of the board has been carried on, it is worth mentioning, that no fewer than 74 of these reports were given in, and either printed or in the press, within little more than 6 months after its 2d meeting; that during the first Session above 80,000 papers had been printed and circulated, of which above 100 had been returned with valuable hints and observations wrote in the margins, before the 29th July 1794: and that by the end of the 2d Session, the survey of the whole kingdom had been nearly completed, and the reprinting of some of the reports had actually commenced. Such a quantity of important business begun and executed within so short a period, we are persuaded is not to be found paralleled in the annals of any public society. Nor were these the only exertions made by the Board within that period. Through their recommendation and influence extraordinary merit was rewarded, L. 1000 being granted by parliament, to Mr Joseph Elkington, who had carried the art of draining land to a degree of perfection hitherto unknown; and the interests of a most useful class of the community, viz. the common labourers, had been attended to, by introducing and passing the "act for the more effectual prevention of the use of defective weights, and false and unequal balances."

And there is every reason to believe, that in consequence of the recommendations of the Board, in Jan. 1795, 50,000 additional acres were planted with potatoes, and a famine of consequence prevented, by thus providing 6 months provisions for about a million of people. The crop of wheat however, in 1795, proving defective, the president recommended to the Board, an extra-cultivation of that necessary grain, in a letter which was sent to all the members, and to the quarter sessions of the counties, as well as inserted in 50 different Newspapers, in consequence whereof a greater quantity of wheat was sown, and, with the advantage of a favourable season, a more productive and plentiful crop has been reaped in Autumn 1796, than perhaps at any former period in the annals of British agriculture.

(6.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, OBJECTS OF THE. We should swell this article beyond all bounds, were we to enumerate all the objects of this truly patriotic institution. We shall, therefore, after giving the great outlines of investigation, as stated by Sir J. Sinclair to the Board, in his "General View of the Inquiries essential for the internal improvement of the kingdom," only select one or two important particulars, which are now objects of their attention. The former are thus ranked by the president. "I. The riches to be obtained from the surface of the national territory. II. The mineral or subterraneous treasures of which the country is possessed. III. The wealth to be derived from its streams, rivers, canals, inland navigations, coasts and fisheries: and IV. The means of promoting the improvement of the people in regard to their health, industry and morals, founded on a statistical survey of every parocchial district in the kingdom, and the circumstances of its inhabitants. Under one or other of these heads, every point of real importance, that can tend to promote the general happiness of a great nation, seems to be included." Amongst the almost infinite variety of important objects, comprehended under these general heads, it must give pleasure to every benevolent mind to find, that the amelioration of the condition of the lower order of the people occupies the attention of the Board, and that a committee has been already appointed upon "this important branch of duty." Three objects of attention have been pointed out on this subject: 1. To promote improvements in the construction of cottages, and to ascertain the means of lessening the consumption of fuel. 2. To recommend the annexing of a large garden to each cottage; and 3. To encourage the extension of Friendly Societies. Another important object, which by the exertions of the Board and their president, is now under the consideration of parliament, is to procure an act for the inclosure and cultivation of the waste lands in Great Britain; and thus to

— "Cut off those legal bars,
Which crush the culture of our fruitful isle.

"Were they removed, unbounded wealth would
flow:

"Our wastes would then with varied produce
smile,

"And England soon a second Eden prove."

(7.) In a word, the great objects of the

Board are to collect and condense every particle of information, that can be interesting either to individuals or society. It will then be easy for rulers to know (as Sir John observes) how the happiness of the people they govern may be best secured, and schemes of public felicity realized.—

"When the principles of improved husbandry are once clearly ascertained, and when by wise laws every obstacle to improvement shall be removed, the farmer will be enabled to raise at less expence, a much greater quantity of provisions, and consequently will have it in his power to sell them at a lower rate to the public. The people, having thus the necessaries of life cheaper, must be better satisfied with the government under which they live, than they otherwise would be, and must have more money to lay out on superfluities, the taxes on which are the principal sources of the revenue. Hence both the peace of the country and the resources of the State depend upon the progress of our agricultural improvements." "These are objects, (as Gen. Washington justly observes, in his letter to Sir John,) truly worthy the attention of a great mind, and every friend to the human race must readily lend his aid towards their accomplishment."

(7.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, PHILANTHROPIC PROSPECTS ARISING FROM THE SUCCESS OF THE. We cannot close our account of this public-spirited institution, without giving another quotation or two from the president's account of it (already so often cited); which breathe the true spirit of humanity and universal philanthropy. In his address to the board, 24th May, 1796, Sir John observes, "that a single additional acre, cultivated at home, is more truly valuable than the most extensive possessions acquired abroad, at an enormous expence of treasure and of blood, and retained with difficulty and danger." And in a former address, on the 29th July, 1794, after stating that the probable addition to the national capital by the improvement of 22,351,000 acres of waste lands would amount at 30 years purchase to L.905,215,500; besides L.30,193,850 of additional national income; he allows an objection may be urged, that the improvement of these 22,351,000 acres at L.4 per acre would occasion an expence of L.89,404,000. To this, after replying, that "in a national account this expence is no object;—that the public, instead of losing, gains by the expenditure; and that the money thus laid out might have lain dormant; might have been wasted, or destined for the cultivation of distant territories, with all the risk of being taken by an enemy;" &c. he adds—"That here it is impossible not to advert to the astonishing difference between spending 89 millions in improvements at home, or in foreign conquest. After the expenditure of that sum in war, it would be accounted a most fortunate means of re-imbursement, if we could secure any territory, by a commercial intercourse with which, 5 millions per annum could be gained; whilst, at the same time, it would be necessary to pay at least 5 millions of additional taxes. But if that money were laid out at home, or rather, if individuals were encouraged to expend a part of their wealth, in the internal improvement of the country, instead of new ta-

being necessary, the old ones would become lighter and more easily paid; and instead of dragging 5,000,000 per annum from an enormous distance, with much risk and expence, 30 millions would be produced within our own domain, and always at our command." But the most philanthropic proposal is that with which Sir J. Sinclair closes his Account of the Board. After stating that, notwithstanding the war, much useful information had been received from, and communicated to, foreign countries, by the Board, he proposes a "*Plan of an Agreement among the Powers of Europe and the United States of America, for rewarding Discoveries of general Benefit to Society.*" The general outlines are, "that each power should agree to pay a sum according to its revenue, for rewarding those who make any useful discovery in rural œconomy, medicine, or the arts; and that such discoveries shall be rapidly extended to the different countries; and brought to their ultimate state of perfection. The attention of mankind being thus directed to such objects, it is impossible to say, to what perfection the arts necessary for their comfort and sustenance might be carried. The desire for fame and emolument, and the emulation of many nations, rivalling each other in such arts, would produce discoveries, the importance of which can hardly be estimated. And such an undertaking might have the effect of rendering wars less frequent and ferocious." He concludes, "If the measures above hinted at were adopted, a new scene in politics might be the happy consequence, and rulers of nations might in future boast,—not of their numerous fleets,—not of their gallant armies,—not of extended commerce,—of splendid or luxurious arts, or acquisitions by intrigue or conquest,—*But of THIS—That within their respective dominions, a greater number of human beings enjoyed all the blessings of political society, in greater perfection, than hitherto they had ever been enabled to attain, in any former period of history.*"

(VIII.) BOARD OF GREEN CLOTH, a court of justice held in the compting house of the king's household, for taking cognizance of all matters of government within the king's court, and for correcting the servants that offended. It had also the authority of preserving the peace for 12 miles round the king's court, wherever it should be, excepting at London. The judge of this court was the Lord Steward who was assisted by a Treasurer, Comptroller, Cofferer, Clerks, &c. It took its name from a green cloth spread over the board where they sat. It was abolished in 1782.

(IX.) BOARD OF TRADE, [*bureau de commerce*], a ci-devant office in the French polity, established in 1723, was composed of 8 persons, who discussed all papers and proposals relating to the improvement of trade, and settled all difficulties in navigation and commerce.

(X.) BOARD OF TRADE AND PLANTATIONS was established by K. William III. in 1696, for settling all disputes and regulations relating to commerce and colonies. This board, besides ministers of state, consists of 8 commissioners, with an annual salary of £. 1000 each.

* *To BOARD. v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To board a ship by force; the same as to storm, used in the navy.—

I boarded the king's ship: now on the beach,
Now in the waste, the deck, in every cabin,
I flam'd amazement. *Shakespeare.*

He not inclin'd the ship to board,
More on his guns relies than on his sword,
From whence a fatal volley we receiv'd;
It mits'd the duke; but his great heart it griev'd. *Waller.*

Arm, arm, she cry'd, and let our Tyrians
board

With our's his fleet, and carry fire and sword. *Denham.*

2. To attack, or make the first attempt upon a man; *aboarder quelqu'un, Fr.*—

Whom thus at gaze, the Palmer 'gan to board
With goodly reason, and thus fair bespake. *Fairy Queen.*

Away, I do beseech you, both away;
I'll board him presently. *Shakesp. Hamlet.*

—Sure, unless he knew some strain in me, that I knew not myself, he would never have boarded me in his fury. *Shakesp.*—They learn what associates and correspondents they had, and how far every one is engaged, and what new ones they meant afterwards to try or board. *Bacon's Henry VII.* 3. To lay or pave with boards.—Having thus boarded the whole room, the edges of some boards lie higher than the next board; therefore they peruse the whole floor; and, where they find any irregularities, plane them off. *Moxon's Mechanical Exercises.*

(2.) * *To BOARD. v. a.* To place as a boarder in another's house.

(3.) * *To BOARD. v. n.* To live in a house, where a certain rate is paid for eating.—

That we might not part,
As we at first did loard with thee,
Now thou wouldst taste our misery. *Herbert.*
—We are several of us, gentlemen and ladies, who board in the same house; and after dinner, one of our company stands up, and reads your papers to us all. *Spectator.*

* *BOARDER. n. s.* [from *board.*] A tabler; one that eats with another at a settled rate.

BOARDING, in a naval engagement, a desperate and furious assault made by one ship on another, after having found every other method to reduce her ineffectual. It may be performed in different places of the ship, according to the circumstances and situation, by the assailant detaching a number of men armed with pikes, pistols and cutlasses on the decks of his antagonist, who stands in the same predicament with a city stormed by the besiegers. This, however, is rarely attempted by king's ships, which generally decide the combat without grappling; but is often practised by privateers, which, bearing down on the enemy's quarter or broadside, drop from the bowsprit, which projects over the defendants deck an earthen shell, called a *slink-pot*, charged with suffocating combustibles, which immediately bursts, catches fire, and fills the deck with insufferable stench and smoke: in the middle of the confusion thus occasioned, the ship's crew rush aboard, under cover of the smoke, and easily overpower the astonished enemy, unless they have close quarters to which they can retreat and beat them off the deck.

BOARDING-PIKE, a pike made use of in boarding ships at an engagement.

* **BOARDING SCHOOL**. *n. f.* [from *board* and *school*.] A school where the scholars live with the teacher. It is commonly used of a school for girls.

A blockhead, with melodious voice.

In *boarding-schools* can have his choice. *Swift*.

* **BOARD-WAGES**. *n. f.* [from *board* and *wages*.] Wages allowed to servants to keep themselves in victuals.—

What more than madness reigns,

When one short fitting many hundreds drains,

And not enough is left him, to supply

Board wages, or a footman's livery? *Dryden*.

BOARHILLS, 1. a considerable village of Fife, in the E. end of the parish of St Andrews; 2. the district in which it is situated.

BOARIA LAPPA, or **LAPPAGO**, a name given by the ancient Romans to the fruit or rough balls of the common aparine or cleavers. Pliny calls the fruit *lappæ boaricæ*, or *lappæ caninæ*, and sometimes *amaricæ*.

BOARINA. See **BOAROLA**.

* **BOARISH**. *adj.* [from *boar*.] Swinish; brutal; cruel.—

I would not see thy cruel nails

Pluck out his poor old eyes; nor thy fierce fitter,

In his anointed flesh stick *boarish* phangs.

Shakespeare.

BOAROLA, or **BOARINA**, in ornithology, the name of a very small bird, described by Aldrovandus, and others, and seemingly the same species with the **MUSCICAPA**, or **FLY-CATCHER**.

* **BOAR-SPEAR**. *n. f.* [from *boar* and *spear*.] A spear used in hunting the boar.—

And in her hand a sharp *boar-spear* she held,
And at her back a bow and quiver gay,

Stuff'd with steel headed darts. *Fairy Queen*.

Echion threw the first, but miss'd his mark,
And struck his *boar-spear* on a maple bark.

Dryden.

* **BOAST**. *v. f.* [from the verb.] 1. An expression of ostentation; a proud speech.—Thou that makest thy *boast* of the law, through breaking the law dishonourest thou God? *Rom. ii. 23*.—The world is more apt to find fault than to commend; the *evil* will probably be censured, when the great action that occasioned it is forgotten. *Spectator*.—A cause of boasting; an occasion of pride; the thing boasted.—

Not Tyro, nor Mycene, match her name,

Nor great Alcmena, the proud *boasts* of fame.

Pope.

(1.) * **To BOAST**. *v. a.* 1. To brag of; to display one's ostentatious language.—For if I have *boasted* anything of him to you, I am not ashamed. *2 Cor. vii. 14*.—

Neither do the spirits damn'd

Loſe all their virtue, lest bad men should *boast*
Their specious deeds. *Milton*.

—If they vouchsafed to give God the praise of his *boasts*; yet they did it only, in order to *boast* the interest they had in him. *Atterbury*. 2. To magnify; to exalt.—They that trust in their wealth, *boast* themselves in the multitude of their riches. *Psal. xlix. 6*.—Confounded be all them that

serve graven images, that *boast* themselves of idols; *Psal. xcvi. 7*.

(2.) * **To BOAST**. *v. n.* [*boſt*, Welch.] 1. To brag; to display one's own worth, or actions, in great words.—Let not him that putteth on his harness, *boast* himself as he that putteth it off. *Kings*.—

The sp'rits beneath,

Whom I seduc'd, *boasting* I could subdue

Th' Omnipotent.

Milton.

2. To talk ostentatiously.—For I know the forwardness of your mind, for which I *boast* of you to them of Macedonia. *1 Cor. ix. 2*. 3. It is used commonly with *of*.—

My sentence is for open war, *of* wiles

More inexpert I *boast* not.

Milton.

4. Sometimes with *in*.—

They *boast* in mortal things, and wond'ring tell

Of Babel, and the works of Memphian kings.

Milton.

—Some surgeons I have met, carrying bones about in their pockets, *boasting* in that which was their shame. *Wifeman*. 5. To exalt one's self.—Thus with your mouth you have *boasted* against me, and multiplied your words against me. *Ezek. xxxv. 13*.

* **BOASTER**. *n. f.* [from *boast*.] A bragger; a man that vaunts any thing ostentatiously.—Complains the more candid and judicious of the chymists themselves are wont to make of those *boasters*, that confidently pretend, that they have extracted the salt or sulphur of quicksilver, when they have disguised it by additaments, wherewith it resembles the concretes. *Boyle*.—

No more delays, vain *boaster*! but begin;

I prophesy beforehand I shall win:

I'll teach you how to brag another time. *Dryd.*

He the proud *boasters* sent, with stern assault,
Down to the realms of night. *Philips*.

* **BOASTFUL**. *adj.* [from *boast* and *full*.] Ostentatious; inclined to brag.—

Boastful, and rough, your first son is a squire;
The next a tradesman, meek and much a liar.

Pope.

* **BOASTINGLY**. *adv.* [from *boasting*.] Ostentatiously.—We look on it as a pitch of impiety, *boastingly* to avow our sins; and it deserves to be considered, whether this kind of confessing them have not some affinity with it. *Decay of Piety*.

(1.) * **BOAT**. *n. f.* [*bat*, Saxon.] 1. A vessel to pass the water in. It is usually distinguished from other vessels, by being smaller and uncovered, and commonly moved by rowing.—I do not think that any one nation, the Syrian excepted, to whom the knowledge of the ark came, did find out at once the device of either ship or *boat*, in which they durst venture themselves upon the seas. *Raleigh's Essays*.—

An effeminate scoundrel multitude!

Whose utmost daring is to cross the Nile,

In painted *boats*, to fright the crocodile.

Tate, Juven.

2. A ship of a small size; as, a *passage boat*, *packet boat*, *advice boat*, *fly boat*.

(II.) **BOATS**, DIFFERENT KINDS OF. The construction, machinery, and even the names of boats, are very different, according to the various purposes

poles for which they are calculated, and the services on which they are to be employed. Thus they are occasionally slight or strong, sharp or flat bottomed, open or decked, plain or ornamented; as they may be designed for swiftness or burden, for deep or shallow water, for sailing in a harbour or at sea, and for convenience or pleasure. The largest boat that usually accompanies a ship is the long-boat, which is generally furnished with a mast and sails: those which are fitted for men of war, may be occasionally decked, armed, and equipped for cruising short distances against merchant ships of the enemy, or smugglers, or impressing seamen, &c. The BARGES are next in order, which are longer, slighter, and narrower; they are employed to carry the principal sea officers, as admirals, and captains of ships of war, and are very unfit for sea. PINNACES exactly resemble barges, only that they are somewhat smaller, and never row more than eight oars; whereas a barge properly never rows less than ten. These are for the accommodation of the lieutenants, &c. CUTTERS of a ship, are broader, deeper, and shorter, than the barges and pinnaces; they are fitter for sailing, and are commonly employed in carrying stores, provisions, passengers, &c. to and from the ship. In the structure of this sort of boats, the lower edge of every plank in the side overlaps the upper edge of the plank below, which is called by ship-wrights *clinch-works*. YAWLS are something less than cutters, nearly of the same form, and used for similar services; they are generally rowed with six oars. These boats more particularly belong to men of war; as merchant ships seldom have more than two, viz. a long-boat and yawl: when they have a third, it is generally calculated for the countries to which they trade, and varies in its construction accordingly. Merchant ships employed in the Mediterranean find it more convenient to use a LAUNCH, which is longer, more flat bottomed, and better adapted every way to the harbours of that sea, than a long-boat. A WHERRY is a light sharp boat, used in a river or harbour for carrying passengers from place to place. PUNTS are a sort of oblong flat bottomed boats, nearly resembling floating stages; they are used by ship-wrights and caulkers, for breaming, caulking, or repairing a ship's bottom. A MOSES is a very flat broad boat, used by merchant ships amongst the Caribbee Islands, to bring hogheads of sugar off from the sea beach to the shipping which are anchored in the roads. A FELUCCA is a strong passage boat used in the Mediterranean, from 10 to 16 banks of oars. The natives of Barbary often employ boats of this sort as cruisers. For the larger sort of boats, see CRAFT, CUTTER, PERIAGUA, and SHALLOP. Of all the small boats a NORWAY YAWL seems to be the best calculated for a high sea, as it will often venture out to a great distance from the coast of that country, when a stout ship can hardly carry any sail.

(III.) BOATS, M. BERNIERES'S EXPERIMENTS WITH TWO. The following account was published about twenty years ago, of "several trials made on a boat or sloop, fit for inland navigation, coasting voyages, and short passages by sea, which not, like ordinary vessels, liable to be overset sunk by winds, waves, water spouts, or too

heavy a load; contrived and constructed by M. Bernieres, director of the bridges and causeways in France," &c. Some of these trials were made Aug. 1777, at the Gate of Invalids in Paris, in presence of the provost, merchants, and a numerous concourse of spectators of all conditions. They were made by way of comparison with another common boat of the same place, and of equal size. Both boats had been built ten years, and their exterior forms appeared to be exactly similar. The common boat contained only eight men, who rocked it and made it incline so much to one side, that it presently filled with water, and sunk; so that the men were obliged to save themselves by swimming; a thing common in all vessels of the same kind, either from the imprudence of those who are in them, the strength of the waves or wind, a violent or unexpected shock, their being overloaded, or overpowered any other way. The same men who had just escaped from the boat which sunk, got into the boat of M. Bernieres; rocked it, and filled it, as they had done the other, with water. But instead of sinking to the bottom, though brim full, it bore being rowed about the river, loaded as it was with men and water, without any danger to the people in it. M. Bernieres carried the experiment still farther. He ordered a mast to be erected in the same boat, when filled with water; and to the top of the mast had a rope fastened, and drawn till the end of the mast touched the surface of the river so that the boat was entirely on one side, a position into which neither wind nor waves could bring her; yet, as soon as the men who had hauled her into this situation let go the rope, the boat and mast recovered their position perfectly in less than the quarter of a second; a convincing proof that the boat could neither be sunk nor overturned, and that it afforded the greatest possible security in every way. These experiments appeared to give the greater pleasure to the public, as the advantages of the discovery may be of the first importance to mankind. Yet it seems surprising, that we have heard nothing farther of this discovery being applied to practice.

(IV.) BOATS, TERMS USED IN NAVIGATING. The following terms are used among seamen in navigating boats:

1. BOAT, TO BALE, OR FREE THE, is to fling out the water.
2. BOAT, TO FEND THE, is to save her from beating against the sides of the ship.
3. BOAT, TO MOOR THE, to fasten it with ropes.
4. BOAT, TO TRIM THE, is to keep her even.
5. BOAT, TO WIND THE, is to bring her head about.

(V.) BOATS, TRAIN OF, a number of small vessels fastened to each other, ascending up the Loire in France, by sails when the wind serves, otherwise towed by men, sometimes to the number 50 or 80 to a single rope.

To BOAT. *v. a.* To carry in a boat. *A/b.*

BOAT-BILL. See CANCROMA.

BOAT-FLY, a water insect, whose back is shaped like the bottom of a boat; the hind legs, which are thrice as long as the fore, aptly enough resembling a pair of oars. Accordingly, contra-

to all other creatures, he swims, says Mouset, on his back.

BOAT-HOOK, an iron hook, with a sharp point on the hinder part of it, fixed on a long pole, used in bringing it to, or pushing it from any other boat, ship, &c.

BOATING, a horrid kind of punishment in use among the ancient Persians for capital offenders. The manner of boating was this: The persons condemned to it being laid on his back in a boat, and having his hands stretched out, and tied fast on each side of it, had another boat put over him, his head being left out through a place fit for it. In this posture they fed him, till the worms, which were bred in the excrements he voided as he thus lay, eat out his bowels, and so caused his death, which was usually twenty days in effecting, the criminal lying all this while in most exquisite torment.

BOAT INSECT. See **NOTONECTA**.

* **BOATION.** *n. f.* [from *boare*, Lat.] Roar; noise; loud sound.—In Messina insurrection, the guns were heard from thence as far as Augusta and Syracuse, about 100 Italian miles, in loud boations. *Denham's Physico Theology*.

* **BOATMAN.** **BOATSMAN.** *n. f.* [from *boat* and *man*.] He that manages a boat.—

Boatsmen through the crystal water show,
To wond'ring passengers, the walls below.

Dryden.

That booby Phaon only was unkind,
An ill-bred boatman, rough as waves and wind.

Prior.

BOAT-ROPE, the rope by which the boat is fastened to the stern of the ship.

* **BOATSMAN.** See **BOATMAN**.

(1.) * **BOATSWAIN.** *n. f.* [from *boat* and *swain*.] An officer on board a ship, who has charge of all her rigging, ropes, cables, anchors, sails, flags, colours, pendants, &c. He also takes care of the long-boat and its furniture, and steers her either by himself or his mate. He calls out the several gangs and companies to the execution of their watches, works, and spells; and he is also a kind of provost-marshal, seizes and punishes all offenders, that are sentenced by the captain, or court-martial of the whole fleet. *Harris*.—Sometimes the meanest boatswain may help to preserve the ship from sinking. *Howel's Pre-eminence of Parliament*.

(2.) **BOATSWAIN, OTHER DUTIES OF THE.** It is the duty of the boatswain particularly to direct what relates to the rigging of a ship, after she is equipped from a royal dock yard. Thus he is to observe, that the masts are properly supported by their shrouds, stays, and back-stays, so that each of those ropes may sustain a proportional effort when the mast is strained by the violence of the wind, or the agitation of the ship. He ought also to take care that the blocks and running ropes are regularly placed, so as to answer the purposes for which they are intended; and that the sails are properly fitted to their yards and stays, well furled or reefed when occasion requires. It is likewise his office to assist with his mates in the necessary business of the ship; and to relieve the watch when it expires. He ought frequently to

examine the condition of the masts, sails and rigging; and remove whatever may be judged unfit for service, or supply what is deficient; and he is ordered by his instructions to perform his duty with as little noise as possible.

BOATSWAIN'S MATE has the peculiar command of the long-boat, for the setting forth of anchors, weighing or fetching home an anchor, warping, towing, or mooring; and is to give an account of his store.

(1.) **BOAZ**, the son of Salmon by Rahab, the harlot of Jericho, the second husband of Ruth, and great grandfather of David.

(2.) **BOAZ**, the name given by Solomon to one of the principal pillars of the temple.

(1.) * **BOB.** *n. f.* [from the verb neuter.] 1. Something that hangs so as to play closely; generally an ornament at the ear; a pendant; an ear-ring.—

The gaudy gossip, when she's set agog,

In jewels drest, and at each end a bob. *Dryden*.
2. The words repeated at the end of a stanza.—To bed, to bed, will be the bob of the song. *L'Estrange*.
3. A blow.—I am sharply taunted, yea, sometimes with pinches, nips, and bobs. *Ascham's Schoolmaster*. 4. A mode of ringing.

(2.) **BOB**, the ball of a short pendulum.

(1.) * **To BOB.** *v. a.* [of uncertain etymology; *Skinner* deduces it from *bobbo*, foolish, Span.] 1. To cut. *Junius*. Whence *bobtail*. 2. To beat; to drub; to bang.—

Those bastard Britons, whom our fathers
Have in their own land beaten, bobb'd, and
thump'd. *Shakespeare*.

3. To cheat; to gain by fraud.—I have bobb'd
his brain more than he has beaten my bones. *Sh.*
Live Roderigo!

He calls me to a restitution large,
Of gold and jewels, that I bobb'd from him.
As gifts to Desdemona. *Shakespeare*.
—Here we have been worrying one another, who
should have the booty, till this cursed fox has bobb'd
us both on't. *L'Estrange*.

(2.) * **To BOB.** *v. n.* To play backward and forward; to play loosely against any thing.—
And sometimes lurk I in a gossip's bowl,
In very likeness of a roasted crab;
And when she drinks, against her lips I bob,
And on her wither'd dewlap pour the ale.

Midsum. N. Dr.

They comb, and then they order ev'ry hair;
A birthday jewel bobbing at their ear. *Dryden*.
You may tell her,

I'm rich in jewels, rings, and bobbing pearls,
Pluck'd from Moors ears. *Dryden*.

BOBAR, a river in Silesia.

BOBARTIA, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the triandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 4th order, *Gramina*. The calyx is imbricated; and the corolla is a bivalve glume, above the receptacles of the fruit. Of this genus there is only one species known, which is a native of the Indies, and hath no remarkable property.

(1.) * **BOBBIN.** *n. f.* [*bobine*, Fr. from *bombyx*, Lat.] A small pin of wood, with a notch, to wind the thread about when women weave lace.—The things

things you follow, and make songs on now, should be sent to knit, or sit down to *bobbins*, or bone-lace. *Tutler*.

(2.) **BOBBINS** are turned in the form of a cylinder, with a little border jutting out at each end, bored through to receive a small iron pivot. They serve to spin with the spinning wheel, or to wind worsted, hair, cotton, silk, gold, and silver.

(1.) **BOBBING**, among fishermen, a particular manner of catching eels, which is thus performed: They scour well some large lobbs, and with a needle run a twisted silk thread through them from end to end, taking so many as that they may wrap them about a board a dozen times at least; then they tie them fast with the two ends of the silk, that they may hang in so many hanks; which done, they fasten to a strong cord, and, about an handful and an half above the worms, fix a plummet $\frac{1}{2}$ of a lb. weight, and make the cord fast to a strong pole. With this apparatus fishing in muddy water, they feel the eels tug lustily at the bait; when they think they have swallowed it sufficiently, they gently draw up the rope to the top, and bring them ashore.

(2.) **BOBBING**, in geography, a village in Kent, near Sittingbourn.

* **BOBBINWORK**. *n. f.* [from *bobbin* and *work*.] Work woven with bobbins.—Not netted nor woven with warp and woof, but after the manner of *bobbinwork*. *Grew's Museum*.

BOBBIO. See **BOBIO**, No. 1. and 2.

* **BOBCHERRY**. *n. f.* [from *bob* and *cherry*.] A play among children, in which the cherry is hung so as to bob against the mouth.—*Bobcherry* teaches us at once two noble virtues, patience and constancy; the first, in adhering to the pursuit of one end; the latter, in bearing a disappointment. *Arbuth. and Pope*.

BOBENHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in Westphalia, 3 m. from Francfort on the Maine.

BOBINGTON, a town in Staffordshire, near Shropshire.

BOBINGWORTH, a village in Essex, N. E. of Epping forest.

(1.) **BOBIO**, a territory of Italy in the Milanese.

(2.) **BOBIO**, the capital of the above territory, (No. 1.) seated on the Trebbia, 28 m. S. of Pavia. It is the see of a bishop. Lon. 10. 15. E. Lat. 44. 35. N.

(3.) **BOBIO**, the largest river of Chili, in S. America.

BOBISATIO, or **BOCEDISATIO**, in music, denotes the using of the 7 syllables *bo, ce, di, ga, lo, ma, ni*, to express the 7 musical notes, in lieu of the six introduced by Aretine, *ut, re, me, fa, sol, la*, as has been sometimes done by the Netherland and German musicians since the beginning of the 17th century, to avoid the mutation necessary in the use of the latter.

BOBSTAY, in sea language, a rope used to confine the bowsprit of a ship downward to the stem.

* **BOBTAIL**. *n. f.* [from *bob*, in the sense of *cut*.] Cut tail; short tail.—

Avaunt, you curs!

Be thy mouth or black or white,

Or *bobtail* tike, or trundle tail,

Tom will make him weep and wail. *Shakespeare*

* **BOBTAILED**. *adi.* [from *bobtail*.] Having a tail cut, or short.—There was a *bobtailed* cu carried in a gazette, and one that found him brought him home to his master. *L'Estrange*.

* **BOBWIG**. *n. f.* [from *bob* and *wig*.] A short wig.—A young fellow riding towards us full gallop, with a *bobwig*, and a black filken bag tie to it, stopt short at the coach to ask us how far the judges were behind. *Spectator*.

BOCA, in ichthyology, the name given by Paulus Jovius to the **BOCE** of Aristotle, called the *boops*, from the largeness of its eyes. It is a species of the **SPARUS**, and is distinguished by having 4 parallel longitudinal gold and silver coloured lines on each. Gaza and some others call it *voca* and the Italians **BAGO**.

BOCA-CHICA, 1. the strait or entrance into the harbour of Carthage in S. America. It is defended by several forts belonging to the Spaniards, all of which were taken by the British in 1741, who were nevertheless obliged to raise the siege of Carthage soon after: 2. A river of S. America.

BOCA-DEL-DRAGO, a strait so called, between the island of Trinidad and Andalusia, in the province of Terra Firma in S. America.

BOCAL. See **BOCCALE**.

BOCAMOLLE, in ichthyology, a name given by some to a very large and long Brazilian fish, more usually called by its Brazilian name, **PIRA JURUMENBECA**.

BOCANUM, in ancient geography, a town of Mauritania Tingitana, to the S. of mount Atlas supposed to be Morocco. Lon. 9. 0. W. Lat. 31. 0. N.

BOCARDO, in logic, the fifth mode of the first figure of syllogisms, wherein the first proposition is particular and negative; the second, universal and affirmative; and the third, or conclusion, particular and negative. Thus:

BOC Some animal is not man.

AR Every animal has a principle of sensation

DO Therefore something has a principle of sensation that is not man.

* **BOCASINE**. *n. f.* A sort of linen cloth; fine buckram. *DiD.*

BOCAT, a fine valley of Syria, in which are situated the ruins of Balbec.

(1.) **BOCCA**, in glass-making, the round hole in the working furnace, by which the metal is taken out of the great pots, and by which the pots are put into the furnace. This is to be stopped by a cover made of earth and brick, and moveable at pleasure, to preserve the eyes of the workman from the violence of the heat.

(2.) **BOCCA**, in ichthyology, a name by which some authors call the **URANOSCOPUS**, or Star gazer. It is a species of the **TRACHINUS**, distinguished by having a great number of beards on the lower jaw.

BOCCACE, John, one of the most polite and learned writers of his age, was born in Tuscany in 1313. His father first placed him with a merchant; but as he gave signs of genius, he was put afterward to study the canon law. Still, how

ever

divides into several branches, on which the leaves are placed alternately. These leaves are 8 or 9 inches long, and 5 or 6 broad; are deeply sinuated, sometimes almost to the mid-rib; and are of a fine glaucous colour. The whole plant abounds with a yellow juice of an acrid nature; so that it is used by the inhabitants of America to take off warts and spots from the eyes. The singular beauty of this plant renders it worthy of a place in every curious collection: and it seems the Indians are very fond of it; for Hernandez tells us, their kings used to plant it in their gardens. It is propagated by seeds from America, sowing them in spring, in pots of light earth, which must be plunged in a hot-bed. When the plants come up, they are to be kept in separate pots, which must always be kept in a stove.

BOCE. See BOCA.

BOCEDISATIO. See BOBISATIO.

BOCHAMPTON, a village 3 miles N. E. of Dorchester.

BOCHARIA. See BOKHARIA.

(1.) BOCHART, Matthew, a learned protestant divine of the 17th century, was minister of Alençon, and author of several works: viz. 1. A Treatise against Relics: 2. Another against the sacrifice of the Mass: printed at Geneva, in 1658. 3. A Dialogue on the difficulties, which the Missionaries raised against the Protestants of France. This work led the Elector Palatine to attempt the reunion of the Lutherans and Calvinists, at Augsburg. 4. *Diallaſticon*, a work containing a plan for that purpose; dedicated to the Elector and printed at Sedan; in 1662. His treatise against the mass brought him into trouble. Some have confounded this author with his cousin Samuel, (Nº 2.)

(2.) BOCHART, Samuel, one of the most learned men in the 17th century, was born at Roan in Normandy. He was a great proficient in the oriental languages; and was many years pastor of a protestant church at Caen; where he was tutor to Wentworth Dillon, earl of Roscommon. Here he distinguished himself by his public disputations with father Veron, held in the castle of Caen, in presence of a great number of Catholics and Protestants. Bochart came off with great honour, which was not a little increased in 1646, upon the publication of the two parts of his *Geographia Sacra*, entitled *Palestina* and *Canaan*: as well as by his *Hieroſoicon*, printed in London in 1675. This treats *de animalibus sacra scripturae*. In 1652, the queen of Sweden invited him to Stockholm, where she gave him many proofs of her esteem. At his return to Caen, he resumed his ministry, and was received into the academy of that city. His learning was not his principal qualification; he had a modesty equal to it; and hence enjoyed his great reputation in tranquillity, sheltered from those unhappy quarrels which so many other learned men draw upon themselves. He was esteemed by men of science of all denominations. He died suddenly while he was speaking in the academy, on the 16th of May, 1667, aged 78. A complete edition of his works was published in Holland, in 2 vols. folio, 1712.

BOCHE, *n. f. obs.* an ulcer. *Chauc.*

BOCHETTA, a place of Italy, famous in the years 1746 and 1747. It is a chain of mountains

over which the great road lies from Lombardy to Genoa; and on the very peak of the highest mountain is a narrow pass, which will hardly admit 3 men to go abreast. This pass is properly called the *Bochetta*; for the defence of which there are 3 forts. It is the key of Genoa; and was taken in April 1796, by the French.

BOCHIM, in ancient geography, a place where the Hebrews assembled after Joshua's death, supposed to have been near Shiloh. *Judg.* ii. 1—10.

BOCHIUS, or BOCVI, John, a Latin poet, born at Brussels, in 1555. He travelled into Italy, Germany, Poland, and Muscovy, and at his return became secretary to the Duke of Parma. During his journey from Smolensko to Moscow and Livonia, his feet were so severely frost-bitten, that amputation was ordered; but the Czar, John Basilides, coming with an army to ravage the country, Bochius fled as fast as he could, and though he was overtaken, stript, and beaten, by the Russians, the exercise restored the use of his limbs. He died in 1609. The critics in the Netherlands set so great a value on his poetry, that they gave him the name of the *Belgic Virgil*. He wrote, 1. *De Belgii Principatu*. 2. *Parodia Heroica Psalmorum Davidicorum*. 3. *Observationes Physicae, Ethicae, Politicae, et Historicae, in Psalmos*. 4. *Vita Davidis*. 5. *Orationes*. 6. *Poemata*.

BOCHLE, a hill in Banffshire.

BOCHOUR, *n. f. obs.* A butcher. *Chauc.*

* BOCKELET. } *n. f.* A kind of long-winged

* BOCKERET. } hawk. *Diſt.*

(1.) BOCKHAM, MAGNA, } Two villages in

(2.) BOCKHAM, PARVA, } Surry, near Leatherhead, 5 miles from Guildford.

BOCKHOLDT, John, a pretended prophet among the Anabaptists, who, in the beginning of the 16th century, disgraced that party by his fanaticism. He was a journeyman tailor of Leyden, one of Munzer's followers, and an associate of Matthias, who also pretended to the gift of prophecy. These two fanatics, in 1533, established a numerous party at Munster. Having made themselves masters of the city, they deposed the magistrates, confiscated the estates of such as had escaped, and deposited the wealth they amassed together in a public treasury for common use. They made preparations of every kind for the defence of the city; and sent out emissaries to the Anabaptists in the Low Countries, inviting them to assemble at Munster, which was now dignified with the name of *Mount Sion*, that from hence they might be deputed to reduce all the nations of the earth under their dominion. Matthias, who was the first in command, was soon cut off in an act of phrensy, by the bishop of Munster's army; and was succeeded by Bockholdt, who was proclaimed by a special designation of Heaven as he pretended, king of Sion, and invested with legislative powers like those of Moses. The extravagances of Bockholdt were too numerous to be recited; it will be sufficient to add, that the city of Munster was taken after a long siege and an obstinate resistance; and Bockholdt the mock monarch was punished with a most painful and ignominious death.

BOCKHOLT, a town of Germany in the circle of Westphalia and diocese of Munster, capital of a

a small district, and subject to the bishop of Munster: 10 miles E. of Cleeff. Lon. 6. 20. E. Lat. 51. 40. N.

BOCK-HORD, [*boebord*, Sax.] a place where books and writings are kept. *Obs. Bailey.*

BOCKIA, among chemists, a large vessel with a great belly, like a cucurbite. *Bailey.*

BOCKINFIELD, a village in Northumberland, near Eland.

(1.) **BOCKING**, a parish of England, in Essex, which, with the adjoining parish of **BRAIN-TREE**, contains about 1500 houses, in general but indifferent.

(2.) **BOCKING**, a very large village of Essex in England, adjoining to **BRAIN-TREE**, from which it is separated only by a small stream. Its streets are narrow and badly paved. Its church is a decay. There are also some meeting-houses in it; but the market is held at Brain-tree. There is a large manufactory of bayze, chiefly for exportation. Bocking is 41 miles N. E. of London.

BOCKLANA. See **BAGLANA**.

BOCK-LANDS, in the time of the Saxons, were what we now call *freehold lands*, held by persons of rank, by charter or deed in writing. It was distinguished from *folkland*, or copy-hold land, held by the common people without any written deed.

BOCKLETON, a town in Worcestershire, S. of Tebury.

BOCONNOC, a village in the county of Cornwall, S. E. of Lestwithiel.

BOCQUI. See **BOCHIUS**.

BOCTON-ALULPH, a town in Kent, N. W. of Wye.

BOCTON-MALHERB, a village in Kent, S. W. of Latham.

BOCTON-STREET, and } two villages in Kent,
BOCTON UNDER BLEAN, } 5 miles W. of Canterbury.

(1.) **BODDOM**, a small fishing town on the coast of Aberdeenshire, which contained 192 inhabitants, in 1794.

(2.) **BODDOM CASTLE**, an ancient fort in Aberdeenshire, seated on a promontory between two very deep fissures, with high craggy rocks on each side, where the sea rolls in with such force, that the spray is often carried over the top of the castle. It is said to have been built by a branch of the Macdonald family, and was formerly fortified with cannon, one of which is still in it. It was inhabited till the beginning of this century.

BODDOM-HEAD, a promontory of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, so named by the natives, but better known among geographers by the name of **BODOM-NESS**, which see.

(1.) **BODE**, *n. f. obs.* An abode. *Chauc.*

(2.) **BODE**, *part. obs.* Commanded. *Chauc.*

(3.) * **To BODE**. *v. a.* [*bodian*, Sax.] To portend; to be the omen of. It is used in a sense of either good or bad.—

This *bodes* some strange eruption to our state.

Shakesp. Hamlet.

—You have opposed their safe policy, with true and great wisdom; what they *boded* would be a mischief to us, you are providing, shall be one of our principal strengths. *Spratt's Sermons.*—

It happen'd once, a *boding* prodigy!

A swarm of bees that cut the liquid sky,

Upon the topmast branch in clouds alight. *Dryd.*

If fiery red his glowing globe descends,

High winds and furious tempests he portends:

But if his cheeks are swoln with livid blue,

He *bodes* wet weather by his wat'ry hue. *Dryd.*

(2.) * **To BODE**. *v. n.* To be an omen; to fore-shew.—

Sir, give me leave to say, whatever now

The omen prove, it *boded* well to you. *Dryden.*

BODEGRAVE, a village of Holland, on the Rhine, the inhabitants of which were barbarously used by the French in Dec. 1672. Moreri, in his Dictionary, makes it the scene of a victory obtained by the French over the Dutch, for which he is severely censured by Mr Bayle, who proves that it was only one of their posts, which the French were obliged to abandon, and on which account they used the inhabitants cruelly; but that no battle took place near it.

* **BODEMENT**. *n. f.* [from *bode*.] Portent; omen; prognostick.—

This foolish, dreaming, superstitious girl

Makes all these *bodements*. *Shakespeare.*

Macbeth shall never vanquish't be, until

Great Birnam wood to Dunfinane's high hill

Shall come against him—

—————That will never be:

Sweet *bodements*, good. *Shakespeare.*

BODEN, a village in Lancash. near Manchester.

BODENTON, a village between Gloucester and Cheltenham.

BODERIA. See **BOBOTRIA**.

* **To BODGE**. *v. n.* [a word in *Shakespeare*, which is perhaps corrupted from *boggle*.] To boggle; to stop; to fail.—

With this we charg'd again; but out! alas,

We *bodg'd* again; as I have seen a swan,

With bootless labour, swim against the tide. *Shak.*

BODHAM, a town in Norfolkshire near Holt.

BODIAM, a village in Sussex, 9 m. from Winchester. It has a fair, June 6.

BODIANO, in ichthyology, the name of an American fish, of the size of a perch, with a purple back, and yellow sides and belly. It is more usually known among authors by the name of **PUDIANO**.

* **BODICE**. *n. f.* [from *bodies*.] Stays; a waistcoat quilted with whalebone, worn by women.—

Her *bodice* half way she unlac'd,

About his arms she flily cast

The filken band, and held him fast. *Prior.*

—This consideration should keep ignorant nurses and *bodice*-makers from meddling. *Prior.*

BODICOT, a village in Oxfordshire, within 3 miles of Banbury.

* **BODILESS**. *adj.* [from *body*.] Incorporeal; having no body.—

They *bodiless* and immaterial are,

And can be only lodg'd within our minds. *Davies.*

This is the very coinage of our brain,

This *bodiless* creation ecstacy

Is very cunning in.

Shakesp.

These are but shadows,

Phantoms *bodiless* and vain,

Empty visions of the brain.

Swift.

(1.) * **BODILY**. *adj.* [from *body*.] 1. Corporeal; containing body.—What resemblance could wood or stone bear to a spirit void of all sensible qualities, and *bodily* dimensions? *Smith*. 2. Relating to the body, not the mind.—Of such as resorted to our Saviour Christ, being present on earth, there came not any unto him with better success, for the benefit of their souls everlasting happiness, than they whose *bodily* necessities gave occasion of seeking relief. *Hooker*.—Virtue atones for *bodily* defects; beauty is nothing worth, without a mind. *L'Estrange*.—As clearness of the *bodily* eye doth dispose it for a quicker sight; so doth freedom from lust and passion, dispose us for the most perfect acts of reason. *Tillotson*.—I would not have children much beaten for their faults, because I would not have them think *bodily* pain the greatest punishment. *Locke*. 3. Real; actual.—

Whatever hath been thought on in this state,
That could be brought to *bodily* act, ere Rome
Had circumvention. *Shakesp.*

(2.) * **BODILY**. *adv.* Corporeally; united with matter.—It is his human nature, in which the godhead dwells *bodily*, that is advanced to these honours, and to this empire. *Watts*.

BODIN, John, a native of Angers, one of the ablest men in France in the 16th century, famous for his *Method of History*, his *Republic*, and other works. He was in great favour with Henry III. who imprisoned John de Serre for writing an injurious piece against Bodin, and forbid him upon pain of death to publish it. But his favour was not of long continuance. The duke of Alençon, however, gave him several employments; and carried him to England with him as one of his counsellors, where he had the pleasure to see his book *de Republica* read publicly in the university of Cambridge, having been translated from the French into Latin by the English. In the *Ragguagli* of Beccalini, he is condemned as an atheist to the fire, for having said, that liberty of conscience ought to be granted to sectaries. He declared himself pretty freely against those who asserted that the authority of monarchs is unlimited. Upon the death of the duke of Alençon, Bodin retired to Laon, where he married. He had an office in the presidial of this city; and in Charles IX's time he was the king's solicitor with a commission for the forests of Normandy. He died of the plague at Laon, in 1596.

BODINGTON, two English villages: 1. in Huntingdonshire, near Bugden: 2. in Northamptonshire, N. of Chipping Warden.

BODISHAM HALL, near Cambridge.

* **BODKIN**. *n. s.* [*bodiken*, or small body, *Skinner*.] 1. An instrument with a small blade and sharp point used to bore holes.—Each of them had *bodkins* in their hands, wherewith they continually pricked him. *Sidney*. 2. An instrument to draw a thread or ribband through a loop.—

Or plung'd in lakes of bitter washes lie,

Or wedg'd whole ages in a *bodkin's* eye. *Pope*.

3. An instrument to dress the hair.—

You took constant care

The *bodkin*, comb, and essence to prepare:

For this your locks in paper-durance bound. *Pope*.

BODLEIAN LIBRARY. See next article.

BODLEY, Sir Thomas, founder of the Bodleian library at Oxford, was born at Exeter, in 1544. When he was about 12 years of age, his father, Mr John Bodley, being a protestant, was obliged to leave the kingdom. He settled at Geneva with his family, and continued there till the death of Q. Mary. In that university, then in its infancy, young Bodley studied the learned languages, &c. under several eminent professors. On the accession of Q. Elizabeth, he returned with his father to England; and was soon after entered of Magdalen college in Oxford. In 1563, he took the degree of B. A. and the year following was admitted fellow of Merton college. In 1565, he read a Greek lecture in the hall of that college; in 1566, he took his degree of M. A. and read natural philosophy in the public schools. In 1569, he was one of the proctors of the university, and, for some time officiated as public orator. In 1576, he quitted Oxford, and made the tour of Europe; but returned to his college after 4 years absence. He became gentleman-usher to Q. Elizabeth, in 1583; and in 1585 he married the widow of Mr Ball, a lady of fortune. He was soon after sent ambassador to the king of Denmark, and other German princes. He was next charged with an important commission to Henry III. of France; and in 1588, went ambassador to the United Provinces, where he continued till 1597. On his return to England, finding his preferment obstructed by the jarring interests of Burleigh and Essex, he retired from court, and could never afterwards be prevailed upon to accept of any employment. He now began the foundation of the Bodleian library, which was completed in 1599. Soon after the accession of K. James I. he received the honour of knighthood, and died in 1612. He was buried in Merton College. His monument is of black and white marble, on which stands his effigy in a scholar's gown, surrounded with books. At the 4 corners are the emblematical figures of Grammar, Rhetoric, Music, and Arithmetic; two angels, &c. with a short inscription, mentioning his age and time of his death. Sir Thomas was a polite scholar, an able statesman and a worthy man. Mr Granger observes, that he merited much as a man of letters, but incomparably more in the ample provision he made for literature, in which he stands unrivalled; and that his library is a mausoleum which will perpetuate his memory as long as books themselves endure. Sir Thomas wrote his own Life to the year 1609 which, with the first draught of the Statutes, and his Letters, were published from the originals in the Bodleian library, by Mr Thomas Hearn, in 1703.

BODMIN, a town of Cornwall in England seated in a bottom between two hills, which renders the air very unwholesome. It consists chiefly of one street, and the many decayed houses show that it has once been a place of greater note. It has a mayor, sends two members to parliament and had formerly the privilege of the coinage of tin. It lies 32 m. N. E. of Falmouth. Lon. 4. W. Lat. 50. 32. N.

BODON, the ancient *Viminacium*, a fortified town of Bulgaria in European Turkey, was

attention the Life of that prelate. It appeared in his history of the diocese of Aberdeen; and may be considered, perhaps, as the most valuable portion of that work. His History of Scotland, a more useful undertaking, was first published in 1526. In 1574 it underwent a 2d impression, and was enriched with the 18th book and a part of the 19th. A farther continuation of it was executed by Joannes Ferrerius Pedemontanus. Boece died about A. D. 1550. He has been compared, and not without reason, to Geoffroy of Monmouth. He had a propensity to fable and exaggeration; a fault, for which the elegance of his expression does not compensate. His judgment was not equal to his genius; and his fictions as a historian are a contrast to his probity as a man. John Ballenden, archdeacon of Murray, translated his history into the Scottish language at the desire of James V. This translation Will. Harrison converted, though with imperfections, into English; and his associate Hollingshed published his work in his Chronicle, with additions and improvements by the ingenious Francis Thynne.

BOEDODOE, a village on the coast of Guinea.

BOEDROMIA, in antiquity, solemn feasts held at Athens, in memory of the succour brought by Ion to the Athenians, when invaded by Eumolpus son of Neptune, in the reign of Eretheus. But according to Plutarch, the boedromia were celebrated in memory of the victory obtained by Theseus over the Amazons, in the month Boedromion.

BOEDROMION, in chronology, the 3d month of the Athenian year, answering to the latter part of August and beginning of September.

BOEHMEN, Jacob, called the *Teutonic philosopher*, was a noted visionary of the 17th century, born in a village of Germany, near Gorlitz, in 1575. He was bred a shoemaker; and marrying, supported a large family by this occupation; until, after amusing himself with chemistry, a visionary turn of mind, heated by sermons and German divinity, got the better of his common sense, and produced raptures and notions of divine illumination. These he first gave vent to, in 1612, by a treatise entitled *Aurora, or the rising of the Sun*; being a mixture of astrology, philosophy, chemistry, and divinity, written in a quaint obscure style. This being censured by the magistrates of Gorlitz, he remained silent for 7 years: but improving that interval by pursuing the flights of his imagination, he resumed his pen; and resolving to redeem the time he had lost, he, in the remaining 5 years of his life, published above 20 books, which greatly needed what he concluded with, *A table of his principles, or a key to his writings*; though this has not proved sufficient to render them intelligible to a common understanding. The key appeared in 1624, and he did not long survive it. For early in the morning of the 18th of November that year, he called one of his sons, and asked him "if he also heard that excellent music?" to which being answered in the negative, he ordered the door to be set open, that the music might be the better heard. He asked afterwards what o'clock it was? and being told it had struck two, he said, "It is not yet my time; my time is 3 hours hence." In the interim he was heard to speak these words:

"O thou strong God of hosts, deliver me according to thy will! O thou crucified Lord Jesus have mercy upon me, and receive me into the kingdom!" When it was near six o'clock, he took his leave of his wife and sons, and blessed them and said, "Now I go hence into paradise;" then bidding his son turn him, he immediately expired his last breath in a deep sigh. Many have been inveigled by the visions of this fanatic, notwithstanding his talent in involving the plainest things in mystery and ænigmatical jargon. Among others, the famous Quirinus Kahlman may be reckoned the principal of his followers in Germany, who says, he had learned more alone in his study from Boehmen, than he could have learned from all the wise men of that age together; and, that we may not be left in the dark as to what sort of knowledge this was, he acquaints us, that amidst an infinite number of visions it happened, that being snatched out of his study, he saw thousands of thousands of lights rising round about him. No has Boehmen been without numerous admirers in England; among whom is the famous Mr William Law, author of *Christian Perfection*, &c. who published an English edition of Jacob Boehmen's works in 2 vols 4to.

BOEHMENISTS, the followers of Jacob Boehmen. See last article.

BOEN, a town of France, in the department of Rhone and Loire, and ci-devant province of Forez.

(1.) **BÆOTIA**, an ancient kingdom of Greece founded or rather restored by Cadmus, and named by him, from the ox which is said to have directed him to the place where he built the capital of his new kingdom, better known afterwards by the name of **THEBES**. But as the inhabitants were scarce ever distinguished as a nation by the name of **BOEOTIANS**, but of **THEBANS**, we refer to the article **THEBES** for their history, &c.

(2.) **BÆOTIA**, an ancient kingdom of Thessaly said to have been founded by **BOEOTUS**. See **BOEOTIANS**.

BÆOTIANS, the inhabitants of **BOEOTIA**, (1.) All that we know of these Bæotians is, that they held this settlement upwards of 200 years; and that the Thessalians expelled them from it upon which they came and took possession of the country, which till then had been called **CADMEIA** and gave it the name of *Bæotia*. Diodorus and Homer tell us, that these Bæotians signalized themselves at the Trojan war; and the latter add that five of Bæotus's grandsons, viz. Peneleus, Leitus, Prothænor, Arcefilaus, and Clonius, were the chiefs who led the Bæotian troops thither.

BÆOTUS, in fabulous history, the son of Neptune and brother of Æolus, by Arne the daughter of Æolus king of Æolis. This last, having sent his daughter to Metapontium a city of Italy she was there delivered of those two sons, the eldest of whom she called after her father's name *Æolus*; and he possessed himself of the islands the Tyrrhenian, now the Tuscan sea, and built the city of Lipara. Bæotus the younger son went to his grandfather and succeeded him in his kingdom, called it after his own name, and the capital city *Arne* from his mother.

BOERHAAVE, Herman, one of the great physicians.

physicians, as well as the best men, that this or perhaps any age has ever produced, was born in 1668 at Vorhout, a village near Leyden. At the age of 16 he found himself without parents, protection, advice, or fortune. He had already studied theology and the other ecclesiastical sciences, with the design of devoting himself to a clerical life; but the science of nature, which equally engaged his attention, soon engrossed his whole time. This illustrious person, whose name afterwards spread throughout the world, and who left at his death above L. 200,000, could at that time barely live by his labours, and was compelled to teach the mathematics to obtain necessaries. But in 1693, being admitted M. D. he began practice; and his merit being at length discovered, many powerful friends patronized him, and procured him professorships in the university of Leyden; viz. those of medicine, chemistry, and botany. The Academy of Sciences at Paris, and the Royal Society at London, invited him to become one of their members. He communicated to each his discoveries in chemistry. The city of Leyden became in his time the school of Europe for this science, as well as medicine and botany. All the princes in Europe sent him disciples, who found in this skilful professor, not only an indefatigable teacher, but a tender father, who encouraged them to pursue their labours, consoled them in their afflictions, and solaced them in their wants. When Peter the Great went to Holland in 1715, to instruct himself in maritime affairs, he also attended Boerhaave. His reputation was spread as far as China: a Mandarin wrote to him with this inscription, "To the illustrious Boerhaave, physician in Europe;" and the letter came regularly to him. The city of Leyden has raised a monument in the church of St Peter, to the salutary genius of Boerhaave, *Salutifero Boerhaavii genio sacrum*. It consists of an urn upon a pedestal of black marble: six heads, 4 of which represent the ages of life, and two the sciences in which Boerhaave excelled, form a group issuing between the urn and its supporters. The capital of this basis is decorated with a drapery of white marble, in which the artist has shown the different emblems of disorders and their remedies. Above, upon the surface of the pedestal, is the medallion of Boerhaave: at the extremity of the frame, a ribbon displays the favourite motto of this learned man; *Simplex* *verum*, "Truth unarrayed." It has been observed, that from the time of Hippocrates, no physician has more justly merited the esteem of his contemporaries, and the thanks of posterity, than Boerhaave. He united to an uncommon general and extraordinary talents, the qualities of the heart, which gave them so great a value to society. He made a decent, simple, and venerable appearance, particularly when age had changed the colour of his hair. He was an eloquent orator, and declaimed with dignity and grace. He taught very methodically, and with great precision; he never tired his auditors, but they always regretted that his discourses were finished. He would sometimes give them a lively turn with raillery; but his raillery was refined and ingenious, and it enlivened the subject he treated of, without carrying with it any thing severe or sa-

tirical. A declared foe to all excess, he considered decent mirth as the salt of life. It was his daily practice through life, as soon as he rose in the morning, which was generally very early, to retire for an hour to prayer, and meditation on some part of the Scriptures. He often told his friends, when they asked him how it was possible for him to go through so much fatigue? that it was *this* which gave him spirit and vigour in the business of the day. *This* he therefore recommended as *the best rule* he could give: for nothing, he said, could tend more to the health of the body than the tranquillity of the mind; and that he knew nothing which could support himself, or his fellow-creatures, amidst the various distresses of life, but a well-grounded confidence in the supreme Being upon the principles of Christianity. This was strongly exemplified in his own severe illness in 1722, by which the course of his lectures as well as his practice was long interrupted. He was for five months confined to his bed by the gout, where he lay upon his back without daring to attempt the least motion; because any effort renewed his torments, which were so exquisite, that he was at length not only deprived of motion but of sense. Here his medical art was at a stand; nothing could be attempted, because nothing could be proposed with the least prospect of success. But, having (in the 6th month of his illness) obtained some remission, he determined to try whether the juice of fumitory, endive, or succory, taken thrice a day in a large quantity, (*viz.* above half a pint each dose,) might not contribute to his relief; and by a perseverance in this method he was wonderfully recovered. His patience was founded not on vain reasonings, like that of which the Stoics boasted; but on a religious composure of mind, and Christian resignation to the will of God. Of his sagacity and the wonderful penetration, with which he often discovered and described, at the first sight of a patient, such distempers as betray themselves by no symptoms to common eyes, such surprising accounts have been given, as scarcely can be credited, though attested beyond all doubt. Yet he was so far from a presumptuous confidence in his abilities, or from being puffed up by his riches, that he was condescending to all, and remarkably diligent in his profession; and he often used to say, that the life of a patient, (if trifled with or neglected,) would one day be required at the hand of the physician. He always called the poor his *best patients*; for God (said he) is their paymaster. The activity of his mind sparkled visibly in his eyes. He was always cheerful, and desirous of promoting every valuable end of conversation; and the excellency of the Christian religion was frequently the subject of it: for he asserted, on all proper occasions, the divine authority and sacred efficacy of the Scriptures; and maintained, that they only could give peace of mind, that sweet and sacred peace which passeth all understanding; since none can conceive it but he who has it; and none can have it but by divine communication. He never regarded calumny nor detraction, (for Boerhaave himself had enemies,) nor ever thought it necessary to confute them. "They are sparks, (said he,) which, if you do not blow, will go out of themselves."

themselves. The surest remedy against scandal, is to *live it down* by a perseverance in well-doing; and by praying to God that he would cure the distempered minds of those who traduce and injure us." Being once asked by a friend, who had often admired his patience under great provocations, whether he knew what it was to be angry, and by what means he had so entirely suppressed that impetuous and ungovernable passion? he answered, with the utmost frankness and sincerity, that he was naturally quick of resentment; but that he had, by daily prayer and meditation, at length attained to this mastery over himself. About the middle of the year 1737, he felt the first approaches of that fatal illness which brought him to the grave, *viz.* a disorder in his breast, which was at times very painful, often threatened him with immediate suffocation, and terminated in an universal dropsy: but during this lingering illness, his constancy and firmness did not forsake him; he neither intermitted the necessary cares of life, nor forgot the proper preparations for death. About 3 weeks before his dissolution, when the Rev. Mr Schultens, one of the most learned divines of the age, attended him at his country house, the Doctor desired his prayers, and afterwards entered into a discourse with him on the spiritual and immaterial nature of the soul. This he illustrated to Mr Schultens, by a description of the effects which the infirmities of his body had upon his faculties; which yet they did not so oppress or vanquish, but his soul was always master of itself, and resigned to the pleasure of its maker—and then he added, "He who loves God ought to think nothing desirable, but what is most pleasing to the supreme goodness." Such were his sentiments and conduct in this state of weakness and pain. As death approached nearer, he was so far from terror or confusion, that he seemed less sensible of pain, and more cheerful under his torments, which continued till the 23d day of Sept. 1738, on which he died, between 4 and 5, A. M. in the 70th year of his age—often recommending to the bye-standers a careful observation of St John's precepts, concerning the love of God and man, inculcated in his 1st epistle, particularly in chap. v. His funeral oration was spoken in Latin before the university of Leyden, to a very numerous audience, by Mr Schultens, and afterwards published at their particular desire. He wrote, 1. *Institutiones Medicæ.* 2. *Aphorismi de cognoscendis & curandis Morbis.* 3. *Institutiones & Experimenta Chemicæ.* 4. *Libellus de Materia Medica, et remediorum formulis quæ serviunt aphorismis.* 5. *Elementa Chemicæ.* 6. *De studio Hippocratico.* 7. *De usu ratiocinii mechanici in medicina.* 8. *De comparando certo in Physicis.* 9. *De vita Bernardi Albani.* 10 & 11. *Indices Plantarum in horto Lugd. Bat.* 12. *De fabrica glandularum.* 13 & 14. *Altrocium morborum historie.* 15. *De Luc Aphrodisiaca.*

BOERHAAVIA; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the monandria class of plants. There is no calyx; the corolla is monopetalous, campanulated, and parted; and the seed is one, naked, and below. There are six species, all natives of the Indies. Some of these plants rise 5 or 6 feet high, but most of them only 13 inches or

2 feet. They carry flowers of a yellow or red colour.

BOESCHOT, a town of France, in one of the new departments, and ci-devant Austrian Netherlands. Lon. 4. 45. E. Lat. 51. 5. N

(1.) **BOETHIUS**, Hector. See **BOECE**.

(2.) **BOETHIUS**, or } **Flavius Anicius Manlius**
BOETIUS, } **Torquatus Severinus**, a
prose as well as poetical writer of the 6th century, descended of one of the noblest families in Rome. He was born about that period when Augustulus, whose fears had induced him to a resignation of the empire, was banished, and Odoacer king of the Herulians began to reign in Italy, *viz.* about A. D. 476. Boetius' father dying while he was an infant, his relations undertook the care of his education. His excellent parts were soon discovered; and, to enrich his mind with the study of philosophy, as well as to perfect him in the Greek language, he was sent to Athens. Returning young to Rome, he was soon distinguished and promoted to the principal dignities in the state and at length to the consulate. Though living in great affluence and splendor, he studied theology, mathematics, ethics, and logic; and his success in each of these branches, appears from his works still extant. The great offices which he bore in the state, and his consummate wisdom and inflexible integrity, procured him such a share in the public councils, as proved in the end his destruction; for as he employed his interest with the king for the protection and encouragement of deserving men, so he exerted his utmost efforts in the detection of fraud, the repression of violence, and the defence of the state against invaders. At this time Theodoric the Goth had attempted to ravage Campania; and it was owing to the vigilance and resolution of Boetius that that count was preserved from destruction. At length, Theodoric, having murdered Odoacer, became king of Italy, where he governed 33 years with prudence and moderation, during which time Boetius possessed a large share of his esteem and confidence. About this time Justin, emperor of the east, made an edict condemning all the Arians except the Goths, to perpetual banishment from the eastern empire: in this edict Hormisdas bishop of Rome, and the senate, concurred. But Theodoric, who was an Arian, was extremely troubled at it; and conceived an aversion against the senators for the share they had borne in this proscription. Of this disposition in the king, 3 men of profligate lives and desperate fortunes, Gaudentius, Opasius, and Basilus, took advantage. Entertaining a secret desire of revenge against Boetius, for having been instrumental in the dismissal of Basilus from a lucrative employment, they accused him of several crimes; such as the stifling a charge the end whereof was to involve the whole senate in the guilt of treason; and an attempt, by throning the king, to restore the liberty of Italy, and, lastly, they suggested, that, to acquire honours he was in possession of, Boetius had recourse to magical art. Boetius was at this time at a great distance from Rome; however, Theodoric transmitted the complaint to the senate, forcing it with a suggestion that the safety, as well as the interest of the people as the prince, was rendered

precious by this supposed design to exterminate the Goths. The senate, perhaps fearing the resentment of the king, and having nothing to hope from the success of an enterprise, which, supposing it ever to have been meditated, was now rendered abortive, without summoning him to his defence, condemned Boetius to death. The king, however, apprehending some bad consequence from the execution of a sentence so flagrantly unjust, mitigated it to banishment. The place of his exile was Ticinum, now Pavia, in Italy: being in that place separated from his relations, who had not been permitted to follow him into his retirement, he endeavoured to derive from philosophy those comforts which it was capable of affording to one in his forlorn situation, sequestered from his friends, in the power of his enemies, and at the mercy of a capricious tyrant; and accordingly he there composed that valuable discourse, entitled, *De Consolatione Philosophiæ*. About two years after his banishment, Boetius was beheaded in prison by the command of Theodoric. His tomb is to be seen in the church of St Augustine, at Pavia, near the steps of the chancel. The extensive learning and eloquence of this great man are conspicuous in his works, which seem to have been collected with great care; an edition of them was printed at Venice, in 1 volume folio, in 1479. In 1570, Glareanus, of Basil, collated the work with several MSS. and published it, with a few various readings in the margin. His chief performance, *De Consolatione Philosophiæ*, is well known in the learned world, and to which the afflicted have often applied. Our Saxon king Alfred, whose reign, though happy upon the whole, was attended with great vicissitudes of fortune, had recourse to it at a time when his distresses compelled him to seek retirement; and that he might the better impress upon his mind the noble sentiments inculcated in it, he made a complete translation of it into the Saxon language, which, within a few years, has been given to the world in its proper character. And Camden relates, that Queen Elizabeth, during the time of her confinement by her sister Mary, to mitigate her grief, read and afterwards translated it into very elegant English. Boetius is also the most considerable of all the Latin writers on music; and his treatise *De Musica* supplied for some centuries the want of those Greek MSS. which were supposed to have been lost.

BOFFRAND, Germain, a celebrated French architect, was the son of a sculptor by a sister of the famous Quinault, and was born at Nantes in 1627. He was trained under Hardu'n Mansard, who trusted him with the execution of his greatest works. His manner of building approached to that of Palladio. He was employed by many German princes, and constructed a number of canals, bridges, &c. He was admitted into the French Academy, and wrote a book on the principles of architecture, with an account of the various plans, sections, &c. of the principal works he executed in France and elsewhere. He was a man of a distinguished spirit, and pleasing manners. He died at Paris in 1755, aged 88.

BOG. *n. s.* [*bog*, soft, Irish, *bague*, Fr.] A marsh; a morass; a ground too soft to bear the

VOL. IV. PART I.

weight of the body.—Through fire and through flame, though ford and whirlpool, o'er bog and quagmire. *Shakespeare*.—

A gulf profound! as that Serbonian bog,
Betwixt Damietta and mount Casius old. *Milton*.
—He walks upon bogs and whirlpools; whereforever he treads, he sinks. *South*.—

Learn from so great a wit, a land of bogs
With ditches fenc'd, a haven fat with fogs.

Dryden.

—He is drawn, by a sort of *ignis fatuus*, into bogs and mire almost every day of his life. *Watts*.

(2.) **BOG** properly signifies a quagmire, covered with grass, but not solid enough to support the weight of the body; in which sense it differs only from marshes or fens, as a part from the whole: some even restrain the term *bog* to quagmires pent up between two hills; whereas fens lie in champagne and low countries, where the descent is very small.—To drain boggy lands, a good method is, to make trenches of a sufficient depth to carry off the moisture; and if these are partly filled up with rough stones, and then covered with thorn-bushes and straw, to keep the earth from filling up the interstices, a stratum of good earth and turf may be laid over all; the cavities among the stones will give passage to the water, and the turf will grow at top as if nothing had been done.

(3.) **BOG**, in geography, or **BUG**, a river of Poland, anciently called **HYPANIS**. It rises in Podolia, from whence it runs S. E. through that province and Boziak Tartary; and, after joining the Dnieper, falls into the Black Sea, between Orzakow and the mouth of the Borysthenes.

(4.) **BOG**, or **BOG OF GIGHT**, a small town of Scotland, seated near the mouth of the river Spey. Lon. 2. 23. W. Lat. 57. 48. N.

BOGA, in ichthyology, a fish caught in the Mediterranean, and sold at Naples and Messina, called by authors **BOOPS**. It is a species of *Sparus*.

BOGARMITÆ. See **BOGOMILI**.

* **To BOGGLE**. *v. n.* [from *bogil*, Dutch, a spectre; a bugbear; a phantom.] 1. To start; to fly back; to fear to come forward.—

You boggle shrewdly; every feather starts you. *Shakespeare*.

—We start and boggle at every unusual appearance, and cannot endure the sight of a bugbear. *Granville*.—

Nature, that rude, and in her first essay,

Stood boggling at the roughness of the way;

Us'd to the road, unknowing to return,

Goes boldly on, and loves the path when worn.

Dryden.

2. To hesitate; to be in doubt.—

And never boggle to restore

The members you deliver o'er,

Upon demand.

Hudibras.

—The well-shaped changeling is a man that has a rational soul, say you. Make the ears a little longer, and more pointed, and the nose a little flatter than ordinary, and then you begin to boggle. *Locke*.

3. To play fast and loose; to dissemble. —When summoned to his last end, it was no time for him to boggle with the world. *Howel*.

* **BOGGLER**. *n. s.* [from *boggle*.] A doubter; a timorous man.—

You have been a boggler ever. *Shakespeare*.

N

(1.) * **BOGGY**.

(1.) * **BOGGY**. *adj.* [from *bog*.] Marshy; swampy.—Their country was very narrow, low, and *boggy*, and, by great industry and expences, defended from the sea. *Arbutnct.*

(2.) **BOGGY LANDS**, METHOD OF DRAINING. See **BOG**, § 1. and **DRAINING**.

BOGHO. See **BOGLIO**, No. 1.

* **BOGHOUSE**. *n. f.* [from *bog* and *house*.] A house of office.

BOGIE, a river in Aberdeenshire, which communicates with the Deveron, and along with it runs into the Murray Frith, at Banff.

(1.) **BOGLIO**, or **BUEIL**, a district in the county of Nice, in Piedmont, belonging to the K. of Sardinia. The Tinca runs through it. Some erroneously spell the name **BOGHO**.

(2.) **BOGLIO**, or **BUEIL**, the capital of the above district, (No. 1.) Lon. 6. 45. E. Lat. 44. 12. N.

BOGNOR, a village on the coast of Sussex, near Selsey.

BOGOGNANI, a town in Corsica, the inhabitants of which, in June 1796, made a spirited resistance to some measures of Sir Gilbert Elliot, while he was viceroy of that island, which they deemed inconsistent with the spirit of the New Constitution. Sir Gilbert at first tried coercive measures, but finding that he had been misled, he, much to his honour, stopt hostilities, published a general amnesty, and promised redress.

BOGOMILI, or **BOGARMITÆ**, in church history, a sect of heretics, which sprung up about the year 1179. They held, that the use of churches, of the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, and all prayer, except the Lord's Prayer, ought to be abolished; that the baptism of Catholics is imperfect; that the persons of the Trinity are unequal; and that they oftentimes made themselves visible to those of their sect. They said, that devils dwelt in the churches, and that Satan had resided in the temple of Solomon from the destruction of Jerusalem to their own time.

BOGOTO, the capital of New Grenada in Terra Firma in South America, near which are gold mines. It is subject to Spain. Lon. 73. 55. W. Lat. 4. c. N.

BOGRIELANE, a river of Scotland, in the county of Kirkcudbright.

BOG-SPAVIN. See **FARRIERY**.

* **BOG-TROTTER**. *n. f.* [from *bog* and *trot*.] One that lives in a boggy country.

BOGUD, an ancient king of Mauritania, who is said to have given name to

BOGUDIANA, a part of Mauritania Tingitana, in Africa.

BOHAN, a Reubenite, who appears to have done some great exploits in the conquest of Canaan; a stone having been erected to his honour, on the frontier between Judah and Benjamin. See *Joth.* xv. 6. and xviii. 17.

BOHARM, a parish of Scotland, in the counties of Banff and Moray, to which is joined a part of the parish of Dundurcos. It is between 7 and 9 miles in length, and from 2 to 3 in breadth, but the form of it is quite irregular. The soil is partly sandy, warm, and fertile, and partly a stiff deep rich clay. Oats, barley, and pease are the

principal productions. The climate is moist, but healthy, and longevity is not uncommon. There was one woman near 100, and severals above 80, in 1794. The population was then 1294, as stated by the rev. Mr Leslie, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair; and had increased 459, within the last 40 years. There are considerable clumps of natural wood, interspersed with wild cherry, plum, and other fruit trees, besides extensive plantations of forest trees, in the parish.

(1.) * **BOHEA**. *n. f.* [an Indian word.] A species of tea, of higher colour, and more astringent taste, than green tea.—Coarse pewter, consisting chiefly of lead, is part of the bales in which *bohea* tea was brought from China. *Woodward.*—

As some frail cup of China's fairest mold,
The tumults of the boiling *bohea* braves,
And holds secure the coffee's fable waves.

Tickell.

She went from op'ra, park, assembly, play,
To morning walks, and pray'rs three hours a day;

To part her time 'twixt reading and *bohea*,
To muse and spill her solitary tea. *Pope*

(2.) **BOHEA**. See **THEA**.

(1. 1.) **BOHEMIA**, a kingdom of Europe, 200 m long and 150 broad, subject to the house of Austria, and surrounded on every side with natural ramparts of woods and mountains. It is bounded on the E. by Moravia (which however is annexed to it,) and part of Silesia; on the N. by Lusatia and Upper Saxony; on the W. by Franconia and Bavaria; and on the S. by Austria. Although it is situated in the middle of Germany and its king is an elector of the empire, it has its assemblies, customs, and language, different from the Germans. It is one of the most elevated countries of Europe: for no river enters into it though many have their source there; the chief of which are the Elb, the Oder, the Vistula, and the Morava. The air is cold and unwholesome for they have more epidemical diseases than in the neighbouring countries. There are mines of silver, copper, lead, tin, and some veins of gold, besides diamonds and other precious stones: The capital is Prague; the other cities are Cuttenburg, Konigegretz, Pilsen, Czaflaw, Budweys, Egra, Glat Tabor, and besides, near 100 others, among which almost 40 have the title of Royal. The Roman Catholic is the established religion, though there are many protestants.

(2.) **BOHEMIA**, GOVERNMENT OF. The government of Bohemia differs from that of all other states, the affairs of the state being managed by 4 different courts: viz. 1st, the council of regency or the great royal council, in which presides the great judge or prince-bishop of Bohemia, and who has under him 18 lieutenants of the king and other assessors: 2. the council or superior chamber of justice, at which the great master of the kingdom is president: 3. the chamber of fiefs: 4. the tribunal to judge the appeals of the German vassals in their differences on the account of fiefs; which court has also its president, vice-president, and assessors: 5. the royal chamber of finances, which has a president and vice-president: and, 6. the chancery, which always follows the court. B

side

therans, and afterwards with the Zuinglians, whose opinions from thenceforth they continue to follow.

(4.) BOHEMIAN CHATTERER. See AMPELIS.

(5.) BOHEMIANS. See BOHEMIA, § 3.

BOHOL, one of the Philippine islands in Asia, lying N. of Mindanao. Lon. 122. 5. E. Lat. 10. 0. N.

BOHUR, a wild quadruped of Abyssinia.

BOJA, in antiquity, a collar or chain fastened about the necks of criminals, to prevent their escape.

BOIANO, a town of Italy, in Naples, and county of Molese, with a bishop's see. It is seated at the foot of the Apennines, near the river Terno. Lon. 14. 38. E. Lat. 41. 30. N.

BOIARDO, Matteo Maria, of Ferrara, count of Scandiano, celebrated for his Italian poems, lived in the 15th century. His principal work is his *Orlando innamorato*. His Latin eclogues and sonnets are also much admired.

BOIARS, Russian noblemen. See RUSSIA.

BOICININGA, in zoology, the name given by the Brazilians to the rattle-snake.

BOIEMUM, in ancient geography, a part of Germany, surrounded with the Montes Sudeti, now called BOHEMIA. It took its name from the Boii, a people of Gaul, who removed thither before Cæsar's expedition into that country, though he seems to err in the name.

BOIGUACU, in zoology, a synonyme of the boa constrictor. See BOA, No. II. § 3.

(1.) BOII, a people of Gallia Celtica, who inhabited the country extending from the Ligeris to the Elaver; whence came the Boii of Gallia Cisalpina, whose migration is related by Livy.

(2.) BOII. See BOHEMIA, § 3. These people after being driven out by the Marcomanni, settled in the west of Vindelicra, which was afterwards called BAYERN, and hence the name BAVARIA.

(1.) * BOIL. *n. f.* See BILE.

(2.) BOIL, or FURUNCLE. See MEDICINE, and SURGERY, INDEXES.

(1.) * To BOIL. *v. a.* To heat, by putting into boiling water; to seeth.—To try whether seeds be old or new, the sense cannot inform; but if you *boil* them in water, the new seeds will sprout sooner. Bacon.—In eggs *boiled* and roasted, into which the water entereth not at all, there is scarce any difference to be discerned. Bacon.

(2.) * To BOIL. *v. n.* [*bouiller*, Fr. *bullio*, Lat.]

1. To be agitated by heat; to fluctuate with heat.

He saw there *boil* the fiery whirlpools.

Chapman.

—Suppose the earth removed, and placed nearer to the sun, in the orbit of Mercury, there the whole ocean would *boil* with extremity of heat. Bentley.

2. To be hot; to be fervent, or effervescent.—

That strength with which my *boiling* youth was fraught,

When in the vale of Balasor I fought. Dryden.

Well I knew,

What perils youthful ardour would pursue,

That *boiling* blood would carry thee too far.

Dryden.

3. To move with an agitation like that of boiling

—

Then headlong shoots beneath the dashing tide,

The trembling fins the *boiling* waves divide.

Gay.

4. To be in hot liquor, in order to be made tender by the heat.—

Fillet of a fenny snake,

In the cauldron *boil* and bake. Shakespeare.

5. To cook by boiling.—If you live in a rich family, roasting and *boiling* are below the dignity of your office, and which it becomes you to be ignorant of. Swift. 6. To *boil over*. To run over the vessel with heat.—A few soft words and a kiss, and the good man melts; see how nature works and *boils over* in him. Congreve.—This hollow was a vast cauldron, filled with melted matter, which, as it *boiled over* in any part, ran down the sides of the mountain. Addison on Italy.

* BOILARY. *n. f.* [from *To boil*.] A place at the salt works where the salt is boiled.

BOILEAU, SIEUR DESPREAUX, Nicholas, the celebrated French poet, was born at Paris in 1636. After he had gone through his course of study, his relations engaged him to the law, and he was admitted advocate. But though he had all the talents necessary for the bar, yet he could not adapt himself to a science which turns upon continual equivocations, and often obliges those who follow it to clothe falsehood in the garb of truth. He therefore determined to study theology; but he could not long endure the thorns of school divinity. He imagined, that chicanery, which he thought to avoid, had only changed her habit; so he renounced the Sorbonne, betook himself to the belles lettres, and took possession of one of the tops of Parnassus. The public gave his works the encomium they deserved; and Lewis XIV. not only had his works read to him as he composed them, but settled a pension of 2000 livres upon him, and gave him the privilege of printing all his works. He was afterwards chosen a member of the French academy. He was as remarkable for his integrity, his innocence, and diffusive benevolence, as for the keenness of his satires. He died of a dropsy on the 2d March 1711, in the 75th year of his age. The *Lutrin* of Boileau, still considered by some French critics of the present time, as the best poem to which France has given birth, was first published in 1647. Voltaire, however, justly confesses the *Lutrin* inferior to the Rape of the Lock. Few poets can be so properly compared as Pope and Boileau; and, wherever their writings will admit of comparison, we may, without any national partiality, judge the superiority to the English bard. These two great authors resembled each other as much in the integrity of their lives, as in the subjects and execution of their several compositions. There are two actions recorded of Boileau, which sufficiently prove that this inexorable satirist had a most generous and friendly heart. 1. When Patru, the celebrated advocate, who was ruined by his passion for literature, found himself under the painful necessity of selling his expensive library, and had almost agreed to part with it for a moderate sum, Boileau gave him a much superior price; and, after paying the money, added this condition to the purchase, that Patru should retain, during his

his life, the possession of the books. The other instance is yet nobler: when it was rumoured at court, that the king intended to retrench the pension of Corneille, Boileau hastened to Madam de Meneplan, and said, that his sovereign, equitable as he was, could not, without injustice, grant a pension to an author like himself, just ascending Parnassus, and take it from Corneille, who had been seated on the summit; that he entreated, for the honour of the king, to preserve his majesty rather to strike off *his* pension, than to withdraw that reward from a man whose merit was incomparably greater; and that he could more easily console himself under the loss of his pension, than under the affliction of being driven away from such a poet as Corneille. This anonymous application had the success which it deserved, and it appears the more noble, that the friend of Corneille was the intimate friend of Boileau. The long unreserved intercourse which subsisted between our poet and Racine was both beneficial and honourable to both. The dying farewell of the latter is the most expressive eulogy on the private character of Boileau: "Je regarde comme un bonheur pour moi, de mourir avec vous," said the tender Racine, in taking a leave of his faithful and generous friend.

BOILER. *n. s.* [from *boil*.] 1. The person who boils any thing.—That such alterations of material matter are not impossible, seems evident from that notable practice of the *boilers* of Aleppo. *Boyle*. 2. The vessel in which any thing is boiled.—This coffee-room is much frequented; and there are generally several pots and *boilers* above the fire. *Woodward*.

BOILING, or EBULLITION, the bubbling up of any fluid. The term is most commonly applied to that bubbling which happens by the application of fire, though that which ensues on the mixture of an acid and alkali is sometimes also distinguished by the same name. Boiling, in general, is occasioned by the discharge of an elastic fluid through the vessel which is said to boil; and the appearance is the same, whether it is common air, fixed air, or steam, that makes its way through the fluid. The boiling of water is proved by Dr Hamilton of Dublin, in his essay on the ascent of vapour, to be occasioned by the lowermost particles of the water being heated and rarified into vapour by reason of the vicinity of the bottom of the containing vessel in consequence of which, being greatly inferior in specific gravity to the surrounding fluid, they ascend with great velocity, and lacerating and pushing up the body of water in their ascent, give it the convulsive motion called *boiling*. That this is occasioned by steam, and not by particles of fire, as some have imagined, may be very easily proved in the following manner: Let a common drinking glass be filled with hot water, and inverted into a vessel of the same: as soon as the water in the glass begins to boil, large bubbles will be observed to ascend in the glass, which will displace the water in it, and in a short time there will be a continual bubbling from under its edge; but if the glass is then drawn up, so that its mouth may not touch the water, and a cloth dipt in cold water be applied to the outside, the steam within will be instantly condensed, and the water will

ascend so as to fill it entirely, or very nearly so. See **EVAPORATION**.

(2.) **BOILING**, in dyeing, a method of trying the goodness of a colour or dye. The stuff is to be boiled in water with certain drugs, different according to the kind or quality of the colour, to try whether it will discharge, and give a tincture to the water. With this view crimson silks are boiled with alum, and scarlets with soap, in quantity equal to the weight of the silk. See § 5.

(3.) **BOILING**, in the culinary art, is a method of dressing meats by coction in hot water, intended to soften them, and dispose them for easier digestion. The effects of boiling are different according to the kinds and qualities of the water. Pulse boiled in sea water grow harder; mutton boiled in the same becomes softer and tenderer than in fresh water, but tastes saltish and bitter.

(4.) **BOILING**, in trade and manufactures, is a preparation given to divers sorts of bodies by making them pass over the fire, chiefly in water, though sometimes in other liquors. In this sense we speak of the boiling of salt, sugar, copperas, linens, &c. See **BLEACHING**, **INDEX**.

(5.) **BOILING OF SILK WITH SOAP** is the first preparation for dyeing it. Thread is also boiled in a strong lixivium of ashes to prepare it for dyeing.

(6.) **BOWLING TO DEATH** (*caldariis decoquere*), in the middle age, was a punishment inflicted on thieves, false coiners, and some other criminals.

(7.) **BOILING WELLS**, in natural history. See **BURNING SPRINGS**, and **ICELAND**.

BOINITZ, or BOITNITZ, a town of Upper Hungary, in the county of Zell, remarkable for its baths and the quantity of saffron that grows about it. Lon. 19. 10. E. Lat. 48. 42. N.

BOIOBA, or BOIOBI, in zoology, a species of serpent found in America, and called by the Portuguese *corba de verb*. It is about an ell in length, of the thickness of a man's thumb, and is all over of a very beautiful and shining green. Its mouth is very large, and its tongue black. It is fond of frequenting houses, and never injures any creature unless provoked or hurt; but it will then bite, and its poison is very fatal. The natives take as a remedy against its poison, the root *caa apia* bruised and mixed with water. See **CAA APIA**.

BOIOCALUS, an ancient German hero, of a most patriotic and disinterested spirit. See **ANSIBARII**.

BOIORUM DESERTA, a district of Pannonia, so called from the excision of the Boii by the Getae. It lay towards Stiria, E. of mount **CETIUS**, or the Hahlenberg, and to the south of **VINDOBONA** or Vienna. It is now called **WEINERWALD**, in Lower Austria.

BOIQUIRA, the American name for the rattle-snake.

BOISACK, a district in Forfarshire.

BOIS DE COISSI, in botany, a South American tree growing about Surinam, held in the highest estimation by the Indians in that part of the world, and now recommended to the physicians in Europe, by Dr Fermin in a treatise lately published at Amsterdam. The root is esteemed an excellent stomachic,

chic, restoring the appetite, and assisting digestion; but it is chiefly celebrated as an infallible remedy against even the most inveterate intermittents. It is said also to be used with great safety and advantage in every species of remittent and continued fever, by patients of all ages, sexes, and conditions, even during pregnancy, and in the puerperal state. Before employing it, however, it is absolutely necessary to administer either a purgative or emetic. The best method of exhibiting it is in decoction: half an ounce of the bark of the root must be boiled in a close vessel with six pints of water till one half be consumed; the decoction is then strained off, and a cupful taken every two hours till the fever is entirely extinguished. Six or seven days after a cure is thus performed, it is generally necessary to repeat the purgative.

BOIS DE SOIGNIES, a forest of France, in the ci-devant Austrian Netherlands, about 3 miles S. E. of Brussels, in one of the new departments lately annexed to the French republic.

BOISEAU, a French corn measure; that of Rochelle, is equal to two bushels and half a peck English; that of Bourdeaux somewhat less.

BOIS-LE-DUC, called by the Dutch **HERTOGENBOSCH**, a large, strong, and handsome town of the Netherlands, in Dutch Brabant, seated between the rivers Dommel and Aa, among morasses. It lies 22 m. E. by N. of Breda; 17 W. of Grave; 45 N. E. of Antwerp, and 45 S. S. E. of Amsterdam. Long. 5. 16. E. Lat. 51. 40. N.

BOISSARD, John James, a famous antiquarian, born at Besançon. He published several collections which are of great use to such as wish to understand the Roman antiquities. He had a great passion for this study; and drew with his own hand plans of all the ancient monuments of Italy. He died at Mentz, October 30th, 1602. His principal works are, 1. Four volumes in folio of Roman antiquities, adorned with plates engraved by Theodore de Bey and his two sons. 2. *Theatrum vite humane*; which contains the lives of 198 famous persons, with their portraits. 3. A treatise *de divinatione & magicis præstigiis*. These works are scarce, and esteemed by the antiquarians.

* **BOISTEROUS**. *adj.* [*byster*, furious, Dutch.]

1. Violent; loud; roaring; stormy.—

By a divine instinct, mens minds mistrust
Ensuing danger; as by proof we see
The waters swell before a *boisterous* storm. *Shakesp.*
As when loud winds a well-grown oak would
rend

Up by the roots, this way and that they bend
His reeling trunk, and with a *boist'rous* sound
Scatter his leaves, and strew them on the ground.
Waller.

2. Turbulent; tumultuous; furious.—

Spirit of peace,
Wherefore do you so ill translate yourself
Out of the speech of peace, that bears such grace,
Into the harsh and *boist'rous* tongue of war?
Shakespeare.

His sweetness won a more regard
Unto his place, than all the *boist'rous* moods
That ignorant greatness practiseth. *Ben. Jonson.*
God, into the hands of their deliverer,
Puts invincible might,

To quell the mighty of the earth, th' oppressor,
The brute and *boist'rous* force of violent men.
Milton.

Still must I beg thee not to name Sempronius:
Lucia, I like not that loud *boisterous* man. *Addij.*

3. Unwieldy; clumsily violent.—

His *boisterous* club, so buried in the ground,
He could not rearen up again so light,
But that the knight him at advantage found.
Fairy Queen.

4. It is used by *Woodward* of heat; violent.—
When the sun hath gained a greater strength, the
heat becomes too powerful and *boisterous* for
them. *Natural History.*

* **BOISTEROUSLY**. *adv.* [from *boisterous*.]
Violently; tumultuously.—

A sceptre snatch'd with an unruly hand,
Must be as *boisterously* maintain'd, as gain'd.
Shakspeare.

—Those are all remains of the universal deluge,
when the water of the ocean, being *boisterously*
turned out upon the earth, bore along with it all
moveable bodies. *Woodward*.—Another faculty
of the intellect comes *boisterously* in, and wakes me
from so pleasing a dream. *Swift.*

* **BOISTEROUSNESS**. *n. s.* [from *boisterous*.]
The state or quality of being boisterous; tumultu-
ousness; turbulence.

BOIT, an excellent painter in enamel. He
was born in Stockholm, and bred a jeweller,
which profession he intended to follow in Eng-
land; but changed his design, and went into the
country, where he taught children to draw. He
there engaged a gentleman's daughter, who was
one of his scholars, to promise him marriage; but
the affair being discovered, he was thrown into
prison. In that confinement, which lasted two
years, he studied enamelling; an art to which he
adhered, on his return to London, and practised
with great success. The prices he is said to have
obtained for his work are almost incredible: but
being engaged in a very large design for the court
and Queen Anne dying before it was completed,
he ran in debt, his goods were seized by execu-
tion, and he fled to France; where he changed
his religion, was countenanced by the regent, and
obtained a pension of L. 230 *per annum*, but died
suddenly at Paris in 1726. There is a large piece
done by him at Kensington, representing Queen
Anne sitting, and Prince George standing by her
and at Bedford-house is another very large piece
of the duke's father and mother.

BOITJAPO, in zoology, a species of serpent
found in America; and called by the Portuguese
there, **COBRA DI CAPO**. It grows to 7 or 8 feet
long, is about the thickness of a man's arm, and
very small and taper towards the tail. Its back
is of an olive colour; its belly yellow, and cover-
ed with very regular and elegant triangular scales.
It feeds on frogs, &c. but is poisonous, and its
bite extremely fatal.

BOITNITZ. See **BOINITZ**.

BOKHARA, a city of Tartary in Asia, and capi-
tal of Great Bukharia, situated one days journey
to the N. of the river Jehun, or Amu. In 1219
it was besieged by Jenghiz Khan, as being part
of Sultan Mohammed's dominions a descendant
of the famous Mahmud Gazari. At that time
betwixt

besides the city-walls, which were very strong, Bokhara had an outward inclosure 12 leagues in compass; which shut in not only the suburbs, but also many pleasant seats and farms watered by the river Soghd, from whence the ancient Sogdiana took its name. The Mogul army arrived before the place in July, and continued the siege during the following winter. In March 1220, they forced the outer wall, and began to besiege the city in form. Sultan Mohammed had left in the city a very numerous garrison under the command of three generals, who made a sally at the head of 20,000 men: but being repulsed with great loss, their courage failed them; and, instead of staying to defend the inhabitants, as soon as they had got into the city by one gate, passed out by another with their families, and almost all their soldiers, hoping to escape by the darkness of the night; but their design being discovered, they were pursued by a detachment of 30,000 Moguls; and being overtaken at the Amu, they were, after a bloody dispute, almost all cut to pieces. Meantime, Jenghiz Khan, being informed of the confusion into which the city had been thrown by the desertion of the garrison, ordered an attack to be made on all sides at once; but while he was preparing for this, the magistrates and clergy went out and presented him with the keys of the city. Jenghiz Khan granted them their lives, on condition that they gave no shelter to any of the sultan's soldiers, and put out all who should be suspected of being in that prince's interest; which they promised to do upon oath. All the young people, however, who were displeased with the sultan, retired with the governor to the castle, which was very strong, and resolved to defend it to the last extremity. Jenghiz Khan, having taken possession of Bokhara, entered on the back to the great mosque, and asked merrily if that was the sultan's palace? On being answered that it was the house of God, he alighted; and giving the principal magistrate his horse to hold, entered the gallery where the ecclesiastics usually sit, and then taking up the Koran, threw it under the feet of his horses. Having staid there for some time, he retired to his camp; where, some days after, having assembled the principal people of Bokhara, and ascended a pulpit erected for that purpose in the midst of them, he began his speech praising God, and recounted all the favours he had received from the Almighty: he then mentioned the perfidious behaviour of the sultan towards himself, telling them that God had sent him to rid the world of such wicked men. As to the sultan, he testified his satisfaction for their having furnished his army with necessaries; and promised that his soldiers should not meddle with the goods which they made use of in their houses; but commanded them to deliver up what they had hidden, under pain of being tortured. The speech had such an effect, that the poor inhabitants delivered up every thing, as well what they had concealed as what they had present use for. Notwithstanding which, the tyrant soon afterwards caused the city to be burnt, on pretence that some of the sultan's soldiers were concealed in it. All the houses were made of wood, except the sultan's palace which was built of stone, and some

few private houses of brick, the whole was utterly consumed; and Jenghiz Khan having found some few soldiers that had actually concealed themselves, put them all to death without mercy. The castle surrendered at discretion soon after; and though it was demolished, the governor and garrison, out of a very extraordinary piece of clemency from so bloody a tyrant, had their lives spared. Bokhara continued in ruins for some years, but at length Jenghiz Khan ordered it to be rebuilt. It is now large and populous; and is the residence of a khan who is altogether despotic, though his power reaches but a little way without the city. The town is seated on a rising ground, with a slender wall of earth and a dry ditch. The houses are low, built mostly of mud; but the caravanseras and mosques, which are numerous, are all of brick. The bazars or market-places, which have been stately buildings, are now mostly in ruins. The inhabitants are more civilized and polite than some of their neighbours; and yet are cowardly, cruel, effeminate and very perfidious. Great numbers of Jews and Arabians frequent this place, though they are much oppressed, and frequently deprived of all their properties by the khan or his attendants. At best they pay heavy taxes, and it is almost criminal to be rich. Lon. 65. 50. E. Lat. 39. 15. N.

BOKHARIA. See BUKHARIA.

BOKILING, *adj.* duckling. *Chauc.*

(1.) BOL, anciently called *BOREL*, a town in Cumberland which has an ancient castle.

(2.) BOL, Ferdinand, a celebrated painter of history and portraits, born at Dort in 1611, and educated at Amsterdam. He studied in the school of the celebrated Rembrant Gerretz, and imitated the style of his master with success both in pictures and engravings. Bol's etchings are bold and free. The lights and shadows in them are broad and powerful, which renders the effect striking; but they want that lightness of touch and admirable taste which those of Rembrant possess. Bol died at Dort, the place of his birth, in 1681, aged 70.

(3.) BOL, Hans, or John, a painter born at Mechlin in 1534. He went to Heidelberg, and employed himself in copying pictures of eminent artists. His subjects are chiefly landscapes with animals; but he also sometimes painted history, with success: a set of his landscapes, views in Holland, are extant, slightly etched, but in a style that indicates the hand of a master. He died in 1593.

BOLABOLA, one of the Society Islands.

BOLÆ. See BOLENE.

BOLAM, a village in Northumberland, 5 m S. W. or Morpeth.

BOLANDISTS. See next article.

BOLANDUS, John, a famous Jesuit, born at Tillemont in the Netherlands, in 1596. He distinguished himself by writing the lives of the saints, under the title of *Acta Sanctorum*, of which he published 5 volumes in folio; but died while he was labouring at the 6th, aged 70. The continuators of this work are called BOLANDISTS.

* BOLARY. *adj.* [from *bole*.] Partaking of the nature of bole, or clay.—A weak and inanimate kind of loadstone, with a few magnetical lines, but

but chiefly consisting of a *bolary* and clammy substance. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*

(1.) BOLAS, in botany, bullace, a wild plum. *Obf. Cbauc.*

(2.) BOLAS, in geography, a village in Shropshire, 7 m. N. W. of Newport.

BOLBITINUM, in ancient geography, the 2d mouth of the Nile reckoning from W. to E. now very small, choaked up with sand, and called LE BRAS DE BELTIN.

BOLBONACH, in botany, a name given by some to the fatten flower.

BOLBROKE, a village in Suffex, 3 miles from E. Grinstead.

(1.) * BOLD. *adj.* [*bald*, Saxon.] 1. Daring; brave; stout; courageous; magnanimous; fearless; intrepid.—The wicked flee when no man pursueth; but the righteous are *bold* as a lion. *Proverbs.*—I have seen the councils of a noble country grow *bold*, or timorous, according to the fits of his good or ill health that managed them. *Temple.* 2. Executed with spirit, and without mean caution.—These, nervous, *bold*; those, languid and remiss. *Roscommon.*—The cathedral church is a very *bold* work, and a master-piece of Gothic architecture. *Addison on Italy.* 3. Confident; not scrupulous; not timorous.—We were *bold* in our God to speak unto you the gospel of God with much contention. 1 *Thessalonians.*—I can be *bold* to say, that this age is adorned with some men of that judgment, that they could open new and undiscovered ways to knowledge. *Locke.* 4. Impudent; rude.—In thy prosperity he will be as thyself, and will be *bold* over thy servants. If thou be brought low, he will be against thee. *Ecclesi.* 5. Licentious; such as shew great liberty of fiction, or expression.—The figures are *bold* even to temerity. *Cowley.*—

Which no *bold* tales of gods or monsters swell,
But human passions, such as with us dwell.

Waller.

6. Standing out to the view; striking to the eye.—Catachreses and hyperboles are to be used judiciously, and placed in poetry, as heightnings and shadows in painting, to make the figure *bold*er, and cause it to stand off to sight. *Dryden.* 7. Open; smooth; even; level: a sailor's term.—Her dominions have *bold* accessible coasts. *Howel.* 8. To make *bold*. To take freedoms: a phrase not grammatical, though common. To be *bold* is better; as, *I was bold* to tell the house that scandalous livings make scandalous ministers. *Ridgerd.*—

I have *made bold* to send to your wife;

My suit is, that she will to Desdemona

Procure me some access.

Shakes.

Making so bold,

My fears forgetting manners, to unseal

Their grand commission.

Shakes.

And were y' as good as George a Green,

I shall *make bold* to turn agen.

Hudibras.

—I durst not *make thus bold* with Ovid, lest some future Milbourn should arise. *Dryden.*—Some men have the fortune to be esteemed wits, only for *making bold* to scoff at these things, which the greatest part of mankind reverence. *Tillotson.*

(2.) BOLD, a place in the county of Peebles, and parish of Traquair.

(3.) BOLD, a village in Lancashire, S. E. of Preicot.

BOLDEN, a town in Durham, 2 miles from Sunderland, and 3 from Shields.

* To BOLDEN. *v. a.* [from *bold*.] To make bold; to give confidence.—Quick inventors, and fair ready speakers, being *boldened* with their present abilities, to say more, and perchance better too, at the sudden, for that present, than any other can do, use less help of diligence and study. *Ascham's Schoolmaster.*—

I am much too vent'rous,

In tempting of your patience; but am *bolden'd*

Under your promis'd pardon. *Shakespeare*

BOLDERHURST, a village in the New Forest Hampshire.

* BOLDFACE. *n. s.* [from *bold* and *face*.] Impudence; sauciness: a term of reproach and reprehension.—How, now, *boldface!* cries an old trot; firrah, we eat our own hens, I'd have you know; what you eat, you steal. *L'Estrange.*

* BOLD FACED. *adj.* [from *bold* and *face*.] Impudent.—I have seen those filliciest of creatures, and, seeing their rare works, I have seen enough to confute all the *boldfaced* atheists of this age. *Bramhall against Hobbes.*

* BOLDLY. *adv.* [from *bold*.] 1. In a bold manner; with courage; with spirit.—Thus we may *boldly* speak, being strengthened with the example of so reverend a prelate. *Hooker.*—

I speak to subjects, and a subject speaks,

Stirr'd up by heav'n, thus *boldly* for his king.

Shakespeare

2. It may perhaps be sometimes used in a bad sense, for *impudently*.

* BOLDNESS. *n. s.* [from *bold*.] 1. Courage; bravery; intrepidity; spirit; fortitude; magnanimity; daringness.—Her horse she rid so, as might shew a fearful *boldness*, daring to do that, which she knew not how to do. *Sidney.* 2. Exemption from caution, and scrupulous nicety.—The *boldness* of the figures is to be hidden, sometimes in the address of the poet, that they may work the effect upon the mind. *Dryden.* 3. Freedom; liberty.—Great is my *boldness* of speech toward you, great is my glorying in you. 2 *Corinth.* 4. Confident trust in God.—Our fear excludeth not the *boldness* which becometh saints. *Hooker.*—We have *boldness* and access with confidence, by the faith of him. *Ephesians.*—Having therefore *boldness* to enter into the holiest by the blood of Jesus. *Heb.* 5. Assurance; freedom from bashfulness; confident mien.—Wonderful is the case of *boldness* in civil business; what first? *Boldness.* What second? *Boldness.* And yet *boldness* is a child of ignorance, and baseness, far inferior to other parts. *Bacon.*—

Sure if the guilt were theirs, they could not charge thee

With such a gallant *boldness*: if 'twere thine,

Thou couldst not hear't with such a silent scorn.

Denham

—His distance, though it does not instruct him to think wiser than other princes, yet it helps him to speak with more *boldness* what he thinks. *Temple.*

—*Boldness* is the power to speak or do what we intend, before others, without fear or disorder.

Locke.

urine, nauseous milk, swellings of the abdomen, inflammations of the bowels, stoppages, diarrhoeas, and death. In sheep they bring on a schirrhous liver, a cough, a general wasting, and dropsy. *Scarabs, dermestes*, and many other insects, feed upon and breed in them abundantly.

2. *BOLETUS IGNIARIUS*, or touchwood spunk, is frequent on the trunks of old trees of all kinds, especially ash. It consists of a very hard woody substance, in shape like a horse's hoof, and grows of various sizes, from a man's fist to that of his head and larger. The upper side is smooth, but uneven, distinguished near the rim by elevated zones of different colours, brown, grey, tawny, &c. The flesh is of a tawny brown colour, extremely hard and tough. This fungus is made use of in Germany and some parts of England for tinder. The Germans boil it in strong ley, dry it and boil it again in solution of saltpetre. The Laplanders burn it about their habitations, in order to keep off a species of the gadfly which is fatal to the young reindeer. It has been used to stop the bleeding of the vessels after amputations. (*Phil. Transf. vol. xlviii. p. 2.*) For this purpose the hard outer part is cut off, and the soft inner substance is beat with a hammer to make it still softer. It is best when gathered in August or September.

3. *BOLETUS PINI LARICIS*, or agaric of the shops, grows on old larch trees. This fungus is an irregular spongy substance, extremely light, and of an uniform snowy whiteness, except the cortical part, which is usually taken off before the agaric is brought into the shops. It cuts freely with a knife, without discovering any hardness or grittiness, and readily crumbles betwixt the fingers into a powder. It has no remarkable smell; its taste is at first sweetish; but on chewing for a short time, it proves acrid, bitter, and nauseous. Agaric was formerly in great esteem as a cathartic, but the present practice has almost entirely rejected its use. It is now rejected both by the London and Edinburgh Colleges, but it still retains a place in most of the new foreign Pharmacopœias. It operates exceeding slowly, inasmuch that some have denied it to have any purgative virtue at all. Given in substance, it almost always occasions a nausea, not unfrequently vomiting, and sometimes excessive tormina of the bowels: these effects are attributed to its light farinaceous matter adhering to the coats of the intestines, and producing a constant irritation. The best preparation of agaric seems to be an extract made with water, in which fixt alkaline salt has been dissolved; or with vinegar or wine: the first is said by Boulduc, and the two latter by Newmann, to prove an effectual and safe purgative. But it is at best a precarious medicine, of which we stand in no need.

4. *BOLETUS SUBEROSUS*, or white cork spunk, grows commonly on the trunks of birch and willow trees in England and Scotland. It grows sessile and horizontal; its figure is semicircular; the upper side convex, the under nearly plain; of various sizes, from that of an ass's hoof to a peck measure. The upper surface is quite white, generally covered with a short strong down, but sometimes smooth. The internal substance is white, tough, light, and spongy, like cork; sometimes cut and shaped by the country

people, and used as corks in their bottles: but such corks must not be suffered to touch the liquid, for moisture soon renders them soft and useless.

BOLEYN, Ann, queen of Henry VIII. of England; memorable in the English history, as the first cause of the reformation, as the mother of queen Elizabeth under whom it was completely established, and on account of her own sufferings. She was the daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn, and born in 1507. She was carried into France at 7 years of age by Henry VIII's sister, the wife of Lewis XII: nor did she return into England when that queen retired thither after the death of her husband; but staid in the service of queen Claudia, the wife of Francis I. and after the death of that princess went to the duchess of Alençon. The year of her return is not well known; some will have it to have been in 1527, others in 1525.— This much is certain, that she was maid of honour to queen Catharine of Spain, Henry VIII's first wife; and that the king fell vastly in love with her. She behaved with so much art and address, that by refusing to satisfy his passion, she brought him to think of marrying her: and the king persuaded that he should never enjoy her unless he made her his wife, was induced to set on foot the divorce of Catharine, which at last was executed with great solemnity. A celebrated author observes, that "That which would have been very praiseworthy on another occasion, was Ann Boleyn's chief crime: since her refusing to comply with an amorous king, unless he would divorce his wife, was a much more enormous crime, than to have been his concubine. A concubine (says he) would not have dethroned a queen, nor taken her crown or her husband from her; whereas the crafty Ann Boleyn, by pretending to be chaste and scrupulous, aimed only at the usurpation of the throne, and the exclusion of Catharine of Arragon and her daughter from all the honours due to them." In the mean time, Henry could not procure a divorce from the Pope; which made him resolve at length to disown his authority, and throw off his yoke. He married Ann Boleyn privately upon the 14th of November 1532, and as soon as he perceived that his new wife was with child, he made his marriage public. He caused Ann Boleyn to be declared queen of England on Easter-eve 1533, and to be crowned the 1st of June following. She was brought to bed on the 7th September of a daughter, who was afterwards queen Elizabeth; and continued to be much beloved by Henry till the charms of Jane Seymour fired that tyrant's heart in 1536. Then his love for his wife was changed into violent hatred: he believed or pretended that he believed her to be unchaste, and caused her to be imprisoned and tried. "She was indicted of high treason, for that she had procured her brother and other four to lie with her, which they had done often: that she had said to them, that the king never had her heart; and had said to every one of them by themselves, that she loved him better than any person whatever; which was to the slander of the issue that was begotten between the king and her. And this was treason according to the statute made in the 26th year of this reign; so that the law which was made for her

her and the issue of her marriage, is now made use of to destroy her." She was condemned to be either burnt or beheaded; and she underwent the latter on the 19th of May 1536. The right rev. author of the *History of the Reformation*, relates some very remarkable things of her behaviour during the time of her imprisonment, and a little before her execution. When she was imprisoned, she is said to have acted very different parts; sometimes seeming devout and shedding abundance of tears, then all of a sudden breaking out into a loud laughter. A few hours before her death, she said, that the executioner was very handy: and besides, that she had a very small neck; at the same time, feeling it with her hands, and laughing heartily. However, it is agreed that she died with great resolution; taking care to spread her gown about her feet, that she might fall with decency; as the poets have related of Polyxena, and the historians of Julius Cæsar. Roman-catholick writers have taken all occasion to rail at this unhappy woman, as well through vexation at the schism which she occasioned, as for the sake of dishonouring queen Elizabeth; and they have triumphed greatly, that in the long reign of that queen, no endeavours were used to justify her mother. But Q. Elizabeth and her ministers are to be commended for prudence in this respect; since Ann Boleyn's justification could not have been carried on without discovering some things, which must have been prejudicial to the queen, and have weakened her right instead of establishing it. For though the representations of the papists are in no wise to be regarded, yet many things might have been said to the disadvantage of her mother; as that she was a woman gay even to immodesty, indiscreet in the liberties she took, and of an irregular and contentious behaviour.

(1.) **BOLINGBROKE**, Lord Viscount. See **ST JOHN**.

2.) **BOLINGBROKE**, or **BULLINGBROKE**, a town of Lincolnshire in England, and of great antiquity, but now in a mean condition. It is 29 m. E. of Lincoln. Lon. 0. 40. E. Lat. 53. 15. N.

BOLINTHOS, in natural history, a name given by Aristotle, and some of the other ancient Greeks, to the **MONOPS** of Ælian, or the **BONA-**

* **BOLIS**. *n. f.* [Latin.] *Bolis* is a great fiery ball, swiftly hurried through the air, and generally leaving a tail after it. Aristotle calls it *capra*. There have often been immense balls of this kind. *X. Ambroek.*

BOLISLAW, a town of Germany, in Bohemia, 22 m. N. E. of Prague, seated on the Sizer. Lon. 14. 35. E. Lat. 50. 25. N.

BOLKOWITZ, a town of Silesia, in the duchy of Glogaw. Lon. 15. 20. E. Lat. 51. 27. N.

1.) * **BOLL**. *n. f.* A round stalk or stem; as, a *ball* of flax.

(2.) **BOLL**, in geography, a village in Nottinghamshire, near Gainsborough.

(3.) **BOLL**, *n. f. obs.* a bowl; a bottle. *Chauc.*

* **To BOLL**. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To rise in a fall—And the flax and the barley was smitten: for the barley was in the ear, and the flax was in the field. *Exodus.*

BOLLANDUS. See **BOLANDUS**.

BOLLARDS, large posts set into the ground on each side of a dock. On docking or undocking ships, large blocks are lashed to them; and through these blocks are reeved the transporting hawsers to be brought to the capstons.

(1.) **BOLLIN**, a river in Cheshire.

(2.) **BOLLIN**, or **BOLN**, *adj. obs.* Swoln. *Chauc.*
BOLLINGTON, a village in Cheshire, near Macclesfield.

BOLLISDON, a hamlet in Northumberland, near Woller.

BOLLISTO, a village in Cornwall, near the Land's End.

BOLLITO, a name by which the Italians call a sea-green colour in artificial crystal. To prepare this colour, put into the furnace a pot filled with 40lb. of good crystal, first carefully skimmed, boiled, and purified, without any manganese: then take 12 ounces of the powder of small leaves of copper thrice calcined, and half an ounce of zaffre in powder: mix them together, and put them at 4 times into the pot, that they may the better mix with the glass; stirring them well each time of putting in the powder, lest the mixture should swell and run over.

BOLLMONG, *n. f.* a medley of different grain.

BOLLOS, in the mines of Peru, a name given to the bars of silver procured there from the ore, by the operation of fire and aqua fortis.

To BOLNE, *v. a. obs.* To swell. *Chauc.*

BOLNEY, the name of 3 villages, viz. 1. in Norfolkshire, near Cressingham Parva. 2. in Oxfordshire, near Henley: and 3. in Sussex, near Cuckfield. It has fairs May 17, and Dec. 10.

BOLNHURST, a village in Bedfordshire between Woodhill and Bush-Mead.

(1.) **BOLOGNA**, an ancient, rich and populous city of Italy, the capital of the Bolognese, (See N. 2.) lately in the territories of the pope, but now included in the new Italian republic of **CISPADANA**. Its ancient name was **FELSINA**.—It is 5 miles in circumference, and contains about 80,000 inhabitants. It has been long distinguished for the sciences, and its university and academy are much esteemed. Its paintings are reckoned next to those of Rome, and its museum is furnished with almost all that is curious in nature and art. It likewise exhibits the finest monuments of architecture; particularly in the palace of Caprara; the marble fountain in the Place del Gigante, by Giovanni; and the leaning towers of Asinelli and Garisendi. It has 169 churches, (in one of which is Cassini's meridian line, 180 feet long,) and a vast number of palaces: the private houses are also well built. All the gates and windows are open during the summer. The gardens are planted with vast numbers of orange trees that perfume the air. It is a place of great trade, which is in some measure owing to a canal that runs from this city to the river Po. The Reno, which runs near Bologna, turns 400 mills that are employed in the silk-works; the natives deal in wax, soap, hams, sausages, and lap-dogs, which are greatly esteemed. Bologna is seated at the foot of the Apennine mountains, 22 m. S. E. of Modena, and 175 N. W. of Rome. Lon. 11. 26. E. Lat. 44. 30. N.

(2.) **BOLOGNA**, or the **BOLOGNESE**, one of the independent

the Italian States, now forming, along with Modena and Reggio, the new republic of Cisalpine Italy, which was constituted by a congress at Modena in October 1796; and approved or unanimously, by delegates of the nations, at another Congress held at Lyons in Dec. following. The plan of Cisalpine Italy is indivisible unity. The pope, in alliance with the French, in Feb. 1797, has threatened them upon these States. For farther particulars respecting this new republic, see *ITALY*. Bologna contains about 308,000 inhabitants, and is bounded on the N. by Ferrara, on the W. by Modena, on the S. by the Papal States, and on the E. by Romania. It is watered by a great number of small rivers, which render it to be the most fertile of any in Italy.— Hence the capital, from the great produce of the land about it, is called *Bologna the fat*. It produces great sorts of grain and fruits; particularly the white grapes, which are in high esteem. It has mines of alum and iron; and the inhabitants consume large quantities of linen, silk stockings, and cloth.

BOLGNE, or **BOULOGNE**, a city of France in the department of the Straits of Dover, and ancient province of Picardy, seated near the sea. It is divided into two towns, the Upper and Lower; the first is strongly fortified, the other is inclosed by walls only. The port is at the mouth of the river Liane, but the water is so shallow that no ships of burden can enter it. It is 14 m. S. by W. of Calais and 130 N. of Paris. Lon. 1. 42. E. Lat. 50. 44. N.

(1.) **BOLOGNESE**. See **BOLOGNA**, N. 2.

(2.) **BOLOGNESE**, the citizens of Bologna.

BOLOGNIAN, or **BONONIAN STONE**, a phosphoric substance first discovered near Bologna in Italy, whence its name. It was supposed to contain some metallic matter, from its great specific gravity; but is now found to be only a compound of ponderous earth and vitriolic acid. It differs from the artificial baroselenite in the proportion of its ingredients, the latter containing 33 parts of vitriolic acid and 67 of earth; the former 84 of earth, 13 of the most concentrated vitriolic acid, and 3 of water. Mr Scheffer, in the Memoirs of the Academy at Stockholm, for 1753, has communicated some experiments on a stone of this kind from China, which prove, that it perfectly agrees with the descriptions given in several books, of a stone called *PETUNTSE* by the Chinese, and which is said to be used in their porcelain manufactures.

BOLOGNOIS, } or **BOULOGNOIS**, a ci-devant
BOLONNOIS, } territory of France, in the N.
part of Picardy, now included in the department of Somme.

BOLSANE, a town of Germany, in the territory of Tyrol, and circle of Austria. It is very agreeably situated in the midst of a fine large valley, full of villages, and abounding in vineyards. The wines in this valley are the best in all Tyrol; but they must be drank the year after that of their growth, otherwise they become unfit for use. Lon. 11. 11. E. Lat. 46. 42. N.

BOLSCOT, a village in Oxfordshire, near Chadlington.

BOLSEC, Jerome, a Carmelite Friar of Paris, who, having preached somewhat freely, forsook his order and fled to Ferrara, the then common sanctuary of the persecuted for the new opinions. He turned physician and married; but having given some offence in Ferrara, fled to Geneva and commenced lecturer on divinity. Calvin at first befriended him, but Bolsec preaching against predestination, Calvin tried every method and urged every argument to reclaim him, but in vain. The senate of Geneva then interfered, and banished Bolsec, as did also the magistrates of Bern. He then returned to France and applied to the protestants of Paris and Orleans; but persecution arising against the new doctrines, he returned to the Catholics, and to ingratiate himself the more with them, exerted a most violent zeal against the reformers, particularly Calvin and Beza; whose lives he wrote, stuffed with the most malicious falsehoods. To complete his career of wickedness, he prostituted his own wife to the Canons of Autun. He died about 1584.

(1.) **BOLSENNA**, a lake of Italy, in the pope's territories, near the town (N. 2.) 45 m. N. of Rome.

(2.) **BOLSENNA**, a town of Italy, seated on the lake, (N. 1.) Lon. 12. 13. E. Lat. 42. 38. N.

BOLSLAW. See **BOLISLAW**.

BOLSOVER, a large well built town of Derbyshire, noted for its manufacture of tobacco pipes.

(1.) * **BOLSTER**. *n. f.* [*bolstre*, Sax. *bolster*, Dutch.] 1. Something laid on the bed, to raise and support the head; commonly a bag filled with down or feathers.—

Perhaps some cold bank is her *bolster* now,
Or 'gainst the rugged bark of some broad elm
Leans her unpillow'd head. *Milton.*

This arm shall be a *bolster* for thy head;

I'll fetch clean straw to make a soldier's bed. *Gry.*
2. A pad, or quilt, to hinder any pressure, or to
up any vacuity.—

Up goes her hand, and off she slips

The *bolsters* that supply her hips. *Swift.*

3. A pad, or compress, to be laid on a wound.—
The bandage is the girt, which has a *bolster* in
the middle, and the ends tacked firmly together.
Wise-man. 4. [In horsemanship.] The *bolsters* of a
saddle are those parts raised upon the bows, to
hold the riders thigh. *Farrier's Dict.*

(2.) **BOLSTER**, among surgeons, a soft yielding
substance, either laid under the head or a broken
limb. In this sense, bolsters are contrived for crook-
ed, bunched, and otherwise distorted backs, shoulders,
&c.

(3.) **BOLSTERS**, LAW RESPECTING. By a constitution made under Abp. Burchier, the clergy are forbidden to wear bolsters about their shoulders, in their gowns, coats, or doublets. The occasion of the prohibition is variously construed. Some say that bolsters came in fashion in the reign of King Richard III. who being necessitated, by his natural deformity, to pad, the courtiers, and even the clergy, did the same, out of complaisance to their prince, so that every body who had the misfortune to be born straight, was obliged to wear a bolster on his shoulders to be in the fashion. Others, however, alledge that the law was made 20 years before the usurpation of Richard.

* To **BOLSTER**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To support the head with a bolster. 2. To afford a bed to.—

Mortal eyes do see them *bolster*.

More than their own. *Shakespeare's Othello.*

3. To hold wounds together with a compress.—The practice of *bolstering* the cheeks forward, does little service to the wound, and is very uneasy to the patient. *Shurp.* 4. To support; to hold up; to maintain. This is now an expression somewhat dark and obsolete.—We may be made wiser by the publick persuasions grafted in men's minds, so they be used to further the truth, not to *bolster* error. *Hooker.*—The lawyer sets his tongue to *bolster* the *bolstering* out of unjust causes. *Hake-*
—It was the way of many to *bolster* up their *cur,* doating consciences with confidences.

BOLSTER-CLOTH. See **BOLTING-CLOTH.**

BOLSTON-BOROUGH, a town near Wells, Shepton-Mallet, and Glastonbury.

BOLSUERD. See **BOLSWERT**, N. 1 and 2.

BOLSWAERT, a town of the United Netherlands, in West Friesland, 13 miles S. W. of Leuwarden, and 8 miles N. of Slooten. Lon. 5. 20. E. Lat. 53. 3. N.

(1.) **BOLSWERT**, or **BOLSUERD**, Boetius Adam, an engraver at Antwerp, flourished about 1650. He worked with the graver only; and imitated the free open style of the Bloemarts with great success. When he worked from Rubens, he copied that style; and his plates are neater, fuller of colour, and more highly finished. The two following are mentioned, as capital: 1. The Resurrection of Lazarus, a large upright plate. 2. The Last Supper, its companion.

(2.) **BOLSWERT**, or **BOLSUERD**, Scheltius A., was the brother of Boetius Adam, (Nº 1.) but greatly his superior. He worked entirely with the graver, and never called in the assistance of the point. His general character is thus drawn by himself: "We have a large number of prints, which are held in great esteem, by this artist, and various masters; but especially from Rubens, whose pictures he has copied with all possible knowledge, taste, and great effect. The freedom with which this excellent artist handled the graver, the picturesque roughness of etching, which he could imitate without any other assisting instrument, and the ability he possessed of distinguishing the different masses of colours, have always been admired by the connoisseurs, and give him a place among a number of those celebrated engravers, who are desirous of rendering their works as useful as they are agreeable, and of acquiring a reputation as it is justly merited." He drew excellently, and his prints are the exact transcripts of the pictures he engraved from. Some of his engravings are in a bold, free, open style: as the *Arcton* Serpent, the Marriage of the Virgin, &c. from Rubens. Others are very neat, and sweetly finished: as, the Crowning with Thorns, the Crucifixion, &c. from Vandyck. Some of his prints, which bear great resemblance to the free engravings of Frederic Bloemart, form a part of the *Recueil* for a large folio volume, entitled, *Academie des Sciences*, by Girard Thibault of Antwerp, where it was published, A. D. 1628; and to which he signs

his name, "Scheltius," and sometimes "Schelderic Bolswert," adding the word *Bruxelle*. Many of his other prints have been copied so carefully as easily to deceive the unskilful. His name indeed is usually affixed at the bottom, thus, *S. A. Bolswert*, but it is often cut off, and then the copy is not easily distinguished. Some of his prints, particularly of a large upright plate of the Crucifixion, from Vandyck, are very rare, and at sales have been known to fetch from 25 l. to 30 l.

(I.) * **BOLT**. *n. f.* [*boult*, Dutch; *βολυς*.] 1. An arrow; a dart shot from a crossbow.—

Yet mark'd I where the *bolt* of Cupid fell;

It fell upon a little western flower;

Before milk-white, now purple with love's wound.

Shakespeare.

The blunted *bolt* against the nymph he drest;

But, with the sharp, transfix'd Apollo's breast.

Dryden.

2. Lightning; a thunderbolt —

Sing'd with the flames, and with the bolts transfix'd,

With native earth your blood the monsters mix'd.

Dryden.

3. *Bolt upright*; that is, upright as an arrow.—Brush iron, native or from the mine, consisteth of long strizæ, about the thickness of a small knitting needle, *bolt upright*, like the bristles of a stiff brush, *Greav.*—As I stood *bolt upright* upon one end, one of the ladies hurst out. *Addison.* 4. The bar of a door, so called from being straight like an arrow; we now say, *shoot the bolt*, when we speak of fastening or opening a door.—

'Tis not in thee, to oppose the *bolt*

Against my coming in.

Shakespeare.

5. An iron to fasten the legs of a prisoner. This is, I think, corrupted from *bought*, or link.—Away with him to prison; lay *bolts* enough upon him. *Shakespeare.*—

(II.) **BOLT**, in architecture, (s. 1. def. 4.) an iron fastening fixed to doors and windows. They are generally distinguished into three kinds, viz. plate, round, and spring bolts.

(III.) **BOLT**, in commerce, 28 ells of canvas. Also a long narrow piece of silk of indefinite measure.

(IV.) **BOLTS**, in gunnery, are of several sorts; as, 1. **BOLTS, BED**, the 4 bolts that fasten the brackets of a mortar to the bed.

2. **BOLTS, BRACKET**, the bolts that go through the cheeks of a mortar, and by the help of quoins keep her fixed at the given elevation.

3. **BOLTS, PRIZE**, the large knobs of iron on the cheeks of a carriage, which keep the handspike from sliding, when it is poizing up the breech of a piece.

4. **BOLTS, TRANSUM**, that go between the cheeks of a gun carriage, to strengthen the transums.

5. **BOLTS, TRAVERSE**, the two short bolts, that, being put one in each end of a mortar carriage, serve to traverse her.

(V.) **BOLTS**, in ship building, are iron pins, of which there are several sorts, according to their different makes and uses: such as,

1. **BOLTS, CLENCH**, those which are clenched with rivetting hammers.

2. **BOLTS, DRIVE**, used to drive out others.

5. **BOLT**

3. **BOLTS, FEND, or FENDER**, made with long and thick heads, and struck into the uttermost bends of the ship, to save her sides from bruises.

4. **BOLTS, FORELOCK**, have at the end a forelock of iron driven in to keep them from starting back.

5. **BOLTS, RAY**, have jags or barbs on each side, to keep them from flying out of their holes.

6. **BOLTS, RING**, are for bringing to the planks, and those parts to which the breeches and tackle of the guns are fastened.

7. **BOLTS, SET**, are used for forcing the planks and bringing them close together.

(1.) * *To BOLT. v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To shut or fasten with a bolt.—

The *bolted* gates flew open at the blast;
The storm rush'd in, and Arcite stood aghast.

Dryden.

2. To blurt out, or throw out precipitantly.—

I hate when vice can *bolt* her arguments,
And virtue has no tongue to check her pride.

Milton.

3. To fasten, as a bolt or pin; to pin; to keep together.—

That I could reach the axel, where the pins are,
Which *bolt* this frame; that I might pull them out.

Ben Jonson.

4. To fetter; to shackle.—

It is great

To do that thing that ends all other deeds,
Which shackles accidents, and *bolts* up change.

Shakespeare.

5. To sift; or separate the parts of any thing with a sieve. [*bluter, Fr.*]

He now had *boultered* all the flour. *Spenser.*
—In the *bolting* and sifting of fourteen years of power and favour, all that came out could not be pure meal. *Wotton.*—

I cannot *bolt* this matter to the bran,

As Bradwardin and holy Austin can. *Dryden.*

6. To examine by sifting; to try out; to lay open.—It would be well *bolted* out, whether great refractions may not be made upon reflections, as upon direct beams. *Bacon.*—The judge, or jury, or parties, or the council, or attorneys, propounding questions, beats and *bolts* out the truth much better than when the witness delivers only a formal series. *Hale.*—Time and nature will *bolt* out the truth of things, through all disguises. *L'Estrange.*

7. To purify; to purge. This is harsh.—

The fanned snow

That's *bolted* by the northern blast twice o'er.

Shakespeare.

(2.) * *To BOLT. v. n.* To spring out with speed and suddenness; to start out with the quickness of an arrow.—

This Puck seems but a dreaming dolt,
Still walking like a ragged colt,
And oft out of a bush doth *bolt*,
Of purpose to deceive us.

Drayton.

—They erected a fort, and from thence they *bolted* like beasts of the forest, sometimes into the forest, and sometimes into the woods and fastnesses, and sometimes back to their den. *Bacon.*—As the house was all in a flame, out *bolts* a mouse from the ruins to save herself. *L'Estrange.*—I have

sted on those men who, from time to time,
shot themselves into the world. I have seen

many successions of them; some *bolting* out upon the stage with vast applause, and others hissed off.

Dryden.—

The birds to foreign seats repair'd,
And beasts, that *bolted* out, and saw the forest
bar'd.

Dryden.

BOLT-AUGER, n. f. a large bower used in ship-building.

BOLT-BOAT, n. f. a strong boat, that will endure a rough sea.

BOLTBY, a village in Yorkshire, near Northallerton.

BOLT-DRAWER, an instrument for drawing bolts out of the old planks of ships. Its form, and the manner of using it, may be easily conceived from inspecting *Fig. 7. Plate XXXIX.*

BOLTED FLOUR, that which has passed through the bolters. See **BOLTER**, § 2.

BOLTEL, in building, any prominence or jutting out, as of a piece of timber, end of a beam, or the like, advancing beyond the naked of the wall.

(1.) * **BOLTER. n. f.** [from the verb.] 1. A sieve to separate meal from bran or husks; or to separate finer from coarser parts.—Dowlas, filthy dowlas. I have given them away to bakers wives, and they have made *bolters* of them. *Shakespeare.*—With a good strong chopping-knife mince the two capons bones and all, as small as ordinary minced meat. put them into a large neat *bolter*. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

When superciliously he sifts

Through coarsest *bolter* other gifts. *Hudibras.*

2. A kind of net.—These hakes, and divers others of the fore-cited, are taken with threads, and some of them with the *bolter*, which is a speller of a bigger size. *Carew.*

(2.) **BOLTERS, or BOULTERS**, have their bottoms made of woollen, hair, or wire. The bakers use bolters which are worked by the hand; millers have a larger sort, wrought by the mill.

* **BOLTHEAD. n. f.** A long strait-necked glass vessel, for chymical distillations, called also a *maistrass*, or *receiver*.—This spirit abounds in salt which may be separated by putting the liquor into a *bolthead* with a long narrow neck. *Boyle.*

(1.) **BOLTING**, a term of art used in our inns of court, for a private arguing of cases. The manner at Gray's inn is this: An ancient and two barristers sit as judges; three students bring each a case, out of which the judges choose one to be argued; which done, the students first argue it and after them the barristers. It is inferior to *mooting*; and may be derived from the Saxon word *bolt*, a house, because done privately in the house for instruction. In Lincoln's inn, Monday and Wednesdays are the bolting days in vacation time; and Tuesdays and Thursdays the moot days.

(2.) **BOLTING, or BOULTING**, among millers the act of separating the flour from the bran, by means of a sieve or bolter. See **BOLTER**, § 2.

(3.) **BOLTING, or BOULTING**, among sportsmen, signifies dislodging a coney.

BOLTING-CLOTH, BOLSTER-CLOTH, or BULTING-CLOTH, a linen or hair cloth for sifting meal or flour.

* **BOLTING-HOUSE. n. f.** [from *bolt* and *bouse*] The place where meal is sifted.—The jade is returned as white, and as powdered, as if she had been at work in a *bolting-house*. *Dennis.*

BOLTING

BOLTING-HUTCH, or **BUNTING-HUTCH**, a chest for sifting meal in. *Bailey*.

BOLTING-MILL, a versatile engine for sifting with more ease and expedition. The cloth round this is called the **BOLTER**.

(1.) **BOLTON**, a parish of Scotland, in Had-dingtonshire, extending near 6 miles in length, from N.E. to S. W. and about a mile and a quarter, at a medium, in breadth. It contains about 2,300 acres, of which about 170 were planted; 150 sown with wheat; 120 with barley; 230 with oats; 100 with clover; and 130 with pease and beans, in 1791, according to the rev. Mr Hamilton's report to Sir J. Sinclair. The population, at that period, was 235, which was 124 less than it was in 1755. The number of horses was 83; of cows, 180; and of sheep, 120. Thirlages and tithes are not yet abolished.

(2.) **BOLTON**, a town of Lancashire, in England, seated on the river Croell, and pretty well built. It is noted for its medicinal waters, and still more for its manufactures of muslins, dimities, counterpanes, and fustians. It has fairs June 29, July 16, and August 20; with a market on Monday for cloth and provisions. It lies 11 miles N. W. of Manchester, and 193 N. N. W. from London. Lon. 2. 15. W. Lat. 53. 55. N.

(3.) **BOLTON**, a village of Scotland, in the above parish, N° 1.

(4.) **BOLTON**, a village in Cumberland, near Kirby.

(5, 6.) **BOLTON** is also the name of two villages in Lancashire, viz. 1. between Bury and Wigan: 2. 1. N. of Lancaster, 237 miles from London.

(7-11.) **BOLTON** is likewise the name of 9 villages in Yorkshire; viz. 1. in the E. Riding, N. W. of Pocklington, near a river that runs into the Derwent: It has a fair, 28 June: 2. **EAST**, 3. **MIDDLE**, 4. **WEST**, **BOLTONS**, in the N. Riding, near Wether and Wenslaw-Dale: 5. in the W. Riding, W. of Bernard Castle: 6. S. W. of Gisborn: 7. E. of Richmond: 8. N. of Rotherham, and 7 miles W. of Doncaster: and, 9. N. E. of Skipton.

(12.) **BOLTON IN THE SANDS**, lies in Westmoreland, near Kendal.

(13.) **BOLTON**, or **BOULTON**, Edmund, an ingenious English antiquarian, who lived in the beginning of the 17th century. His principal work is his *Nero Cæsar*, or *Monarchie depraved*, dedicated to the Duke of Buckingham, and printed at London in 1624, folio, and adorned with several copper-prints of valuable medals. It is divided into chapters, in some of which are introduced curious remarks and observations. In the 24th and 25th chapters he gives an account of the revolt of Britain, against the Romans, under the name of Boadicea, which he introduces with a continuation of the affairs in Britain from the entrance of the Romans, under Julius Cæsar, to the revolt in the reign of Nero. In chapter 26, he treats of the East India trade in Nero's time, which was then carried on by the river Nile, and thence by caravans over land to the Red Sea, and thence to the Indian ocean; the ready commerce carried yearly from Rome upon this account amounting, according to Pliny's compilation, to more than 300,000 l. sterling; and the usual returns in

December and January yielding in clear gain 2 hundred for one. Besides this he wrote, 1. A. English translation of Lucius Florus's Roman history. 2. *Hypercritica*, or a rule of judgment for reading or writing our histories. 3. The elements of armories, &c. and some other works.

(18.) **BOLTON**, Robert, D. D. was born in Northamptonshire, about 1690, and educated at Oxford, where he took his degrees. In 1720, he became acquainted with Mr Pope, and in 1724, with the celebrated Mr Whiston, through whose recommendation, partly, he became chaplain to Sir Jos. Jekyll, who introduced him to Lord Hardwicke, by whose patronage, in 1735, he was made Dean of Carlisle, and, in 1738, vicar of St Mary's, Reading. He was a good preacher, charitable to the poor, and beloved by his parishioners. Though well qualified for an author, he was advanced in life before he published any thing; his 1st work being, *A Letter to a Lady on Card-playing on the Lord's Day*; 8vo. 1748. 2. *The Employment of time*; 8vo. 1750: dedicated to Lord Hardwicke. 3. *The Deity's Delay in punishing the Guilty*, considered on the principles of reason; 8vo. 1751. 4. *A treatise on Lewdness*; 8vo. 1755. 5. *A letter on travelling on Sundays*; 8vo. 1757. 6. *The Ghost of Ernest*, great grandfather to the Princess Dowager of Wales: with some account of his life; 8vo. 7. *Letters and Tracts on the Choice of Company*, &c. He died at London, Nov. 26, 1763.

BOLTON-PERCY, a village in Yorkshire, near Nun-Appleton.

(1.) * **BOLT-ROPE**. *n. f.* [from *bolt* and *rope*.] The rope on which the sail of a ship is sewed and fastened. *Sea Dict.*

(2.) **BOLT-ROPE**, in naval affairs, a rope passing round the sail, to which the edges of it are sewed, to prevent the sail from tearing: the bottom part of it is called the *foot-rope*; the sides, *leeches*; and if the sail be oblong or square, the upper part is called the *head-rope*.

* **BOLTSPRIT**. *BOWSPRIT. n. f.* A mast running out at the head of a ship, not standing upright, but aslope. The but end of it is generally set against the foot of the foremast; so that they are a stay to one another. The length without board is sufficient to let its sails hang clear of all incumbrances. If the *boltspnit* fail in bad weather, the foremast cannot hold long after. *Bowspnit* is perhaps the right spelling. *Sea Dictionary*.—

Sometimes I'd divide,

And burn in many places; on the topmast,

The yards, and *boltspnit*, would I flame distinctly.

Shakespeare.

BOLUC BASSI, the chief of a company among the Turks, or a captain over 100 Janizaries.

* **BOLUS**. *n. f.* [*βολη*.] A form of medicine, in which the ingredients are made up into a soft mass, larger than pills, to be swallowed at once.—Keep their bodies soluble the while by clysters, lenitive *boluses* of cassia and manna, with syrup of violets. *Wise-man*.—

By poets we are well assur'd,
That love, alas! can ne'er be cur'd;
A complicated heap of ills,
Despising *boluses* and pills.

Swift.

BOLZANO,

BOLZANO, a town of Austria, in Tyrol.

BOLZAS, in commerce, a kind of ticking brought from the East Indies.

BOM, in zoology, the name of an American serpent, remarkable for its noise, which is like the sound of the word used as its name. It grows to a vast size, but is perfectly harmless.

* **BOMAL**, a town of France, in the ci-devant province of Luxemburg, now included in one of the new departments lately added to the republic; situated on the Ourt. Lon. 5. 30. E. Lat. 50. 20. N.

BOMARIN, in zoology, a name used by some for the **HIPPOPOTAMUS**, or river-horse.

(1.) * **BOMB**. *n. f.* [*bombus*, Lat.] 1. A loud noise.—An upper chamber being thought weak, was supported by a pillar of iron, of the bigness of one's arm in the midst; which, if you had struck, would make a little flat noise in the room, but a great *bomb* in the chamber beneath. *Bacon*. 2. A hollow iron ball, or shell, filled with gunpowder, and furnished with a vent for a fusee, or wooden tube, filled with combustible matter, to be thrown out from a mortar; which has its name from the noise it makes. The fusee, being set on fire, burns slowly till it reach the gunpowder, which goes off at once, bursting the shell to pieces with incredible violence; whence the use of *bombs* in besieging towns. The largest are about 18 inches in diameter. By whom they were invented is not known, and the time is uncertain, some fixing it to 1588, and others to 1495. *Chambers*.—

The loud cannon mislive iron pours,
And in the slaught'ring *bomb* Gradivus roars.

Rowe.

(2.) **BOMBS**, METHODS OF USING. The shell being filled with gunpowder, the fusee is driven into the vent or aperture, within an inch of the head, and fastened with a cement made of quick lime, ashes, brick-dust, and steel filings, worked together in a glutinous water; or of four parts of pitch, two of colophony, one of turpentine, and one of wax. This tube is filled with a combustible matter, made of two ounces of nitre, one of sulphur, and 3 of gunpowder-dust, well rammed. To preserve the fusee, they pitch it over, but uncask it, when they put it into the mortar, and cover it with gunpowder-dust; which, having taken fire by the flash of the powder in the chamber of the mortar, burns all the time the bomb is in the air; and the composition in the fusee being spent, it fires the powder in the bomb, which bursts with great force, blowing up whatever is about it. The great height a bomb goes in the air, and the force with which it falls, makes it go deep into the earth. Bombs may be used without mortar-pieces, as was done by the Venetians at Candia, when the Turks had possessed themselves of the ditch, rolling down bombs upon them along a plank set sloping towards their works, with ledges on the sides, to keep the bomb right forward. They are sometimes also buried under ground to blow up. See **CAISSON**. Bombs were not commonly used before 1634, and then only in the Dutch and Spanish armies. One Malthus, an English engineer, is said to have carried them into France, where they were used at the siege of Collioure. The French have lately invented a new sort of bombs of vast weight, called

COMMINGES.—The art of throwing bombs makes a branch of gunnery, founded on the theory of projectiles, and the qualities of gunpowder. See **GUNNERY**, **PROJECTILES**, **GUNPOWDER**, &c.

* *To BOMB*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To fall upon with bombs; to bombard.—

Our king thus trembles at Namur,

Whilst Villeroy, who ne'er afraid is,

To Bruxelles marches on secure,

To *bomb* the monks, and scare the ladies.

Prior.

(1.) * **BOMBARD**. *n. f.* [*bombardus*, Latin.] 1. A great gun; a cannon: it is a word now obsolete.—They planted in divers places 12 great *bombards*, wherewith they threw huge stones into the air, which falling down upon the city, might break down the houses. *Knolles*. 2. A barrel. Obsolete.

(2.) A **BOMBARD** was a piece of ordnance anciently in use, exceeding short and thick, and with a very large mouth. There have been bombards which have thrown a ball of 300 pound weight. Cranes were used to load them. The bombard is by some called *bafilisk*, and by the Dutch *donder bas*.

* *To BOMBARD*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To attack with bombs.—A medal is struck on the English failing in their attempts on Dunkirk, where they endeavoured to blow up a fort, and to *bombard* the town. *Addison*.

BOMBARDE, or **BOMHARDE**, a parish in St Domingo, with a fort, which was taken from the French on the 18th June 1796, by Major General Gordon Forbes.

(1.) * **BOMBARDIER**. *n. f.* [from *bombard*] The engineer whose employment is to shoot bombs.—The *bombardier* tosses his ball sometimes into the midst of a city, with a design to fill all round him with terror and combustion. *Tatler*.

(2.) A **BOMBARDIER** has to drive the fusee, fire the shell, and load and fire the mortar.

(3.) **BOMBARDIER**, in entomology. See **CAZABUS**.

* **BOMBARDMENT**. *n. f.* [from *bombard*] An attack made upon any city, by throwing bombs into it.—Genoa is not yet secure from *bombardment*, though it is not so exposed as formerly. *Addison*.

BOMBARDO, a musical instrument of the wind kind, much the same as the bassoon, and used as a bass to the hautboy.

(1.) * **BOMBASIN**. *n. f.* [*bombasin*, Fr. from *bombycinus*, filken, Lat.] A slight filken stuff, for mourning.

(2.) **BOMBASINE** is also applied to stuffs crossed with cotton.

BOMBASIUS, Paul, a native of Bologna; gained esteem by the profession of philology about the beginning of the 16th century. He taught Latin and Greek at Naples, and was professor of Greek at Bologna. His abilities induced Cardinal Pius to make him his secretary, with a good salary. He lived very easy at Rome with the cardinal, till that city was plundered under Clement VIII, when he was killed, while endeavouring to enter into the castle of St Angelo. He was an intimate friend and correspondent of Erasmus, who preserved some of his letters, and gives him a good character.

(1.) * **BO**

(1.) * **BOMBAST**. *adj.* [from the substantive.] High sounding ; of big sound without meaning.—

He, as loving his own pride and purpose,
Evades them with a *bombast* circumstance,
Horribly stuff'd with epithets of war. *Shakesp.*

(2.) * **BOMBAST**. *n. s.* [A stuff of soft loose texture used formerly to swell the garment, and thence used to signify bulk or shew without solidity.] Fashion ; big words, without meaning.—

Not pedants motley tongue, soldiers *bombast*,
Mountebanks drug-tongue, nor the terms of
law,

Are strong enough preparatives to draw
Me to hear this.

Donne.

—Are all the flights of heroick poetry to be con-
ceded *bombast*, unnatural, and mere madness, be-
cause they are not affected with their excellencies?
Dryden.

(3.) **BOMBAST**, in composition, is a serious en-
deavour, by strained description, to raise a low or
familiar subject beyond its rank ; which, instead
of being sublime, never fails to be ridiculous. The
mind in some animating passions is indeed apt to
magnify its objects beyond natural bounds : but
such hyperbolical descriptions has its limits ; and,
when carried beyond these, it degenerates into
burlesque, as in the following examples :

“ He roar'd so loud and look'd so wond'rous
grim,
“ His very shadow durst not follow him.”

Ben Jonson, in his *Sejanus*, (Act 5.) makes that
proud minister say,

—————“ Great and high,
The world knows only two, that's Rome and I.
My roof receives me not ; 'tis air I tread,
And at each step I feel my advanc'd head
Knock out a star in heaven.”

A writer who has no natural elevation of genius
is extremely apt to deviate into bombast. He
strains above his genius, and the violent effort he
makes, carries him generally beyond the bound of
propriety. But even the best poets sometimes de-
viate into bombast, or sink into bathos, when
they go beyond nature, in aiming at the sublime.
See **SUBLIME**.

BOMBASTIC, *adj.* swelling ; high-flown ; that
which has more sound than sense.

BOMBASTRY, *n. s.* Bombast.

(1. 1.) **BOMBAX**, in botany, the **SILK-COT-
TON TREE** ; A genus of the polyandria order, be-
longing to the monodelphia class of plants ; and
in the natural method ranking under the 37th or-
der. *Calamiferae*. The calix is quinquefid : the
stamina are 5 or many ; the capsule is lignous,
quincquelocular, and quinquevalved : the seeds are
woolly, and the receptacle pentagonal. The
species are,

1. **BOMBAX CEIBA**, with a prickly stalk. See
No. 3.

2. **BOMBAX HEPTAPHYLLUM**, with leaves cut
into 7 parts. The cotton is of a fine purple co-
lour, but the size of the tree is not particularly
mentioned by botanical writers.

3. **BOMBAX PENTANDRUM**, with a smooth stalk.
This and the **CEIBA**, (No. 1.) grow naturally in
VOL. IV. PART I.

both the Indies ; where they arrive at a great mag-
nitude, being some of the largest trees in these
parts. Bosman says, he has seen in Guinea, trees
of this kind so widely diffused, that 20,000 armed
men might stand under the branches of one. They
generally grow with straight stems. Those of the
ceiba are armed with short strong spines ; but the
pentandrum has very smooth stems, which in the
young plant are of a bright green ; but after a few
years they are covered with a grey or ash-colour-
ed bark, which turns brown as they grow older.
The branches towards the top are garnished with
leaves composed of 5, 7, or 9, oblong smooth little
leaves, spear-shaped, and joined to one common
centre at their base, where they adhere to the long
footstalk. The flower buds appear at the end of
the branches ; and soon after the flowers expand,
which are composed of 5 oblong purple petals,
with a great number of stamina in the centre ;
when these fall off, they are succeeded by oval fruit
as large as a swan's egg, having a thick ligneous
cover, which, when ripe, opens in 5 parts, and
is full of a dark short cotton, inclosing many
roundish seeds as large as small peas.

4. **BOMBAX**.—Besides the species above descri-
bed, Mr Miller mentions another which he saw
in the gardens of the late duke of Richmond at
Goodwood, and was raised from seeds which
came from the East Indies. The stem was very
straight and smooth, the leaves were produced
round the top upon very long footstalks, each be-
ing composed of 7 or 9 narrow silky small lobes,
joined at their base to the footstalk in the same
manner as the first and second ; but they were
much longer and reflected backward, so that at
first view it appeared very different from either
of them.

(2.) **BOMBAX**, CULTURE OF THE DIFFERENT
KINDS OF. These plants, being natives of warm
climates, must alway be kept in a stove. They
are raised from seeds procured in the capsules
from the places where they grow naturally. These
are to be sown in spring, in pots of light earth,
plunged in a substantial hot-bed of dung or tan,
where the plants will appear in 3 or 4 weeks.
They must then be placed separately in small pots,
plunging them in the bark-bed, giving them shade
and water, and shifting them occasionally into
larger pots with fresh earth. They must be wa-
tered plentifully in summer, but moderately in
winter.

(3.) **BOMBAX**, USES OF THE VARIOUS SPECIES
OF. The dark short cotton of the 1st and 3d spe-
cies is used by the poorer inhabitants of those
places where such trees grow, to stuff pillows
or chairs, but is generally deemed unwholesome
to lie upon. The beautiful purple down of the
heptaphyllum is spun, wrought into clothes, and
wore, without being dyed any other colour, by
the inhabitants of the Spanish West Indies, where
the tree naturally grows. Large pirogues, or
canoes fit to carry a sail, are made both at Sene-
gal, and in America, of the trunk of the silk-cot-
ton tree, the wood of which is very light, and un-
fit for any other purpose. In Columbus's first
voyage, it was reported that a canoe was seen at
Cuba made of the hollowed trunk of one of these
trees,

trees, which was 95 palms long, of a proportional width, and capable of containing 150 men.

(II.) BOMBAX is also used sometimes for silk or cotton; but the true botanic name of cotton is *Gossypium*.

(III.) BOMBAX, in entomology, is applied by Linnæus to such insects as have incumbent wings, and feelers resembling a comb.

(IV.) BOMBAX, in zoology, a synonyme of a species of *Conus*.

(I. 1.) BOMBAY, an island of Indostan, on the W. coast of Decan, 7 miles in length and 20 in circumference. It has its name from the Portuguese *Bom-babia*, on account of the excellent bay formed by it together with the winding of other islands adjacent. The harbour is spacious enough to contain any number of ships, and has likewise excellent anchoring ground, affording also, by its land locked situation, a shelter from any winds to which the mouth may be exposed. It is 150 miles S. of Surat, and 40 N. W. of Rajapour. Lon. 72. 38. E. Lat. 18. 58. N.

(2.) BOMBAY, ADVANTAGES OF. Bombay is the most considerable English settlement on the Malabar coast; and by reason of its situation, may be styled the grand storehouse of all the Arabian and Persian commerce. It is also the most convenient place in all the East Indies for careening or heaving down large ships; and for small ones they have a very good dock. They have also a very good rope yard; and indeed, says Mr Ives, "this is the only place, in this distant part of the world, for shattered ships to refit at, having always a good quantity of naval stores, and its very name conveying an idea of a safe retreat in foul weather."

(3.) BOMBAY, CLIMATE OF. This island was formerly reckoned exceedingly unhealthy, inasmuch that it had the name of the burying ground of the English, though it is now so far improved in this respect, as to be no worse than any other place in the East Indies, under the same parallel of latitude. The reasons of this unhealthiness and the subsequent improvements are enumerated by Mr Grose. 1. The nature of the climate, and the precautions required by it, being less understood than they are at present. 2. Formerly there obtained a very pernicious practice of employing a small fry of fish as manure for the cocoa trees which grow in plenty on the island; though this has been denied by others, and perhaps with justice, as the putrid effluvia of animal bodies seems to be very effectually absorbed by the earth, (See *HUSBANDRY*.) when buried in it. All agree, however, that the habitations in the woods or coconut groves are unwholesome, by reason of the moisture and want of a free circulation of air. 3. Another cause has been assigned for the superior healthiness of this island, viz. the lessening of the waters by the banking off a breach of the sea, though this does not appear satisfactory to our author. There is still, says he, a great body of salt water on the inside of the breach, the communication of which with the ocean being less than before the breach was built, must be portionably more apt to stagnate, and to produce noxious vapours. Whatever may be the cause, however, it is certain, that Bombay no

longer deserves its former character, provided a due degree of temperance be observed; without which health cannot be expected in any warm climate. The climate seems to be drier than many other parts under the same parallel. The rains last only 4 months but with short intermissions. The setting in of the rains is commonly ushered in by a violent-thunder storm, called the *Elephanta* from its extraordinary violence. The air, however, is then agreeably cooled, and the excessive heat, then nearly at its height, much moderated. The rains begin about the end of May, and go off in the beginning of September; after which there never falls any except a short transient shower, and that but very rarely. A very extraordinary circumstance is related by Mr Ives concerning this during the rainy season, viz. that, ten days after the rains set in, every pool and puddle swarms with a species of fish about six inches long and somewhat resembling a mullet. Such a phenomenon has occasioned various speculations. Some have imagined that the exhaling power of the sun is so strong in the dry seasons as to be able to raise the spawn of these fishes into the atmosphere, and there suspend and nourish it till the rains come on, when it drops down again in the state of living and perfectly formed fish. A less extravagant supposition is, that after the ponds become dry, the spawn may possibly fall into deep fissures below the apparent bottom, remaining there during the dry season, and being supplied with a sufficient quantity of moisture to prevent it from corruption. The quantity of rain that falls at Bombay in one season has been accurately measured by Mr Thomas, Mr Ives's predecessor as hospital surgeon. His apparatus consisted of a lead cylinder about 9 inches diameter, and as many deep, marked on the inside with inches and tenths. To prevent the water from splashing over, he cut a hole two inches from the bottom, and placed the cylinder in a glazed earthen vessel; after which a wax cloth was securely tied round it, so as to cover the vessel, and prevent any water from getting in, excepting what passed through the cylinder. When more than two inches fell, the hole in the side was stopped with wax, and the water poured from the vessel into the cylinder to ascertain its quantity. It was kept in an open place free from houses, and measured at six in the morning, noon, and six in the evening. The following table shows the total quantity of rain that fell each month from the 25th of May, when it first began, (though the sky looked cloudy over land from the beginning of the month,) till the 17th Oct. when it ended.

QUANTITY OF RAIN;

	in Inches Tenths	
From the 25th to 31st May	1	0
In June	44	7
In July	29	9
In Aug.	19	0
In Sept.	11	2
From the 1st to 17th October	4	5
Total	110	3

Mr Thomas in this journal makes no mention of the *elephanta* as the fore-runner of the rainy season, though he mentions a storm under that name

on the 9th of October. It was an excessive hard gale, with violent thunder, lightning, and rain; of which last there fell two inches in no more than 4 hours. Neither is the quantity of thunder and lightning at all comparable to what people unacquainted with hot climates might be apt to expect. The only thunder storms mentioned in the journal were on May 31st, June 3d, 5th, 12th, 14th; September 7th, October 9th, an elephant; and some thunder on the 15th of the same month.

(4.) BOMBAY, CURIOSITIES, SNAKES, &c. OF. Among the curiosities of Bombay Mr Ives mentions a large *terapin*, or land tortoise, kept at the governor's house, the age of which was upwards of 100 years. Frogs, which abound every where through the East Indies, are very large at Bombay. Our author saw one that measured 22 inches from the extremities of the fore and hind feet when extended; and he supposes that its weight would not have been less than 4 or 5 lb. On the sea-shore round the island are a great variety of beautiful shells, particularly the sort called *winkle-traps* or *wendle-traps*, held in great esteem among the ladies some time ago. Several pounds Sterling are said to have been given by a *virago* for one of these shells when Commodore Ledi's collection of shells was sold by auction. Mr Ives enumerates the following kinds of snakes found on this island and other parts of the British empire in the East Indies. 1. The COBRA DE CAPILLA, which grows from 4 to 8 or 9 feet long. Their bite kills in 15 minutes. 2. The COBRA MANILA is a small bluish snake, of the size of a man's little finger, and about a foot long, frequently seen about old walls. A species of it is found at Bombay kill much sooner than even the former. 3. The PALMIRA, a very thin beautiful snake, of different colours: its head is like that of the common viper, but much thicker than the body. Our author saw one that was 4 feet long, and the body not much thicker than a swan's quill. 4. The green snake is of a very bright green colour, with a sharp head: towards the tail it is smaller than in the middle. The largest part of it is no bigger than a tobacco-pipe. 5. The SAND SNAKE is small and short, but not less deadly than the others. 6. The COBRA DE AUSTRALIA resembles an earth-worm, is about six inches long, and no bigger than a small crow-quill. It kills by getting into the ear, causing madness, &c. 7. The MANILA BOMBA is a very beautiful snake, of almost the same size throughout the whole length, except at the two ends, where it tapers to a point. It is white on the belly, but black variegated on the back. It lives in the sand, and is said to sting with its tail, which occasions contractions in the joints.

(5.) BOMBAY, DIVISION, LAND PROPRIETORS, CHURCHES, AND TEMPLES, &c. OF. When the island was ceded to the English by the Portuguese, it was divided, and still continues to be so, into 3 Roman Catholic parishes, Bombay, Malabar, and Salvacam. The churches of these are governed by priests of that religion, and of any nation excepting Portugal, who were expressly objected to at the time of cession. The bulk of the land proprietors at that time were Mestizos and

Canarians. The former are a mixed breed of the natives and Portuguese; the latter purely aborigines of the country converted to the popish religion. The other land-owners were Moors, Gentoos, and Persees; but these last are of more modern date, having purchased estates on the island. The company has also a very considerable landed estate either by purchases, confiscations for crimes, and seizures for debt. The land is laid out in cocoa-nut groves, rice-fields, and onion grounds, which last are reckoned of an excellent quality. There is only one English church at Bombay, a very neat commodious building, seated on a spacious area, called *the Green*. The pagodas, or temples of the Gentoos, are low mean buildings, having usually no light but what is admitted by the door; facing which is the principal idol. They imagine that a dark gloomy place inspires a kind of religious awe and reverence; and are very fond of having these pagodas among trees, and near the side of a tank or pond, for the sake of their frequent ablutions. These tanks are often very expensive; being generally square, and surrounded with stone steps that are very convenient for the bathers.

(6.) BOMBAY, FORTS, WATERS, &c. IN. On this island are many little forts and batteries, which carry some guns; but the principal fort, which defends the place, has above 100. Mr Grose finds fault with the situation of this last fort, which he says, not only does not command the harbour sufficiently, but is itself overlooked by an eminence called Dungharee Point. The castle itself is a regular quadrangle, well built of strong hard stone. In one of the bastions facing Dungharee Point is a large tank, or cistern, which contains a great quantity of water constantly replenished by the stationary rains. There is also a well within the fort, but the water is not very good, and liable to be dried up by the heats. The water of Bombay in general indeed is not good, which has been given as a reason why the Gentoo merchants were not fond of settling upon it; for as they drink no wine nor spirituous liquors, they are very nice judges of the taste and qualities of waters. Next to that of Bombay, the most considerable fort on the island is that of MAHIM. It is situated at the opposite extremity of the island, and commands the pass of Bandurah, a fort directly opposite to it on the coast of Salfette. From this island Bombay is separated by an arm of the sea, capable of receiving only small craft. The other forts are capable of making but a slight defence. About two miles out of town, towards the middle of the island, the sea had gained so far as almost to divide it in two, and rendered the roads impassable. A great quantity of this water, however, was drained off at a very considerable expence, and a causeway raised which kept it from overflowing again. This causeway is above a quarter of a mile in length, and considerably broad; "but (says Mr Grose,) there is one gross fault remarked in it; that, being bending near the middle, the architect has opposed to the sea a re-entering angle instead of a salient one." Within the beach, however, there is still a considerable body of water, that has a free communication with the sea, as appears by its ebbing and flowing;

flowing; so that it is probable the causeway itself, erected at the expence of at least L. 100,000, may ere long be totally undermined and thrown down.

(7.) BOMBAY, GOVERNMENT OF. } See EAST IN-

(8.) BOMBAY, HISTORY OF. } DIA COMPA-
NY, and INDOSTAN.

(9.) BOMBAY, HOUSES, WALKS, &c. IN. The Green, (§ 5.) extends from the church to the fort, and is pleasantly laid out in walks planted with trees, round which the houses of the English inhabitants are mostly situated. These are generally only ground-floored, with a court yard before and behind, in which are the offices and out-houses. They are substantially built of stone and lime, and smooth plastered on the outside. They are often kept white-washed, which, however neat, is in some respects very disagreeable, by reason of the excessive glare it occasions in reflecting the light of the sun. Few of them have glass windows to any apartment; the lashes being generally paned with a kind of transparent oyster-shells, cut square; which have the singular property of transmitting sufficient light, at the same time that they exclude the violent glare of the sun, and have besides a cool look. The flooring is generally composed of a kind of stucco, called *chunam*, being a lime made of burnt shells, when well tempered, in a peculiar manner known to the natives, is extremely hard and lasting, and takes such a smooth polish, that one may see his own face in it. But where terraces are made of this substance, unless it be duly prepared, which is very expensive, it is apt to crack by the heat. Some attempts have been made to paint the stucco walls in apartments; but these have proved abortive through the ignorance of the artists, who have not chosen colours capable of resisting the alkaline power of the lime. (See COLOUR-MAKING.) In the gardens of Surat this kind of stucco is made use of instead of gravel for the walks. They are a little raised above the garden beds, so that they must be instantly dry after the most violent rain; though their whiteness and polish must not only produce a disagreeable reflection in sunshine, but be extremely slippery to walk on. The houses of the black merchants are for the most part extremely ill built and inconvenient: the windows small, and the apartments ill distributed. Some, however, make a better appearance if only one story high; but even the best of them have a certain meanness in the manner, and clumsiness in their execution, which renders the architecture contemptible in comparison of the European. There is one convenience, however, in all the houses of Bombay, viz. small ranges of pillars that support a pent-house or shed, forming what are called in the Portuguese language *verandas*, either all round the house, or on particular sides of it, which afford a pleasing shelter from the sun, and keep the inner apartments cool and refreshed by the draught of air under them.

(10.) BOMBAY, INHABITANTS OF. The natives of Bombay, though composed of almost every Asiatic nation, are shorter of stature and stronger than those of the Coromandel coast. A palanquin which requires six men to carry it at Madras, Fort St David, is carried by 4 at Bombay.

Here are some Persians, who, like their ancient forefathers the Persians, are followers of Zoroaster, who is said to have reduced into order the religion of the Persian magi; the fundamental maxim of which was the worshipping of one God under the symbol of light. They adore the sun, particularly when rising, with the most profound reverence and veneration; and likewise pay a kind of adoration to common fire. See § 13.

(11.) BOMBAY, OXEN OF. In Bombay, as well as in many other places of the East Indies, oxen are generally used instead of horses, not only for drawing carriages but for riding; and, however ridiculous such a practice may seem to us, they are not in this respect inferior to ordinary horses, being capable of going at the rate of 7 or 8 miles an hour. They are commonly of a white colour, with large perpendicular horns, and black noses. The only inconvenience that attends them, is, that, being naturally subject to a lax habit of body, they sometimes incommode the rider with filth thrown upon him by the continual motion of their tails. In other respects they are far preferable to Indian horses, and will trot and gallop as naturally as the horses of this country. Admiral Watson, while at Bombay, was allowed a chaise drawn by two of these oxen by the East India Company. At the end of every stage the driver always put the near bullock in the place of the other; he then put his hand into both their mouths, to take out the froth; without which precaution they would be in danger of suffocation.

(12.) BOMBAY, PRODUCTIONS OF. The vegetable productions of Bombay are of no great value. Mr Ives says, that its "soil is so barren as not to produce any one thing worth mentioning;" but afterwards informs us, that its "natural produce is the cocoa-nut tree, from which they extract a liquor, called *toddy*. This is soft and mild when drunk immediately: but if it stands long, it gathers strength, and becomes very intoxicating; whence probably arose the term *toddy-bedded*. For each tree a tax of 20s. a-year is paid to the company, which is appropriated towards maintaining the garrison and ships of war." Mr Grose gives an account somewhat different.—"The OARTS or cocoa-nut groves, makes the most considerable part of the landed property, being planted wherever the situation and soil is favourable to them. When a number of these groves lie contiguous to each other, they form what is called the *woods*, through which there is a due space left for road and path-ways, where one is pleasantly defended from the sun at all hours in the day. They are also thick set with houses belonging to the respective proprietors as well as with the huts of the poorer sort of people; but are very unwholesome for the reasons already given." (§ 2.) As to the cocoa-nut tree itself, not all the minute descriptions I have met with in many authors seem to me to come up to the reality of its wonderful properties and use. The cultivation of it is extremely easy, by means of channels conveying water to the roots, and by the manure already mentioned laid round them. An owner of 200 cocoa-nut trees supposed to have a competency to live on. As to the rice fields, they differ in value according to the fineness and quantity of rice they produce. They grow

growth of this grain has a peculiarity not unworthy of notice, viz. that as it loves a watery soil, so to whatever height the water rises, wherever it is planted, the growth of the rice keeps measure with it, even to that of 12 and 14 feet; the summit always appearing above the surface of the water. It is also remarked, that the eating of new rice affects the eyes. The fact is certain, though the physical reason of it is unknown. Here and there are interspersed some few *brab* trees, or rather wild palm trees, the word *brab* being derived from *brabo*, which in the Portuguese signifies *wild*. They bear an insipid kind of fruit, about the bigness of a common pear; but the chief profit from them is the toddy, or liquor drawn from them by incisions at the top, of which the arrack is reckoned better than that produced by the cocoa-nut tree. They are generally near the sea-side, as they delight most in a sandy soil. It is on this tree that the *toddy birds*, so called from their attachment to it, make their exquisitely curious nests, wrought out of the thinnest reeds and filaments of branches, with an inimitable mechanism. The birds themselves are about the size of a partridge, but are of no value either for plumage, song, or the table.—This island is a strong instance of the benefits of a good government, and a numerous population, by not a spot of it remaining uncultivated: so that, though it is far from producing sufficient for the consumption of its inhabitants, and notwithstanding its many disadvantages of situation and soil, it yields incomparably more than the adjacent island of Salfette."

13. BOMBAY, SUPERSTITIONS OBSERVED IN. Mr Ives had once an opportunity of observing the manner in which the Persees perform their devotions to fire. A large brass pan was placed in the middle of the house with fire in it; before this fire, or rather on each side of it, two men were kneeling at their devotions, pronouncing their prayers with great rapidity. He was afterwards informed, that one of them was a priest, at that time on a visit to another priest in a fit of sickness. He was likewise informed, that the Persees have such a veneration for fire, that they never put it out, or even breathe upon it; and he observed, that while the two priests were at their prayers over the pan of coals, they had a little white bib over their mouths, as he supposed to prevent their breath from approaching their favourite element. The *Franks*, however, from the similarity of the sounds, took to him only to be a repetition of the same words. The visiting priest used many times with his hands over the fire, and afterwards bowed down the face of the sick priest, which Mr Ives considered as the final benediction, as the ceremony ended immediately. As the Gentoos bury their dead, one would imagine that the Persees, who have such a veneration for fire, would be desirous of having their bodies consumed by the element; but instead of this, they expose their bodies to be devoured by birds of prey; because, say they, a living man is composed of all the elements; so that it is but reasonable, after he is dead, that every particular element should return to its own again. On the top of Malabar hill, about two miles from the town of Bombay, there are two round buildings for receiving the dead bo-

dies of the Persees, which remain there till the bones are clean picked by the birds. This is certainly an abominable custom, and affords shocking spectacles; however, a guard is always placed at a little distance to prevent people from prying too narrowly into these matters, or, as Mr Ives says, to ensure the vultures of their repast without any disturbance. Mr Grose says, that on his going to look into one of these repositories, a Persee advised him in a friendly manner to let it alone, as no person, who was not a party concerned, would long survive such curiosity. He tells us also, that the person appointed to look after the dead, carefully observes which eye is first picked out by the birds, and from thence judge of the situation of the soul of the deceased; a state of happiness being indicated by the right eye being first picked out. Mr Ives observes, that by reason of the heat of the sun, much less noxious vapour is emitted by these bodies than might be expected; the flesh being soon shrivelled up, and the bones turning quite black. At the extreme point of Malabar hill there is a rock, on the descent to the sea, flat on the top, in which there is a natural crevice, which communicates with a hollow terminating at an exterior opening to the sea. This place is used by the Gentoos as a purifier from their sins. This purification is effected by their going in at the opening, and coming through the crevice, though it seems too small for people of any corpulence to pass.

(II.) BOMBAY, the capital of the island, (N. I.) is a large city with a strong castle. See § 6. When this town began to increase considerably, it was judged proper to add the security of a wall round it to the strength of the fort it had before. Even then, however, it was neglected to take in the dangerous post of Dungharee, which now evidently commands both the town and fort. There has since that time been added, at a great expence, a ditch that encompasses the wall, and can be flooded at pleasure, by letting in the sea, which terminates the ditch on two sides, so that the town is now entirely surrounded with water, and is one of the strongest places in India. Lon. 72. 38. E. Lat. 18. 58. N.

BOMB-BATTERY. See BATTERY, § V. N^o 2, and 16.

(1.) * BOMB-CHEST. *n. s.* [from *bomb* and *chest*.] A kind of chest filled usually with bombs, and sometimes only with gunpowder, placed underground, to tear and blow it up in the air, with those who stand on it. *Chambers*.

(2.) BOMB-CHESTS were formerly much used to drive enemies from a post they had seized, or were about to take possession of: they were set on fire by means of a saucissee fastened at one end; but they are now much disused.

BOMBERG, Daniel, an eminent printer, born at Antwerp. He was the first, who printed Hebrew books at Venice. He began with an edition of the Bible in 4to, in 1511; and afterwards printed many others in folio, 4to, and 8vo. He printed a folio edition in 1517, with the commentaries of the rabbins, dedicated to pope Leo X. and another under the inspection of Rabbi Jacob Haiim, in 4 vols folio, in 1525. He also printed three editions of the Talmud, each of which cost him

100,000 crowns. One of these editions was begun in 1520, and consisted of 11 vols folio. He brought the art of printing Hebrew books to such perfection, says Mr Bayle, that the Jews alledge, that since his death the Hebrew printing has continually grown worse.

* **BOMBILATION**. *n. f.* [from *bombus*, Lat.] Sound; noise; report.—How to abate the vigour, or silence the *bombilation* of guns, a way is said to be by borax and butter, mixt in a due proportion, which will almost take off the report, and also the force of the charge. *Brown's Vulgar Er.*

BOMBINA, in zoology, a species of RANA.

* **BOMB-KETCH**. **BOMB-VESSEL**. *n. f.* A kind of ship, strongly built, to bear the shock of a mortar, when bombs are to be fired into a town.—Nor could an ordinary fleet, with *bomb-vessels*, hope to succeed against a place that has in its arsenal gallees and men of war. *Addison on Italy.*

BOMBON, a province of S. America in Peru.

(1.) * **BOMB-VESSEL**. See **BOMB-KETCH**.

(2.) **BOMB-VESSEL**. See **KETCH**.

(1.) **BOMBUS**, in medicine, denotes a murmuring noise, as of wind breaking out of a narrow into a larger cavity, frequently heard in the thick intestines. The *bombus* heard in the ears, in acute diseases, is laid down by Hippocrates as a sign of death.

(2.) **BOMBUS**, in music, an artificial motion with the hands, imitating in cadence and harmony the buzzing of bees. The word is originally Greek, and signifies the buz or noise of bees, gnats, and the like. In this sense, *bombus* made one of the species of applause used by ancient auditories.

* **BOMBYCINOUS**. *adj.* [*bombycinus*, Lat.] Silken; made of silk.

BOMBYCINUM, in ancient writers, a species of silk, brought from Assyria and the island of Cos.

BOMBYLIUS, in zoology, the HUMBLE BEE. a genus of insects belonging to the order of diptera. The rostrum is long, bristly and bivalved; the bristles being fixed between the horizontal valves. See *Plate XLII, Fig. 8.* Mr Ray reckons 19 species, but Linnæus only 5; viz.

1. **BOMBYLIUS ATER**, has red wings, but a little blackish at the base; and green feet.

2. **BOMBYLIUS CAPENSIS**, with the wings spotted with black, an ash-coloured body, and white behind. It is a native of the Cape of Good Hope.

3. **BOMBYLIUS MAJOR**, with black wings.

4. **BOMBYLIUS MEDIUS**, with a yellowish body, white behind, and the wings spotted with yellow.

5. **BOMBYLIUS MINOR**, with unspotted wings. These 3 and the **ATER**, (N. 1.) are natives of Europe.

BOMBYLOPHAGUS, the humble bee eater, in zoology, the name of a fly of the *TRIPULA* kind, which is larger and stronger than the common kinds; and loving honey, it seizes on the humble bees, and destroys them, in order to get at the bag of honey which they contain. It is of a blackish colour in the body; its head is of a bright red, and the eyes very large and prominent. It is chiefly found in mountainous places.

BOMBYLUS TEREDO, in zoology, a species of humble-bee, which eats its way into wood, and ere makes its nest.

BOMBYSINE, *adj.* made of silk.

(1.) **BOMBYX**, among ancient naturalists, signifies indifferently either silk or cotton.

(2.) **BOMBYX**, in ancient music, a kind of instrument, which in Aristotle's time, was made of a reed, and by reason of its length, was difficult to play on; 2. a contrivance of horn for shutting and opening the holes of wind instruments.

(3.) **BOMBYX**, in zoology, a name given by some authors to a species of winged insect, armed with a sting like those of bees and wasps. It is of the shape of a wasp, but black; it stings very severely, always leaving the sting in the wound. It builds its nest of clay, which it works up to a very hard consistence, and fastens to a stone.

(4.) **BOMBYX** is also a name given to the silk-worm.

BOMENE, a sea port of Zealand, on the N. shore of the island of Schonen, opposite to that of Goree. Lon. 4. 0. E. Lat. 51. 50. N.

BOMIARDE. See **BOMBARD**.

BOMILCAR, the son of Hamilcar a Carthaginian general, who, being suspected of conspiring with Agathocles, was crucified in the midst of Carthage.

BOMMEL, a town of Dutch Guelderland, situated on the N. shore of the river Waal, 4 m. N. E. of Nimeguen. Lon. 4. 0. E. Lat. 52. 6. N.

BOMONICI, [from *βωμος*, an altar, and *νίκη*, victory; *q. d.* conquerors at the altar,] in Grecian antiquity, young men of Lacedæmon, who contended at the sacrifices of Diana which of them was able to endure the most lashes; being scourged at the altar of the goddess. Plutarch relates that some of them would have endured this discipline the whole day, and even to death itself. Such were the barbarous foundations of Spartan heroism, which some moderns affect to admire; but which, after all, produced no such eminent heroes as Athens, where such barbarous discipline was never practised.

BOMSTON, a village in Dorsetshire, near Bournemouth.

(1.) **BON**, a yearly feast celebrated by the Japanese in honour of the dead.

(2.) **BON**, in botany, or **BAN**, a name given by some authors to the tree, the kernel of whose fruit is the coffee. The fruit they call **BUNA**.

(3.) **BON**, in geography. See **BONN**.

(1.) **BONA**, John, a cardinal, eminent for learning and piety, was born at Mondovi, in Piedmont, in 1609. He was devoted to solitude from his infancy almost. At 15 he joined the friars of St Bernard, at Pignerol, and in 1651, was made general of the order. Cardinal Fabius Chigi, afterwards Pope Alexander VII, was his great friend, and upon his resigning his generalship, gave him some considerable places. Clement IX. made him a cardinal in 1669. Bona corresponded with most of the literati in Europe, and wrote several tracts on devotion, which have been translated into French. He died in 1674, aged 65.

(11. 1.) **BONA**, in geography, a province of the ancient kingdom of Conitantina in Africa.

(2.) **BONA**, by the Moors called *Balederna*, a sea port of Algiers, formerly rich and populous, and the capital of the province (N. 1.) It is supposed by some to be the ancient Hippo, the seat of St Austin, and a sea port built by the Romans.

STAFF
Fig. 10.



Fig. 11.

BRICKS.

Fig. 12.

Fig. 12.



Fig. 13.

Fig. 15.

Fig. 14.



Fig. 15.

The inhabitants, however, deny it to be the ancient Hippo, which had been so often taken, retaken, and destroyed by the wars; and say that it was once rebuilt at the distance of 2 or 3 miles from Hippo, out of its ruins, and called *Baleed-el-Hippo*, from a sort of trees of that name that grow in the neighbourhood. It is now a very mean place, poorly built, and thinly inhabited, with scarce any traces of its former grandeur, except the ruins of a cathedral, or as others guess, of a monastery built by St Austin about 3 miles from the city. Near these ruins is a famed spring called by his name, which used to be much resorted to by the French and Italian sailors, who came to drink of its waters, and pay their devotions to a ruined statue said also to belong to the saint, but so mutilated that no traces either of face or dress remain; and as each visitor strives to break off some splinter on account of its supposed sanctity, it will probably be soon reduced to a state of non-existence. Bona was taken by the pirate Barbarossa, and joined to Algiers; but as quickly lost, and recovered by its old masters the Tunisians, who did not keep it long. Charles V. landed in it when he invaded Algiers. It is commanded by a little fort, in which is a garrison of about 300 Turks, under the command of an aga, who is also the governor of the town. The road for the ships is good for nothing before the town, but a little farther west is very deep and safe. Dr Shaw tells us, that the continual discharging of ball into the road, and the neglect of cleansing the port which came to the very walls, is the cause of both becoming so unsafe and incommodious; though this might be easily remedied so as to make the town one of the most flourishing in Barbary. It is 200 m. E. of Algiers. Lon. 7. 59. E. Lat. 36. 5. N.

BONA, a promontory on the E. coast of Africa, nearly opposite to Sicily.

BONA DEA, in heathen mythology, the good goddess, one of the names of Cybele — *Onitis*, she was a Roman lady, the wife of one Fannus, and famous for her chastity, and that after her death she was deified. Her sacrifices were performed only by matrons; and in so secret a manner, that it was no less than death for any man to be present at the assembly. See *CYBELE*. Cicero reproaches Clodius with having entered into this temple disguised as a singing woman, and having by his presence polluted the mysteries of the good goddess. What kind of mysteries these were, we may learn from Juvenal, (Sat. VI. 313.) where he mentions the adventure of Clodius, in terms rather too indelicate to be quoted.

BONA, in law, [from *bonus*, Lat. good,] is variously applied; e. g.

1. **BONA FIDES**. When a person performs any action, which he believes at the time to be just and lawful, he is said to have acted *bona fide*.

2. **BONA GRATIA** was anciently used respecting divorces, which were brought about amicably for some just reason, with the consent of both parties and without any crime on the part of either; as in cases of old age, disease, barrenness, monachism, captivity, or the like.

3. **BONA MOBILIA**, moveable effects.

4. **BONA NOTABILIA**, such goods as a person dying has in another diocese than that wherein he dies, amounting to the value of 5 l. at least; in which case the will of the deceased must be proved, or administration granted in the court of the archbishop of the province, unless by composition or custom, any dioceses are authorized to do it, when rated at a greater sum.

5. **BONA PATRIA**, an assize of countrymen or good neighbours, where 12 or more are chosen out of the country to pass upon an assize, being sworn judicially in the presence of the party.

6. **BONA PERITURA**, perishable goods. By stat. 13. Ed. I. cap. 4. the cargo of a ship that has been cast away shall be kept for a year and a day, and restored to the rightful owner; but if the goods be such as will not endure so long, they are *bona peritura*, which the sheriff is allowed to sell, and to account in money for the value.

7. **BONA VACANTIA**, goods in which no person can claim a property, such as royal fish, shipwrecks, treasure-trove, waifs and estrays. These goods by the law of nature, and by the imperial law, belonged to the first occupant or finder; but in the modern constitutions of European governments, they are annexed to the supreme power by the positive laws of the state.

BONAIR, *adj.* [Fr.] courteous; cheerful.

BONAIRE, an island of S. America, near the N. coast of Terra Firma. It belongs to the Dutch; and abounds in kabritoes and salt. It is 15 miles E. of Curassow, and 40 N. W. of fort Laguirá. Lon. 67. 22. W. Lat. 12. 36. N.

BONAI, very high mountains of France, in the department of Mount Blanc, and ci-devant duchy of Savoy, near Lafforeburg. In some seasons they cannot be ascended without great danger.

BONAMES, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Rhine near the Lahn, where the French, under Gen. Jourdan, had their head quarters, in July 1796.

BONANA, or BANANA. See *MUSA*.

BONAR, a rivulet in Rosshire.

BONARELLI, Gui Ubaldo, an Italian count. He was intrusted with several important negotiations, and was esteemed an able politician and learned philosopher. He was the author of a fine Italian pastoral, intitled, *Filli di Sciro*. He died at Fano, in 1608, aged 45.

* **BONA ROBA**. *n. f.* [Ital. a fine gown.] A shewy wanton.—

We knew where the *bona robas* were. *Shake.*

BONASIA, in ornithology, a species of the **TETRAO**.

(1.) * **BONASUS**. *n. f.* [Lat.] A kind of buffalo, or wild bull.

(2.) **BONASUS**, in zoology, a species of wild ox, of the size of the tame kind, but of a thicker body, and having on its neck a mane like that of a horse, and horns very short and crooked, so as to be of no use to him in fighting. When he is pursued, he is able to throw out his dung a great way, and it is then of a hot and corrosive nature, though not so at other times; and this is his method of defending himself: a thing hardly credible, as Mr Ray justly observes, if we had not instances of other animals, which possess the like faculty.

See *GLAMA*.

(1.) **BONAVENTURA**, a sea port of S. America, on the coast of Papayan, in Terra Firma. The climate is very unhealthy. Lon. 75. 18. W. Lat. 3. 20. N.

(2.) **BONAVENTURA BAY** lies on the above coast (N. 1.) next the South Sea.

(1.) **BONAVENTURE**, a learned cardinal, born in Padua, in 1332. He studied at Paris, and joined the order of St Augustine, of which he was made general in 1377. In 1378, Pope Urban VI. made him a cardinal, which engaged him to defend the rights of the church against Francis de Carraris of Padua; which so enraged that petty despot, that he caused him to be murdered by an arrow, as he passed St Angelo's bridge at Rome, A. D. 1386. He wrote, 1. Commentaries on the Epistles of St John and St James: 2. Lives of the Saints: 3. *Speculum Mariae*: 4. Sermons, &c.

(2.) **BONAVENTURE**, ST, a celebrated cardinal, originally named *John Fidanza*, and called from his works, the *seraphic doctor*. He was born at Bagnarea, in 1221, and became a monk of the order of St Francis, in 1243, a doctor of Paris, in 1255, and general of his order, in 1256. After the death of Clement IV. the cardinals, disagreeing about the election of a new pope, solemnly engaged to elect him who should be named by Bonaventure, even though it should be himself; but he chose Theobald archdeacon of Liege, who was then in the Holy Land, and took the name of *Gregory X*. This pope, in return, in 1272, made him cardinal and bishop of Alba, and appointed him to assist at the 2d general council of Lyons, where he died in 1274. His works, which are chiefly on divinity, were printed at Rome in 8 vols. folio. Bellarmine praises him highly, and even Luther styles him *vir prestantissimus*, a most excellent man. He was canonized by Sixtus IV. in 1482.

BONAUGHT, in the Irish customs, a tax paid to the lord of a manor.

(1.) **BONAVISTA**, an island in the Atlantic ocean, the most easterly and first discovered of the Cape de Verd islands. It is 20 miles long, and 13 broad; has plenty of goats and cotton, with some indigo; and belongs to Portugal. The inhabitants are remarkable for slothfulness: they have a town and two roads where ships come to an anchor. It lies 200 miles W. of the African coast. Lon. 23. 6. W. Lat. 16. 5. N.

(2, 3.) **BONAVISTA**, 1. a spacious bay; and, 2. a cape on the E. side of Newfoundland.

BONAVITUS. See **BENAVIDUS**.

BONCASTON, a village in Somersetshire, near Bath.

* **BONCHRETIEN**. *n. f.* [French.] A species of pear, so called, probably, from the name of a gardener.

BONCIARIUS, Mark Antony, a disciple of Muretus, and a good Latin writer, was born in 1555, near Perugia, where he taught languages. Among his scholars was his own father, originally a shoe-maker, who wishing to turn Jesuit, at 47 years of age, was obliged to acquire some learning from his son. Bonciarius was afflicted with the gout, and at last lost his sight. He died in 1616. He wrote, 1. *De Arte Grammatica*: 2. *Triumphus Augustus*, a poem in 4 books: 3. *Letters*,

printed at Marburg in 1604. Some of these show the method he took to instruct his father in a short time. 4. *Epicurus, five Dialogus de antiqua Philosophia*; wherein he showed, that Epicurus came nearer the truth, than the other philosophers; and that the Stoics were farthest from it.

(1.) * **BOND**. *adj.* [from *bind*, perhaps for *bound*; from *gebonden*, Sax.] Captive; in a servile state.—Whether we be Jews or Gentiles, whether we be *bond* or free. 1 Cor. xii. 13.

(2.) * **BOND**. *n. f.* [*bond*, Sax. *bound*; it is written indifferently, in many of its senses, *bond*, or *band*. See **BAND**.] 1. Cords, or chains, with which any one is bound.—

There left me, and my man, both bound together;

Till, gnawing with my teeth my *bonds* asunder,
I gain'd my freedom. *Shakespeare.*

2. Ligament that holds any thing together.—Let any one send his contemplation to the extremities of the universe, and see what conceivable hoops, what *bond* he can imagine to hold this mass of matter in so close a pressure together. *Locke*.—

3. Union; connexion: a workman's term.—Observe, in working up the walls, that no side of the house, nor any part of the walls, be brought up three feet above the other, before the next adjoining wall be wrought up to it, so that they may be all joined together, and make a good *bond*. *Mertimer's Husbandry*. 4. [In the plural.] Chains; imprisonment; captivity.—Whom I perceived to have nothing laid to his charge worthy of death, or of *bonds*. *Acts* xxiii. 29. 5. Cement of union; cause of union; link of connexion.—

Wedding is great Juno's crown;

O blessed *bond* of board and bed! *Shakespeare*.
—Love cools, brothers divide, and the *bond* is cracked 'twixt son and father. *Shakesf. King Lear*.
6. A writing of obligation to pay a sum, or perform a contract.—

Go with me to a notary, seal me there

Your single *bond*. *Shakespeare*

What if I ne'er consent to make you mine;
My father's promise ties me not to time;
And *bonds* without a date, they say, are void. *Dryden*

7. Obligation; law by which any man is obliged

Unhappy that I am! I cannot heave

My heart into my mouth: I love your majesty

According to my *bond*, no more nor less. *Shakespeare*

—Take which you please, it dissolves the *bonds* of government and obedience. *Locke*.

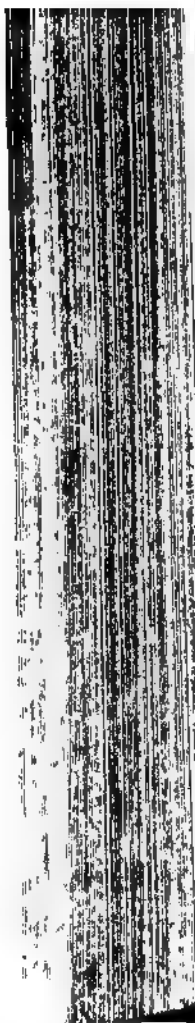
(3.) **BOND**, in law, is a deed whereby the obligor obliges himself, his heirs, executors, and administrators, to pay a certain sum of money to another at a day appointed. If this be all, the bond is called a simple one, *simplex obligatio*. But there is generally a condition added, that if the obligor does some particular act, the obligation shall be void, or else shall remain in full force: payment of rent; performance of covenants in deed; or repayment of a principal sum of money borrowed of the obligee, with interest; when the principal sum is usually one half of the penal sum specified in the bond. In case this condition is not performed, the bond becomes forfeited, absolute at law, and charges the obligor while living; and after his death the obligation descends up

(120) B
 of S. Amer-
 ica. Firma.
 35-18. W.
 above const
 cardinal.
 700, and
 he was
 chap VI.
 to de-
 tains de
 not petty
 ed by an
 Rome,
 res on the
 res of the
 4. Sec.
 d carnal,
 and from
 a horn at
 of the or-
 f Paris, in
 6. After
 disagree-
 mmy
 na. co by
 chief;
 res, who
 the name
 in 12-2.
 and ap-
 anna of
 24, which
 Rome in
 ght, and
 as a must
 SIXTH IV.
 a tax paid
 Atlantic
 ed of the
 op., and
 a with
 The in-
 fa. they
 come to
 African
 y; and,
 d.
 ure, near
 A spec-
 le name
 ple of
 in in
 lures,
 rquibuy
 at 47
 e learn-
 with
 n

printed at Maynooth
 the method he took
 short time. 4. *Epist.*
Philosophus; wherein
 came nearer the mat-
 phers, and that the 5
 (1.) * *BOND*, *adj.*
bound; from *graben*,
 state.—Whether we be
 we be *bound* or free.
 (2.) * *BOND*, *n. s.* It
 ten indifferently, is a
bound. See *BAND*. 1. 2.
 any one is bound.—
 There left me, as
 gether;
 Till, gnawing with
 I gain'd my freedom
 4. Ligation that binds
 any one to the con-
 of the universe, and
 what bond he can in
 matter in to dole a
 Union; connection
 serve, in working up
 house, nor any part
 three feet above the e-
 ing wall be wrought
 all joined together, a
 tiner's *Hypocrit*, a
 prisonment, captives
 have nothing led to
 or of bonds. *Ad. 30*
 cause of union; not
 Weeding is true
 O blessed bond of
 —Love cools, brot
 cracked 'twixt son &
 6. A writing of obli-
 form a contract.—
 Go with me to
 Your single bond.
 What if I per?
 My father's prom?
 And bonds without
 7. Obligation; law
 Unhappy that I
 My heart into my
 According to my
 —Take which you
 government and ob-
 (3.) *BOND*, in law
 ligor obliges himself
 ministrators at a day
 another is called a *sure*
 bond is generally a
 there is generally a
 obligor does some
 shall be void, or else
 payment of rent; if
 died; or repayment
 borrowed of the c
 principal sum is us
 specified in the bo
 not performed, th
 enforce at law, th
 —and after ha

notional edict)
 he has real at-
 the condition
 of making it,
 is rule of law
 tale, or in sen-
 and the bond
 is for it as the
 such an obliga-
 tional. If it
 is an obligati-
 on, no advantage
 a condition be-
 and afterwards
 led, the act of
 self, there the
 is no prudence
 ed against such
 of a bond, or
 ally was reco-
 a of equity in-
 a man to take
 son. his prin-
 the forfeiture
 borrowed; the
 mance of cove-
 4 and 5. And
 same spirit of
 blood for the
 tender of the
 and costs, even
 suit commen-
 sation and dis-
 laying, is when
 suit and in-
 paid bond, there-
 over, or upon
 in loches, both
 a, at the art of
 ter on Horat
 uring, in 1550,
 1564, he was
 took his degree
 L. A. in 1573;
 matter of the
 uth. In this
 era with great
 of his labor
 physician, and
 He died in
 id tenements in
 Comestant in
 southern in *sea*
 bond.) 1. Cap-
 tial.—You only
 bondage consists
 on not suppose
 le a quera I—
 more the
 thence perre-
 c
 ntion'd bird,
 thence. *Quint.*

(121) B O N
 The king, when he design'd you for my stand,
 Refolv'd he would not make my bondage band.
 Dryden.
 1. Obligation; a tie of duty.—If he has a struggle
 for honour, (he is a *bondage* to love; which
 gives the story its turn that way. *Pope*.—He must
 resolve by no means to be enslaved, and brought
 under the *bondage* of observing oaths, which ought
 to vanish when they stand in competition with
 eating and drinking, or taking money. *South*.
 (2.) *BONDAGE* properly signifies the same with
 slavery, but in old law books is used for villenage.
 See *VILLENAGE*. Tenants in *bondage* paid *kenotes*
 and did fealty; they were not to sell trees in their
 own garden, without licence of the lord. The
 widow of a tenant in *bondage* held her husband's
 estate *quodammodo* *in* *marito*, as long as she
 lived single.
 (3.) *BONDAGE* BY THE FIRELOCK, / *Undershaft*
per *antiquary* *crimes* *capituli*, / was when a freeman
 renounced his liberty, and became a slave to some
 great man, which was done by the cutting off
 cutting off a lock of hair from the forehead, and
 delivering it to his lord; denoting that he was to
 be maintained by him for the future. Such a
bondman, if he reclaimed his liberty, or was fugi-
 tive from his master, might be drawn again to
 his servitude by the nose; whence the origin of
 the proverb to pull a man by the nose.
 BONDSDUCK, a dialect of Cockney, in the
 county of Nottingham.
 * *BONDMAID*, *n. s.* [from *bond*, captive, and
maid.] A woman slave.—
 Good sister, wrong me not, nor wrong your-
 self.
 To make a *bondmaid* and a slave of me. *Shakspeare*.
 (1.) * *BONDMAN*, *n. s.* [from *bond* and *man*.]
 A man slave.—Amongst the Romans, in making
 of a *bondman* free, was it not wondered wherefore
 so great ado should be made? the matter to pre-
 sent his slave in some court, to take him by the
 hand, and not only to lay, in the hearing of the
 publick magistrates, I will that this man become
 free, but, after those solemn words uttered, to
 strike him on the cheek, to turn him round, the
 hair of his head to be shaved off; the magistrate
 to touch him thrice with a rod; in the end, a cap
 and a white garment given him. *Shakspeare*.
 O freedom! full delight of human kind!
 Not that which *bondmen* from their masters find.
 Dryden.
 (2.) *BOND-MAN*, in the English law, is used for
 a villain, or tenant in villenage. See *VILLENAGE*
 and *VILLENAGE*.
 (3.) *BOND-MAN*, in Roman antiquity, were of
 two kinds; the one called *servi*, who were those
 either bought for money, taken in war, left by
 succession, or purchased by some other lawful ac-
 quisition; the others born of their *bond-women*,
 and called *vernae*. We may add a 3d kind, men-
 tioned by Johnson, called *adscripti*, *glebae*, or *ad-*
scripti; who were not bound to the person, but
 to the ground or place, and followed by him who
 had the land. These in our law are called *villains*
regardants, as belonging to the manor or place.
 * *BOND-SERVANT*, *n. s.* [from *bond* and *serv-*
ant.] A slave; a servant without the liberty of
 quitting his master.—And if thy brother, that
 questing his master,—and if thy brother, that
 dwellth



dwelleth by thee, be waxen poor, and be sold unto thee, thou shalt not compel him to serve as a bondservant. *Leviticus xxv. 39.*

* **BONDSERVICE.** *n. f.* [from *bond* and *service*.] The condition of a bondservant; slavery.—Upon those did Solomon levy a tribute of *bonds-service*. *Kings.*

* **BONDSLAVE.** *n. f.* [from *bond* and *slave*.] A man in slavery; one of servile condition who cannot change his master.—Love enjoined such diligence, that no apprentice, no, no *bondslave*, could ever be, by fear, more ready at all commands than that young princess was. *Sidney*.—All her ornaments are taken away; of a freewoman she is become a *bondslave*. *1 Macc. ii. 11.*—Commonly the *bondslave* is fed by his lord, but here the lord was fed by his *bondslave*. *Sir J. Davies.*

* **BONDSMAN.** *n. f.* [from *bond* and *man*.] 1. A slave.—Carnal greedy people, without such a precept, would have no mercy upon their poor *bondsmen* and beasts. *Derham.* 2. A person bound, or giving security for another.

BOND-SOCOME, an old law term, signifying an obligation to grind at the mill of the lord of the manor. See **THIRLAGE**.

* **BONDSWOMAN.** *n. f.* [from *bond* and *woman*.] A woman slave.—

My lords, the senators

Are sold for slaves, and their wives for *bondswomen*. *Ben Jonson's Catiline.*

BONDUC, in botany, the name given by *Plumier* to a genus of plants, characterised by *Linæus* under the name of **GUILANDINA**.

BONDUCH, in the materia medica, a name by which many authors have called the Molucca, *Marſao*, or *Bezoar nnts.*

(1.) * **BONE.** *n. f.* [*ban*, Saxon.] 1. The solid parts of the body of an animal made up of hard fibres, tied one to another by small transverse fibres, as those of the muscles. In a fœtus they are porous, soft, and easily discerned. As their pores fill with a substance of their own nature, so they increase, harden, and grow close to one another. They are all spongy, and full of little cells, or are of a considerable firm thickness, with a large cavity, except the teeth; and where they are articulated, they are covered with a thin and strong membrane, called the *periosteum*. Each *bone* is much bigger at its extremity than in the middle, that the articulations might be firm, and the *bones* not easily put out of joint. But, because the middle of the *bone* should be strong, to sustain its allotted weight, and resist accidents, the fibres are there more closely compacted together, supporting one another; and the *bone* is made hollow, and consequently not so easily broken, as it must have been, had it been solid and smaller. *Quincy.*—

Thy *bones* are marrowless, thy blood is cold.

Macbeth.

—There was lately a young gentleman bit to the *bone*. *Tatler.* 2. A fragment of meat; a bone with as much flesh as adheres to it.—

Like *Ætior's* hounds, contending for the *bone*,
Each pleaded right, and would be lord alone.

Dryden.

To be upon the *bones*. To attack.—Puff had a month's mind to be upon the *bones* of him, but was

not willing to pick a quarrel. *L'Esrange.* 4. To make no *bones*. To make no scruple: a metaphor taken from a dog, who readily swallows meat that has no bones. 5. *Bones*. A sort of *bobbins*, made of trotter bones, for weaving bonelace. 6. *Bones*. Dice.

But then my study was to cog the dice,

And dext'rously to throw the lucky sic:

To shun aces ace that swept my stakes away;
And watch the box, for fear they should convey
False *bones*, and put upon me in the play. *Dryd.*

(2.) **BONES, ACCOUNT OF THE HUMAN.** See **ANATOMY, INDEX.**

(3.) **BONES, ACID OF.** From a discovery made by Mr *Scheele*, of a method of producing the phosphoric acid in large quantity from bones, it has been asserted, that this acid is naturally contained in the bones, united with a calcareous earth. From many experiments, however, it appears that no acid is naturally contained in calcined bones; nor can the acid of phosphorus be extracted from them but by means of the vitriolic acid: whence it seems probable, that the phosphoric acid in this case is produced by the combination of a certain quantity of earth with the vitriolic acid. See § 6.

(4.) **BONES, ANCIENT CEREMONIES RESPECTING.** Divers usages and ceremonies relating to the bones of the dead have obtained in different ages; as gathering them from the funeral pile, washing, anointing, and depositing them in urns, and thence into tombs; translating them, which was not to be done without the authority of the pontiffs; not to add, worshipping them, still practised to the bones of saints in the Romish church. Among the ancients, the bones of travellers and soldiers dying in foreign countries were brought home to be buried; till, by an express decree of the senate, made during the Italian war, it was forbid, and the soldiers bodies ordered to be buried where they died. The Romans, who had a peculiar deity presiding over every thing, worshipped *Ossilago* as the god of the bones.

(5.) **BONES, COLOURING OF.** Bones may be stained of a variety of colours by the common dyeing infusions and decoctions of animal and vegetable substances. They are stained also, without heat, by metallic solutions; and by means of these may be spotted or variegated at pleasure. Thus, solution of silver in aquafortis gives a brown or black according to its quantity; solution of gold in aqua regia, or in spirit of salt, a fine purple; solution of copper in the acetous acid, a fine green; and solutions of the same metal in volatile alkalis, a blue, which at first is deep and beautiful, but changes, upon exposure to the air, into a green or bluish green. If the bone is but touched with the two first solutions, and exposed to the air, it does not fail to acquire the colour in a few hours: In the two latter, it requires to be steeped for a day or longer in order to its imbibing the colour. In these and other cases, where immersion for some time is necessary, the bone may be variegated, by covering such parts as are to remain white, with wax or any other matter that the liquor will not dissolve or penetrate.

(6.) **BONES, EARTH OF,** appears to be very different from the calcareous kind: it is much more soluble in the vitriolic acid, and may be precipitated

exhaled from that or any other, by means of the caustic volatile alkali, which cannot be done with the calcareous earth. See § 9.

(7.) BONES, EXTRANEOUS, OR PRETERNATURAL, have been found in the meninges, the duplicatures of the dura mater, between the cerebrum and cerebellum, in the matrices of women, dogs, hares, cows, omentum of swine, &c. See *Hist. Acad. Sc. an. 1711, 1713. Plott's Hist.* § 56, 63, and 74.

(8.) BONES, FOSSILE. See § 10.

(9.) BONES, INDURATION AND MOLLIFICATION OF. Boerhaave observes, that alkaline salts render bones harder and firmer, and that acids make them softer and more flexible. These effects succeed in certain circumstances, but not universally; for bones may be hardened and softened both by acids and by alkalis, according to the quantity of saline matter employed, and the manner in which it is applied. Newmann made bones harder and more compact by treating them with the strongest of the mineral acids; though, when the acid is in sufficient proportion, it destroys or dissolves them. In Papin's digester (a strong close vessel, in which the steam of boiling liquors is confined, and the fluid by this means made to undergo a greater degree of heat than it could otherwise sustain,) the hardest bones are reduced in a short time, by the action of simple water, into a soft pap or jelly; and alkaline liquors produce this effect still sooner. In the history of the French Academy for the years 1742 and 1743, there is an account that Mr Geoffroy produced before the academy a small ivory spoon, which by long lying in mustard, was become flexible and transparent like horn; and that Mr Pouchy saw an ivory spoon, which, by lying for a considerable time in milk, was become supple like leather; and that Mr Henuald produced bones, which had been softened by steeping in vinegar, afterwards hardened to their natural state by steeping in water, and softened a second time by steeping in vinegar. Dr Lewis observed, that the nitric and marine acids diluted, and the acetic acid, make bones flexible and tough like leather; but that the diluted vitriolic acid, though it renders them notably soft, makes them at the same time brittle. It seems as if a great part of the earthy matter, which is the basis of the bone, and on which its hardness depends, was dissolved and extracted by the three first; while the latter, incapable of dissolving this kind of earth into a liquid form, only corrodes it into a kind of selenitic concrete, which remains intermixed in minute particles among the gelatinous matter. Dr Lewis did not find that the softened bones, whatever acid they were softened by, recovered their hardness by steeping in water. Slips of softened ivory, after lying above a month in water, continued nearly as soft as when they were taken out of the acid liquor. A singular induration of bones is produced by fire; the effects of which are here remarkably different according to its degree and the circumstances of its application. Bones exposed to a moderate fire, either in open vessels, or in contact with the burning fuel, become opaque, white, and friable throughout; and an increase of fire, after they have once suffered this

change, renders them only more and more friable. But if they are urged at first with a strong fire, such as that in which copper or iron melts, they become hard, semitransparent, and sonorous, like the hard mineral stones. This curious experiment deserves to be further prosecuted.

(10.) BONES, PETRIFIED, OR FOSSILE, are found in the earth, frequently at great depths, in all the strata, and even in stones and rocks: Some of them are of a huge size, usually supposed to be the bones of giants, but more truly of elephants or hippopotami. It is supposed they were deposited in those strata when all things were in a state of solution by the general deluge; and that they afterwards incorporated and petrified with the bodies where they happened to be lodged. In the museum of the Russian Academy of Sciences, there is a vast collection of fossil bones, teeth, and horns, of the elephant, rhinoceros, and buffalo, which have been found in different parts of that empire, but more particularly in the southern regions of Siberia. Naturalists have been puzzled to account for so great a variety being found in a country, where the animals of which they formerly made a part, were never known to exist. It was the opinion of Peter I. who, though he deserves to be esteemed a great monarch, was certainly no great naturalist, that the teeth found near Voronetz were the remains of elephants belonging to the army of Alexander the Great, who, according to some historians, crossed the Don, and advanced as far as Kostinka. The celebrated Bayer, whose authority carries greater weight in the literary world, conjectures, that the bones and teeth found in Siberia belonged to elephants common to that country, during the wars which the Mogul monarchs carried on with the Persians; and this plausible supposition seems in some measure corroborated, by the discovery of the entire skeleton of an elephant in one of the Siberian tombs. But this opinion, as Mr Pallas very justly observes, (in his *Nov. Comm. De Ossibus Siberiæ fossilibus*, p. 440,) is sufficiently refuted by the consideration, that the elephants employed in the armies of all India could never have afforded the vast quantities of teeth which have been discovered, not to mention those which it is justly to be presumed may still be buried. They have been already dug up in such plenty as to make a considerable article of trade. The same ingenious naturalist has given an ample description of these fossil bones, and has endeavoured to account for their origin. Upon examining those in the museum, he was led to conclude, that as these bones are equally dispersed in all the northern regions of Europe, the climate probably was in the earlier ages less severe than at present, and then possibly sufficiently warm to be the native countries of the elephant, rhinoceros, and other quadrupeds, now found only in the southern climates. But when he visited, during his travels, the spots where the fossil bodies were dug up, and could form a judgment from his own observations, and not from the accounts of others, he renounced his former hypothesis; and, in conformity with the opinions of many modern philosophers, asserted, that they must have been brought by the waters; and that nothing but a sudden and general inundation, such as the deluge, could

have transported them from their native countries in the south, to the regions of the north. In proof of this assertion, he adds, that the bones are generally found separate, as if they had been scattered by the waves, covered with a stratum of mud evidently formed by the waters, and commonly intermixed with the remains of marine plants, and similar substances; instances of which he himself observed during his progress through Siberia, and which sufficiently prove that these regions of Asia were once overwhelmed by the sea. We often find in the earth, petrified bones, the greatest part of their gelatinous matter being extracted by the moisture, and a stony one introduced in its room. In some parts of France, petrified bones are met with, which have an impregnation of copper. Hence, on being calcined in an open fire, a volatile salt is produced from the remains of their gelatinous principle, and the bone is tinged throughout of a fine greenish blue colour, copper always striking a blue with volatile alkalis. The French turquoise stones are no other than these bones prepared by calcination; they are very durable, and bear to be worked and polished nearly in the same manner as glass; without the imperfection, inseparable from grassy bodies, of being brittle. See TURCOISE. There have been lately discovered several enormous skeletons, 5 or 6 feet beneath the surface, on the banks of the Ohio, near the river Miume in America, 700 miles from the sea coast. Some of the tusks are near 7 feet long; one foot nine inches at the base, and one foot near the point; the cavity at the root or base, 19 inches deep. Besides their size, there are several other differences, which will not allow the supposition of their having been elephants: the tusks of the true elephant have sometimes a very slight lateral bend; these have a larger twist, or spiral curve, towards the smaller end; but the great and specific difference consists in the shape of the grinding teeth; which, in these newly found, are fashioned like the teeth of a carnivorous animal; not flat and ribbed transversely on their surface like those of the elephant, but furnished with a double row of high and conic processes, as if intended to masticate, not to grind, their food. A third difference is in the thigh-bone, which is of great disproportionate thickness to that of the elephant; and has also some other anatomical variations. These fossil bones have been also found in Peru and the Brazils; and when cut and polished by the workers in ivory, appear in every respect similar. It is the opinion of Dr Hunter, that they must have belonged to a larger animal than the elephant; and differing from it, in being carnivorous. But as yet this formidable creature has evaded our search; and if, indeed, such an animal exists, it is happy for man that it keeps at a distance; since what ravage might not be expected from a creature, endowed with more than the strength of the elephant, and all the rapacity of the tiger? See MAMMOTH.

(II.) BONES, USES OF. Bones are a very useful article, not only for making different kinds of toys, but likewise in several of the chemical arts; as, for making cast iron malleable, for absorbing the sulphur of sulphureous ores; for forming tests

and cupels, or vessels for refining gold and silver with lead; (burnt bones composing a mass of a porous texture, which absorbs the vitrified lead and other matters, while the gold and silver, being unvitrescible, remain entire behind;) for the preparation of milky glasses and porcelains; for the rectification of volatile salts and empyreumatic oils; and for making glue. The bones of different animals are not equally fit for these uses; even the glue, or gelatinous part of the bones of one animal being remarkably different both in quantity and cohesiveness from that of another. The human skull-bone, or cranium, the natural defence of the seat of sensation and perception in the noblest animal, has been recommended medicinally as a cure for epilepsies, deliria, and all disorders of the senses, by the same false philosophy which ascribed anti-asthmatic virtues to the lungs of the long-winded fox; and expected, because fowls are said to digest even small stones, that the skin of the gizzard, dried and powdered, would produce a similar effect in the human stomach. To such extravagances have physicians been led by the superstitions of former ages!

(12.) BONES, WHITENING OF. Two processes are described in the *Alia Hafmanienfis* for whitening bones, for skeletons. Professor Rau had a method of giving them a great degree of whiteness. By bare exposure to the air, sun, and rain, for a length of time, they become notably white; but the whitest bones, kept in rooms tainted with smoke or fuliginous vapours, grow in a little time yellowish, brownish, and unsightly. It is customary for the putrification of bones, to boil them in alkaline liquors; which, by dissolving and extracting the superfluous fat, improve their whiteness.

* To BONE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To take out the bones from the flesh; as, the cooks *boned* the veal.

BONE-ACE, a game at cards played thus: The dealer deals out two cards to the first hand, and turns up the third, and so on through all the players, who may be 7, 8, or as many as the card will permit: he that has the highest card turned up to him carries the bone; that is, one half of the stake; the other half remaining to be played for. Again, if there be three kings, three queens, three tens, &c. turned up, the eldest hand wins the bone. But the ace of diamonds is bone ace and wins all other cards whatever. Thus much for the bone; and as for the other half of the stake, the nearest to 31 wins it; and he that turns up or draws 31 wins it immediately.

BONE-BREAKER, in ornithology, a name given to the Ossifrage, a species of eagle.

BONE-CHURCH, a village of the Isle of Wight East Medina.

* BONE-LACE. *s. f.* [from *bone* and *lace*; the bobbins with which lace is woven being frequently made of bones.] Flaxen lace, such as women wear on their linen.—The things you follow, and make songs on now, should be sent to knit, or laid down to bobbins or *bonelace*. *Tatler*.—We destroy the symmetry of the human figure, and foolishly contrive to call off the eye from great and real beauties, to childish gewgaw ribbands and *bonelace*. *Spectator*.

* **BONELESS.** *adj.* [from *bone*.] Wanting bones.—

I would, while it was smiling in my face,
Have pluckt my nipple from his *boneless* gums,
And dasht his brains out. *Shakesp.*

* **BONESET.** † *v. n.* [from *bone* and *set*.] To restore a bone out of joint to its place; or join a bone broken to the other part.—A fractured leg set in the country by one pretending to *bone-setting*. *Winn's Surgery.*

(1.) * **BONESETTER.** *n. s.* [from *bone-set*.] A surgeon; one who particularly professes the art of restoring broken or luxated bones.—At present my desire is to have a good *Bonesetter*. *Dent.*

(2.) **BONESETTERS.** See **BARBER**, § 3.

BONE-SETTING, *n. s.* the art of replacing dislocated bones, and of joining the parts of fractured ones. See **SURGERY**, **INDEX**.

BONE-SPAVIN, *n. s.* a disease incident to horses. See **FARRIERY**, **INDEX**.

BON-ESPERANCE, the Cape of Good Hope. See **GOOD HOPE**.

BONET, Theophilus, an eminent physician born at Genoa, March 15th, 1620. He took his degree of M. D. in 1643, after he had gone through most of the famous universities, and was for some time physician to the duke of Longueville. Mean while his skill in his profession got him considerable practice; but being seized with sickness, it obliged him to retire from business, which gave him leisure to collect all the observations he had made during a practice of 40 years. He wrote, 1. *Polyaltbes, sive Thesaurus Medicopracticus*, 3 vols folio. 2. *Labyrinthe Medici extricatus*. 3. *Medicine Septentrionalis Collatitia*; and other works.

BONEWELL, a village in Herefordshire, near Crat-Castle.

BONFADIO, or } James, one of the most po-
BONFADIUS, } lite writers of the 16th cen-
tury, was born in Italy, near the lake Garda. He was secretary to the cardinal de Bari, and after his death to the cardinal Ghinucci. He afterwards read public lectures on Aristotle's politics, and on rhetoric; and was made historiographer to the republic of Genoa. He applied himself to compose the annals of that state, in which he wrote too satirically on some great families. This created him enemies who were resolved to ruin him; they accused him of the unnatural sin; and, as they suborned witnesses to convict him, he was condemned to be burnt. Some say that this sentence was executed; and others, that his punishment was changed, and that he was beheaded, A. D. 1550. Upon the day of his execution he wrote a note to John Baptist Grimaldi, to testify his gratitude to the persons who had endeavoured to save him; and promised to inform them, how he found himself in the other world, if it could be done without frightening them. But it does not appear, that he performed his promise, any more than the many who had promised the like before him.—His history of Genoa is esteemed. We have also some letters, some orations, and

Latin and Italian poems of his, which were printed at Bologna, in 1744, 8vo

BONFINIUS, Anthony, flourished in the 15th century. He was a native of Ascoli in Italy, and attached himself to the belles lettres. Matthias Corvinus king of Hungary, having heard of his learning, sent for him, retained him, and settled upon him a pension. He wrote, 1. A history of Ascoli; 2. A treatise of virginity and conjugal chastity; 3. a history of Hungary; and other works.

* **BONFIRE.** *n. s.* [from *bon*, good, Fr. and *fire*.] A fire made for some publick cause of triumph or exultation.—

Ring ye the bells to make it wear away,
And *bonfires* make all day. *Spenser*

—How came so many *bonfires* to be made in queen Mary's days? Why, she had abused and deceived her people. *South.*—

Full soon by *bonfire*, and by bell,
We learnt our liege was passing well. *Gay.*

BONFRERIUS, James, a learned Jesuit, born at Dinant, in 1573. He wrote a commentary on the Pentateuch, and learned notes on the Onomasticon of the places and towns mentioned in the Scripture. He died at Tournay in 1643, aged 70.

BONGARS, or } James, a native of Orleans,
BONGARSIAS, } was one of the most learned men of the 16th century. He applied himself to the study of critical learning, and was for near 30 years employed in the most important negotiations of Henry IV. whose resident he was several times at the courts of the princes of Germany, and at length his ambassador. He was of the Protestant religion; and, when very young, had courage to write and post up in Rome a very spirited answer to a bull of Pope Sixtus V. The public is obliged to him for the edition of several authors, who had written the History of the Expeditions to the Holy Land; he also published, among other works, an edition of Justin, in which he restored several passages that had been corrupted, by consulting valuable M. SS. and added notes which explained many difficulties. He died in 1612, aged 58.

(1.) **BONGO,** an island of Japan.

(2.) **BONGO,** or **BUNGO,** a town in the isle of Ximo.

(3.) **BONGO,** the capital of the island, (N. 1.) It is a sea port, and lies on the E. side, opposite to *Tonfa*.

BONGOMILES, a monk who founded the heretical sect of the Bogomili. See **BOGOMILI**.

BONGO-PALMA, a name given by some to the nutmeg tree.

BON-GOUT, [Fr.] a fine taste.

(1.) * **BONGRACE.** *n. s.* [from *bonne grace*, Fr.] A forehead-cloth, or covering for the forehead. Not now used. *Skinner.*—I have seen her beset all over with emeralds, and pearls, ranged in rows about her cawl, her peruke, her *bongrace*, and chaplet. *Hakewill on Providence.*

(2.) **BONGRACE,** in sea language, a frame of old ropes, or junks of cables, laid along the bows, sterns

† This verb appears to have as little authority as **TO BLOOD-LET**. See our note on that article, p. 65. It is both cases, Dr Johnson seems to have taken the existence of the verbs for granted, because the same, **BLOOD-LETTING** and **BONE-SETTING**, have the terminations of participles.

Bonas and **sides** of ships, sailing in cold latitudes, to preserve them from damage by the flakes of ice.

BONHA, a river of S. America, which falls into the Pacific Ocean.

BONHIL, a parish of Scotland in Dumbartonshire, $4\frac{1}{2}$ m. long, and 4 broad. The Leven and the S. end of Loch-Lomond divide it nearly into two equal parts, and supply with salmon, parr, trouts, &c. The ground is all inclosed and subdivided. The soil is various, and produces the usual crops. About 250 acres are planted with fax and firs, and the natural wood is so plentiful, that a cutting of it, at 20 years, is worth about L. 2550. The population in 1791, as stated by the rev. Mr Gordon Stewart, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2310, and had increased no less than 1409 within the preceding 36 years. This increase appears to have been chiefly owing to the establishment of 3 printfields and 4 bleachfields on the banks of the Leven, which flourished greatly before the war, and have been of late much improved. The duties paid to government, for one year preceding 5th July 1791, amounted to L. 13,296. 8sh. 4d. There are about 100 sheep and 160 horses in Bonhil, besides black cattle, the number of which fluctuates much.

BONIFACE, I. pope of Rome, was elected A. D. 418, and exerted himself much to establish the supremacy of Rome over the other churches. St Augustine dedicated to him his book against the Pelagians. He died A. D. 423.

BONIFACE, II. governed the papal see only 2 years and 2 days. He was elected on the death of Felix IV. A. D. 530, but was opposed by the antipope, Dioscorus. He appointed Vigilius his successor, but afterwards annulled his appointment, finding Vigilius not popular. He died in 531.

BONIFACE, III. was elected A. D. 606, and reigned only 8 months and 23 days; yet in that short period, by favouring the Emperor Phocas, he got the important title of *Universal Bishop* exclusively conferred on himself and his successors. Alstedius dates the beginning of the reign of the *Baast* under this Pope; "*Incipit regnum bestia*"; (says he) *quia Bonifacius aperuit os suum ut ambitiosa bestia*. He was succeeded by

BONIFACE, IV. who obtained the additional favour from Phocas, of converting the famous heathen temple, built by Agrippa, called the *Pantheon*, into a church. Several literary works are ascribed to him, but they are suspected to be spurious. He died, A. D. 615, in the 9th year of his pontificate, and was canonized.

BONIFACE, V. was elected pope on the death of Deusdedit, A. D. 618, and was succeeded by Honorius, in 626.

BONIFACE, VI. was raised to the papal Chair on the death of Formosus, A. D. 895, but enjoyed his pontifical dignity only 15 days.

BONIFACE, VII. has the title of *Antipope*: because, in 974, he caused Benedict VI. to be strangled in prison, and after the election of Benedict VII. removed the treasures of the church to Constantinople. He, however, returned after the death of Benedict, and caused his successor John XIV. to be murdered; but died himself soon after, and his body was dragged by the feet about the streets.

BONIFACE, VIII. obtained the pontifical dig-

nity in 1294, upon the uncommon event of pope Celestine V. Alstedius says, that "he entered like a fox, reigned like a lion, and died like a dog." In 1297, he canonized St Lewis king of France; and in 1300, instituted a jubilee to be held every 100 years thereafter. At this jubilee he dressed himself the one day in his pontifical habit, and the next in imperial robes; telling the emperor Albert's ambassadors, that their master's election was of no avail, without his authority. He boasted that he was the keeper of the keys of heaven: and caused two drawn swords to be carried before him, as emblems of his two-fold authority. He was killed in 1303.

BONIFACE, IX. was elected Pope, A. D. 1389, on the death of Urban VI, and enjoyed the papal dignity 14 years and 11 months, but not without competitors; for at this time there was a succession of antipopes at Avignon, for about 50 years, which Roman Catholic writers stile *the Great Schism*, and sometimes there were three popes existing at once. He died A. D. 1404.

(1.) **BONIFACE**, ST, an Englishman, born at Kirton in Devonshire, and originally named **WINIFRED**. He preached the gospel among the barbarous nations; and though created Abp. of Mentz, by Gregory II. soon after resigned his office, to go and preach in East Friesland, where he was martyred by the Pagans on the 5th of June, 754. His letters were published by Senarius.

(2.) **BONIFACE**, ST, an Italian, who came to Scotland, about A. D. 693 or 697, to make our forefathers acquainted with the church of Rome. For this pious purpose, he is said to have built a church on the spot where he landed, at the mouth of a rivulet between the counties of Angus and Mearns; another at Fejin; a 3d at Restennoth and a 4th at Rosemarkie, in Ross-shire; where being taken with the pleasantness of the place, he took up his residence till he died. Bishop Leslie speaks of his relics, and those of his parents, being preserved in ancient monuments at Rosemarkie. Mr Wood the minister of that parish mentions, that they have a well and an annual fair denominated after him, and that the public seal of the burgh bears his image. *Stat. Acc. Vol. IX. p. 343*.

BONIFACIA, in botany, a name given by Bauhine and others, to the broad leaved *Ruscus*, or Butcher's broom.

(1.) **BONIFACIO**, a district of Corfica, at the S. extremity of the island, from which the strait between Corfica and Sardinia has its name.

(2.) **BONIFACIO**, a town in the district, (N. 1.) beyond the mountains, near the strait called *Bonifacio*. It is well fortified and populous. Lon. 9. 20. E. Lat. 41. 25. N.

BONINGALE, a village in Shropshire, near Alkrington.

(1.) **BONINGTON**, a village of Mid-Lothian in the parish of Ratho.

(2, 3.) **BONINGTON**, two villages in Kent viz. 1. in Romney-marsh, near Wye: 2. united to Fakenhurst.

(1.) **BONIS ARRESTANDIS**. See **ARRESTANDIS**.

(2.) **BONIS ARRESTO**, &c. See **ARRESTO**.

(3.) **BONIS NON AMOVENDIS**, in-law, is a writ directed to the sheriffs of London, &c. charging them, that a person against whom judgment

obtained

obtained, and prosecuting a writ of error, be not suffered to remove his goods until the error is determined.

BONITO, in ichthyology. See **SCOMBER**.

BONIUM, the ancient name of **BANGOR**.

BONKLE and **PRESTON**, two united parishes of Scotland in Berwickshire, extending about 6 m. every way, and containing 8,900 acres. The soil on the high ground is dry, thin and poor, but has been much improved of late. The rest is naturally fertile. The climate is healthy. The sheep and cattle are much improved by English breeds. The farms are large; from L. 200 to L. 600 a-year. The population, of consequence, has not increased: there being, by the rev. Mr Douglas's statement to Sir J. Sinclair, only 622 souls, in 1791; which was 69 below the number in 1755.

BONLACHY, a town of Ireland, in Longford.

BON MOT, [Fr.] a jest; a witty repartee.

BONN, or **BON**, an ancient and strong city of Germany, in the electorate of Cologne, and the usual residence of the elector. It is of great consequence in the time of war; because it is situated on the Rhine, in a place where it can stop every thing that comes down that river. It was well fortified by the elector, who had a fine palace and beautiful gardens in the city: but notwithstanding its strength, it was taken by the French republican army, in 1795. Lon. 7. 5. E. Lat. 51. 13. N.

1. **BONNA**, in ancient geography, one of the bridges built by Drusus on the Rhine; supposed by some to be the same with the *Ara Ubiorum*; now called **BONN**.

2. **BOSNA**, in zoology, a name given by Pliny and others to the **BONASUS**.

BONNAGE, in our old feudal customs, not yet wholly abolished, an obligation on the part of a tenant to cut down part of the proprietor's corn, when called on. It sometimes happens, that by reaping the proprietor's crop, the poor tenants lose the opportunity of cutting down his corn. This and similar servitudes, such as **CARRIAGES**, **THIRLAGES**, &c. are "so adverse to agriculture, and even to the true interests of the proprietor, that in a short time, (it is hoped,) their very names will be obsolete." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Ac. Vol. I. p. 413.*

3. **BONNEFONS**, John, a Latin poet, born in Auvergne, and lieutenant general in the army of the Seine, acquired great reputation by his poems, and other poems. He died under the reign of Lewis XIII.

4. **BONNEFONS**, John, another Latin poet, mentioned to the former, N. 1.

BONNER, Edmund, bishop of London, of immortal memory, was born at Hanley in Worcestershire, and generally supposed to be the natural son of one Savage a priest; who was the natural son of Sir John Savage of Clifton in the same county. Stowe, however, says, he was positively assured that Bonner was the legitimate offspring of a man, who lived in a cottage known to this day by the name of *Bonner's place*. About 1512, he entered student of Broadgate Hall in Oxford. In 1519, he was admitted bachelor of the canon and civil law. About the same time he took or-

ders, and obtained some preferment in the diocese of Worcester. In 1526, he was created doctor of canon law. Having now acquired the character of a shrewd politician and civilian, he was soon distinguished by cardinal Wolsey, who made him his commissary for the faculties, and heaped upon him a variety of church preferments. He possessed at one time the livings of Blaydon and Cherry-Burton in Yorkshire, Ripple in Worcestershire, east Derham in Norfolk, prebend of St Paul's, and the archdeaconry of Leicester. Bonner was with the cardinal at Caw-wood, when he was arrested for high treason. After the death of that minister, he soon insinuated himself into the favour of Henry VIII. who made him one of his chaplains, and employed him in several embassies, particularly to the pope. In 1532, he was sent to Rome, with Sir Edward Kame, to answer for the king, whom his Holiness had cited to appear in person or by proxy. In 1533, he was again dispatched to pope Clement VII. at Marfeilles, upon the excommunication of king Henry on account of his divorce. On this occasion he threatened the pope with so much resolution, that his Holiness talked of burning him alive, or throwing him into a caldron of melted lead; upon which Bonner thought fit to decamp. His infallibility did not foresee, that the man, whom he thus threatened was predestined to burn heretics in England. In 1538, being ambassador at the court of France, he was nominated bishop of Hereford; but, before consecration, was translated to the see of London, and enthroned in April 1540.—Henry VIII. died in 1547, while Bonner was ambassador with the emperor Charles V. During this reign he was constantly zealous in his opposition to the pope; and, to please the king, favoured the reformation; but, on the accession of young Edward, he refused the oath of supremacy, and was committed to the Fleet; however, he soon thought fit to promise obedience to the laws, and was accordingly released. He continued to comply with the reformation; but with such manifest neglect and reluctance, that he was twice reprimanded by the privy council, and in 1540, after a long trial, was committed to the Marshalsea, and deprived of his bishopric. The succeeding reign gave him ample opportunity of revenge. Mary was scarce seated on the throne before Bonner was restored to his bishopric; and soon after appointed vicegerent and president of the convocation. From this time he became the chief instrument of papal cruelty; and he is said to have condemned no less than 200 Protestants to the flames in the space of 3 years. Nor was this monster of a priest more remarkable for his cruelty than his impudence. When Queen Elizabeth came to the crown, he had the insolence to meet her, with the rest of the bishops, at Highgate. But, in the 2d year of her reign, refusing to take the oath of allegiance and supremacy, he was again deprived, and committed to the Marshalsea; where he died in 1569, after ten years confinement. There cannot be a stronger instance of the comparative lenity of the Protestant church, than its suffering this miscreant to die a natural death. Several pieces were published under his name.

BONNESTABLE, a town of France, in the department of Sarthe. It carries on a great trade in corn, and is 15 m. N. E. of Mans. Lon. o. 30. E. Lat. 48. 11. N.

(1.) * **BONNET**. *n. f.* [*bonnet*, Fr.] A covering for the head; a hat; a cap.—

Go to them with this *bonnet* in thy hand,
And thus far having stretch'd it, here be with them,
Thy knee buffing the stones; for, in such business,
Action is eloquence. *Shakef. Coriolanus.*

—They had not probably the ceremony of vailing the *bonnet* in their salutations; for, in medals, they still have it on their heads. *Addison.*

(2.) * **BONNET**. [In fortification.] A kind of little ravelin, without any ditch, having a parapet three feet high, anciently placed before the points of the salient angles of the glacis.

(3.) * **BONNET A PRESTRE**, or priest's cap, is an outwork, having at the head three salient angles, and two inwards.

(4.) **BONNET A PRESTRE** differs from the double tenaille only in this, that its sides, instead of being parallel, are like the *queue d'aronde*, or swallow's tail, that is, narrowing, or drawing close at the gorge, and opening at the head.

(5.) **BONNETS**, (§ 1. Def. 1.) are still used in many parts of Scotland, instead of hats.

(6.) **BONNETS**, in fortification, (§ 2.) consist of two faces, having only a parapet with two rows of palisadoes, of about 10 or 12 feet distance. They have a communication with the covered way, by a trench cut through the glacis, and palisadoes on each side.

(7.) * **BONNETS**. [In the sea language.] Small sail set on the courses on the mizen, mainsail, and foresail of a ship, when these are too narrow or shallow to cloath the mast, or in order to make more way in calm weather. *Chambers.*

BONNET-HILL, a hill near Dundee.

BONNET PEPPER. See **CAPSICUM**.

(1.) **BONNEVAL**, a town of France, in the department of Eure and Loire, and ci-devant province of Beauce. It had lately a fine Benedictine abbey. It is seated on the Loire, 8 m. N. of Chateaudun. Lon. 1. 20. E. Lat. 48. 12. N.

(2.) **BONNEVAL**, Claudius Alexander, count de, known in the latter part of his life by the name of **OSMAN BASHAW**, descended from a family related to the blood-royal of France, entered at the age of 16 in the service of that crown, and married the daughter of marshal de Biron. He made the campaign in Flanders in 1690; but soon after left the French army, and entered into the imperial service under prince Eugene, who honoured him with an intimate friendship. The intrigues of the marquis de Prié, his inveterate enemy, ruined his credit, however, at the court of Vienna, and caused him to be banished the empire. He then offered his service to the republic of Venice and to Russia; which being declined, his next tender was to the Grand Signor, who gladly received him. It was stipulated, that he should have a body of 30,000 men at his disposal; that a government should be conferred on him, with the rank of Bashaw of three tails, and a salary of 10,000 aspers a-day; and that, in case of a war,

he should be commander in chief. The first expedition he engaged in, after his arrival at Constantinople, was to quell an insurrection of Arabia Petrea, which he effected; and at his return had large offers made him by Kouli Khan, but did not choose to accept them. Some time after he commanded the Turkish army against the emperor, over whose forces he gained a victory at the Danube. But success does not always protect a person against disgrace; for Bonneval, notwithstanding his services, was first imprisoned, and then banished to the island of Chio. The sultan however continued his friend; and the evening before his departure made him Bashaw-general of the Archipelago, which, with his former appointment of beglerbeg of Arabia, rendered him one of the most powerful persons in the Ottoman empire. In this island he found a retirement quite agreeable to his wishes; but did not long enjoy it, being sent for back, and made *topigi* or master of the ordnance, a post of great honour and profit. He died in this employment, aged 75, in 1747 and wrote the memoirs of his own life.

BONNEVILLE, a town of France, in the department of Mount Blanc, seated on the N. side of the river Arve, at the foot of a mountain, called the Mole.

BONNEY. See **BONNY**, No. 2.

* **BONNILY**. *adv.* [from *bonny*.] Gayly; handsomely; plumply.

* **BONNINESS**. *n. f.* [from *bonny*.] Gayety; handsomeness; plumpness.

(1.) **BONNITON**, a district in Lanarkshire.

(2.) **BONNITON FALL**, or } a beautiful cataract
BONNITON LINN, } in the above district
(No. 1.) where the whole water of the river Clyde falls over a rock upwards of 12 feet perpendicular about 2½ m. above Lanark. The romantic scenery around this and **CORRA LIN**, which is farther down the Clyde, is elegantly described by Mr Lockhart of Baronsald, in the *Stat. Acc.* XV. 20—22.

(1.) * **BONNY**. *adj.* [from *bon*, *bonne*, Fr.] is a word now almost confined to the Scottish dialect. 1. Handsome; beautiful.—

Match to match I have encounter'd him,
And made a prey for carrion kites and crows
Ev'n of the *bonny* beast he lov'd so well.

Shakespeare.

Thus wail'd the louts in melancholy strain
Till *bonny* Susan spread across the plain. *Ge.*

2. Gay; merry; frolicksome; cheerful; blithe.
Then sigh not so, but let them go,
And be you blithe and *bonny*. *Shakespeare.*

3. It seems to be generally used in conversation for *plump*.

(2.) **BONNY**, *n. f.* among miners, a bed of ore, differing only from a *squat* as being round, whereas the *squat* is flat. See **SQUAT**.

(3.) **BONNY**, a river of France.

(4.) **BONNY**, a town of France, in the department of Loiret and ci-devant province of Gâtinais, seated on the confluence of the Bonny, (No. 3.) and the Loire. Lon. 2. 54. E. Lat. 47. 36.

* **BONNY-CLABBER**, *n. f.* A word used in Ireland for sour buttermilk.—

We scorn, for want of talk, to jabber
Of parties o'er our *bonny-clabber*;

Nor are we studious to enquire,
Who votes for manors, who for hire. *Swift.*

BONNYTOWN, a village of Fifeshire, in the parish of Carnock.

BONO ET MALO, WRIT DE. A special writ of goal delivery was anciently used for each particular prisoner under this title; but these things being found inconvenient and oppressive, a general commission for all the prisoners has long been established in their stead.

BONONCINI, Giovanni, an eminent composer of music, who for some time divided the opinions of the *connoisseurs* of this kingdom with respect to the comparative merits of himself and the great Handel; which gave occasion for the well known epigram, on the disputes between *Tweedle Dum* and *Tweedle Dee*, said to have been written by Dr Swift. An Italian opera was published with Bononcini's name prefixed to it, intitled *Pharazani*; but whether the words, or only the music, are his composition, is uncertain; and indeed, in general, the language of those pieces, written merely for musical representation, is so extremely paltry, that the greatest compliment that can be paid to their authors is, to suffer their names to lie buried in obscurity.

(1.) **BONONIA**, an ancient town of Gallia Belgica, supposed to be the *Portus Icius* of Cæsar, and the *Gessoriacum* of Mela. Peutinger's map expressly calls Gessoriacum *Bononia*. It is now called **BOLOGNE**.

(2.) **BONONIA**, a town of Italy, in Gallia Cispadana; a name probably given by the Gauls, to distinguish it from **BONONIA**, (No. 1.) Its ancient name when in the hands of the Tuscans, who were expelled by the Gauls, was **FALSINA**. In A. U. C. 504, the Romans led a colony thither; which, about the beginning of the Actian war, was increased by Augustus, and was the *Colonia Bononiensis* of Tacitus. It is now called **Bologna**. See **BOLOGNA**, No. 1.

(3.) **BONONIA**, a town of Mœsia Superior, on the Danube; now called *Bodon* in Bulgaria. See **BODON**.

(4.) **BONONIA**, a town of Pannonia Inferior, between Muria to the N. W. and Taurinum to the E.

(5.) **BONONIA**, John de, a native of Sicily, archdean of Palermo, and chaplain to Charles V. He was deputed by the emperor to an assembly of divines, who met in 1553, to decide the question whether the people should be allowed to read the Bible in their native language. Bononia violently espoused the *negative* side, and the assembly decided accordingly. He published a work on *Predestination* at Louvain, in 1555.

BONONIAN STONES. See **BOLOGNIAN**.

BONORUM ATTACHIAMENTA. See **ATTACHIAMENTA**.

BONOSIACI, or } an ancient branch of **ADOPT-**
BONOSIANI, } **TIANI**, in the 4th century,
denominated from their leader **BONOSUS** a bishop of Macedonia. The Bonosiani were prior to the *Prisciani*, and even to *Nestorius*; whence some rather consider them as a branch of *Arians*. See **ADOPTIANI**.

BONPOURNICKEL, a coarse kind of bread used in Westphalia. See **BREAD**.

BONS-HOMMES, or **BON-HOMMES**, a sort of hermits of St Augustin, founded by F. de Paula. They were brought over into England in 1283,

VOL. IV. PART I.

by Emund earl of Cornwall, and settled at Ashdug in Bucks, besides which, they had only one house more at Edington in Wiltshire. They followed the rule of St Austin, and wore a blue habit. The name is said to have arisen from Lewis XI. of France, who used to call F. de Paula, prior to the order, *Le bon homme*. Till then they had been called the *Minimi*, or the order of *Grammont*.

BONTES-HALL, a village of Derbyshire, 6 m. N. of Wirksworth.

BONTIA, WILD OLIVE OF BARBADOES, a genus of the angiospermia order, belonging to the didynamia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 40th order, *Personata*. The calyx is quinquepartite; the corolla is bilabiate, the inferior lip tripartite and revolute; the plum is ovate and monospermous, with the apex turned to one side. There are two species.

1. **BONTIA DAPHNOIDES** has a woody stem and branches; rising to the height of ten feet, with narrow, smooth, thickish leaves, crenated at the edges; and flowers from the sides of the branches, succeeded by large oval fruit that sometimes ripen in England. This species is generally cultivated in the gardens at Barbadoes for hedges; for which it is exceedingly proper, being an evergreen of very quick growth. It is said, that from cuttings planted there in the rainy season, when they have immediately taken root, there has been a complete hedge 4 or 5 feet high, in 18 months.

2. **BONTIA GERMINANS** grows in swamps, from which it has been reckoned a species of the mangrove tree. By others it has been supposed to be the plant that produces the **MOLUCCA BEAN**. It rises 14 or 16 feet high, sending out small branches, which incline downward to the water, and as soon as they reach it, put out roots into the mud, whereby they propagate very fast; these branches are garnished with leaves placed opposite; they are of a thick substance, like those of the bay tree, about two inches long and one broad, very smooth on their surface: the flowers are white, and come out in the spikes from the upper branches. These plants are easily propagated, either by seeds or cuttings, sown or planted on a hot-bed; but they must be kept constantly in the stove.

BONT-VISCH, in ichthyology, the name given by the Dutch to an East Indian fish, seeming to approach to the nature of the European *Turdus*, but that it has no scales.

BONVINCINO, Alexander, called **Le Moretto**, history and portrait painter, was born at Rovate in 1514. He was the disciple of Titian, but having seen the designs of Raphael, he gave himself up entirely to study those master-pieces of art and genius; which he did with such judgment, that he became an exceeding good painter. His works were eagerly bought up, being extremely admired for the tenderness of the penciling; the correctness, and spirited expression of the figures; the neatness of the finishing; and the rich variety of the draperies; which usually consisted of velvets, damasks, or sattins, copied after nature. He was equally excellent in portrait, and by many was placed in competition with Titian himself. He died in 1564.

(1.) * **BONUM MAGNUM. n. f.** A species of plum.

R

(2.) Bo-

(2.) **BONUM MAGNUM** [*i. e.* great good,] is also applied in a convivial or ludicrous sense to a pint bottle of wine.

BONUS, [*i. e.* good, *Lat.*] among Stock-jobbers, a præmium given on the nominal terms of government loans. Thus, the minister contracts for money to be lent to government on specified terms, in addition to which, he proposes certain benefits to the lenders, as a *bonus*, in addition to the original terms; *ex. gr.* a certain number of Lottery Tickets considerably under the price they would fetch at market, is a very common article in the *bonus* of the loan.

BONUS HENRICUS. See **CHENOPODIUM**.

* **BONY.** *adj.* [from *bone*.] 1. Consisting of bones.—At the end of this hole is a membrane, fastened to a round *bony* limb, and stretched like the head of a drum; and therfore, by anatomists, called *tympanum*. *Ray*. 2. Full of bones.

BONYCK, a village in Sussex, N. of Horsham.

BONYE, a village in Nottinghamshire, near Widmer Pool.

BONYNESS. *n. f.* the quality of being bony.

BONYTHON, a town in Cornwall, near Gunwallo, N. of Lizard Point.

(1.) **BONZES**, Indian priests. The Tonquinese have a pagod or temple in each town; and each pagod has at least two bonzes belonging to it; some have 30 or 40. These bonzes, to distinguish themselves from the laity, wear a chaplet about their necks consisting of 100 beads; and carry a staff, at the end of which is a wooden bird. They live upon the alms of the people; yet are very charitably disposed, and maintain several orphans and widows out of their own collections.

(2.) **BONZES OF CHINA** are the priests of the Fohists, or sect of Fohi. It is one of their established tenets, that great rewards are allotted for the righteous, and punishments for the wicked, in the next world; and that there are various mansions in which the souls of men will reside, according to their different degrees of merit. But, in order to deserve the favour of heaven, the bonzes instruct the people to treat the priests with respect and reverence, to support and maintain them, and to erect temples and monasteries for them. They tell them, that unless they comply with their injunctions, they will be cruelly tormented after death, and pass through a disagreeable variety of transmigrations: that they will be changed into mules, asses, rats, mice, &c. The Chinese bonzes, according to F. le Comte, are a gang of dissolute idle fellows. All their aim is to incite people to commiserate their abject condition: to which end they have recourse to various impostures. When the common arts of address fail them, they try what public acts of penance will do. Some of them drag heavy chains 30 feet long after them; some sit in the highway knocking their heads against flint stones; others set particular drugs on fire upon their heads; all these are several ways of drawing the attention and exciting the compassion of the people, and they seldom fail of success. F. Navarette tells us, that the bonzes are obliged to chastity; and that, on the 2d of April, 1667, a petty king of Canton had condemned 11 of them to be burnt alive for incontinence. He adds, that it was reported of an empress of the last reigning

family, who had a particular kindness for the bonzes, that she granted them a dispensation for the use of women during three days. The bonzes of China, according to the same author, are computed at 50,000.

(3.) **BONZES OF JAPAN** are, for the generality, gentlemen of the highest extraction; for when a gentleman of quality finds his family grow too numerous, nay, when he has only two sons, he generally makes the youngest a bonze, to prevent all domestic broils and confusions. These priests are dressed in various colours; their apartments are very commodious, and situated in the healthiest parts of the country.

(1.) * **BOOBY.** *n. f.* [a word of no certain etymology; *Hen/haw* thinks it a corruption of *bull-beef* ridiculously; *Skinner* imagines it to be derived from *bobo*, foolish, Span. *Junius* finds *bowbard* to be an old Scottish word for a coward, a contemptible fellow; from which he naturally deduces *booby*; but the original of *bowbard* is not known.] A dull, heavy, stupid fellow; a lubber.—

But one exception to this fact we find,
That *booby* Phaon only was unkind,
An ill-bred boatman, rough as waves and wind.

Young master next must rise to fill him wine,
And starve himself to see the *booby* dine. *King*.

(2.) **BOOBY**, in ornithology. See **PELICANUS**.
BOOD, *v. pret. obs.* Did abide. *Chauc*.

BOODGE-BOODGE, a town of Indostan proper, capital of the Rajah of Cutch; 330 m. N. E. by E. of Surat. Lon. 68. 0. E. Lat. 23. 16. N.

(1.) * **BOOK.** *n. f.* [*boc*, Sax. suppose from *boc*, a beech; because they wrote on *beechen* boards, as *liber* in Latin, from the rind of a tree.] 1. A volume in which we read or write.—

See a *book* of prayer in his hand;
True ornaments to know a holy man. *Shakespeare*
Receive the sentence of the law for sins,
Such as by God's *book* are adjudg'd to death.

—In the coffin that had the *books*, they were found as fresh as if they had been but newly written being written on parchment, and covered over with watch candles of wax. *Bacon*.—*Books* are sort of dumb teachers; they cannot answer sudden questions, or explain present doubts: this is properly the work of a living instructor. *Watts*
2. A particular part of a work.—The first *book* we divide into sections; whereof the first is the chapters past. *Burnet's Theory*. 3. The register in which a trader keeps an account of his debts.—
This life.

Is nobler than attending for a bauble;
Prouder, than rustling in unpaid-for silk;
Such gain the cap of him that makes them fine
—Yet keeps his *book* uncross'd. *Shakespeare*

4. In *books*. In kind remembrance.—I was much in *his books*, that, at his decease, he left me the lamp by which he used to write his lucubrations. *Addison*. 5. *Without book*. By memory by repetition; without reading.—Sermons read they abhor in the church; but sermons written *book*, sermons which spend their life in their birth and may have publick audience but once. *Hooke*

(2.) **BOOK** is the general name of almost every literary composition; but, in a more limited sense

applied only to such compositions as are large enough to make a volume; small tracts being stiled *Pamphlets*.

(5.) **BOOKS, ANCIENT.** The books of Moses are undoubtedly the most ancient extant: But Moses himself cites the *Book of the Wars of the Lord*, (*Num. xxi. 14.*) which must have been written before his time, unless, as some commentators judiciously suppose, this book had been previously wrote by himself. Of profane books, the oldest extant are Homer's poems, which were so even in the time of Sextus Empiricus; though we find mention in Greek writers of 70 others prior to Homer; as Hermes, Orpheus, Daphne, Horus, Ilius, Musæus, Palamedes, Zoroaster, &c. but of the greater part of these there is not the least fragment remaining; and of others, the pieces which go under their names are generally held, by the learned, to be supposititious.

(6.) **BOOKS, ANCIENT MATERIALS OF.** Several sorts of materials were used formerly in making books: Plates of lead and copper, the barks of trees, bricks, stone, and wood, were the first materials employed to engrave such things upon, as men wished to transmit to posterity. Josephus speaks of two columns, the one of stone, the other of brick, on which the children of Seth wrote their inventions and astronomical discoveries: Porphyry mentions some pillars, preserved in Crete, on which the ceremonies practised by the Corybætes in their sacrifices were recorded. Hesiod's works were originally written upon tables of lead, and deposited in the temple of the Muses, in Boætia: The ten commandments, delivered to Moses, were written upon stone; and Solon's laws upon wooden planks. Tables of wood, box, and ivory, were common among the ancients: When of wood, they were frequently covered with wax, that people might write upon them with more ease, or blot out what they had written. The leaves of the palm-tree were afterwards used instead of wooden planks, and the finest and thinnest part of the bark of trees, particularly of the tilia, papyrus, the lime, the ash, the mapple, and the elm. Hence the word *liber*, which signifies the inner bark of trees: and as these barks were rolled up, in order to be removed with greater ease, these rolls were called *volumina*, volumes; and were afterwards given to rolls of paper and parchment. Linen, silk, and horn, have also been used for writing, and lastly paper itself. Barks appear still in some measure retained for books in certain northern countries, as among the Calmuc Tartars where a library was discovered by the Russians. The books were exceedingly long, but of no breadth: the leaves very thick, and made of barks of trees, smeared over with double strength; the ink, or writing, being white on a black ground.

(7.) **BOOKS, APOCRYPHAL.** See **APOCRYPHA**, § 2. and **BIBLE**, § VII.

(8.) **BOOKS, BURNING OF,** was a punishment much used among the Romans, by legal sentence. Sometimes the care of the execution was committed to *triumviri* appointed on purpose; sometimes to the prætors, and sometimes to the ædiles. Labienus is said to have been the first who underwent the severity of it. See **LABIENUS**. Various

other ancient testimonies concerning the burning of books are given in *Reimm. Idea Syst. Antiq. Liter. p. 389.*

(9.) **BOOKS, EVERLASTING.** We find in Signior Castagnatta's account of **ASBESTOS**, a scheme for making books, which from the imperishable nature of their materials, he is for calling the *books of eternity*. The leaves he proposes to be of the asbestos paper; the covers of a thicker sort of work of the same matter, and the whole sewed together with thread spun from the same substance. The things to be commemorated in them were to be written in letters of gold; so that the whole matter being incombustible and everlastingly permanent against the force of all the elements, and subject to no changes from fire, water, or air, must remain for ever, and always preserve the writings committed to them. He carried his project so far as to make paper from the asbestos, quite soft and tractable, and capable of being thickened or thinned at pleasure, yet in either state equally resisting the fire.

(10.) **BOOKS, FORMS OF.** The first books were in the form of blocks and tables; (§ 4.) but as flexible matter came to be wrote on, it was found more convenient to make them in the form of rolls: These were composed of several sheets fastened to each other, and rolled upon a stick, or *umbilicus*; the whole making a kind of column, or cylinder, which was to be managed by the umbilicus as a handle, it being reputed a crime to take hold of the roll itself: The outside of the volume was called *frons*; the ends of the umbilicus, *cornua*, which were usually carved, and adorned with silver, ivory, or even gold and precious stones: The title, *επιγραφή*, was stuck on the outside; the whole volume, when extended, might make a yard and a half wide, and 50 long. This form was long in use among the ancient Jews, Greeks, Indians, Persians, and Romans. The form which now prevails is the square, composed of separate leaves; which was also known, though little used, by the ancients; having been invented by Attalus king of Pergamus, who also invented parchment. This form has now prevailed for so many ages, that few MSS. in the roll form are extant. Montfaucon only met with two among all the ancient Greek MSS. he had seen.

(11.) **BOOKS, INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF.** The order and arrangement of letters into lines and pages, with points, margins, and other appurtenants, have undergone many variations. At first the letters were only divided into lines; then into separate words; which by degrees were noted with accents, and distributed, by points and stops, into periods, paragraphs, chapters, &c. In some countries, as among the orientals, the lines began from the right and ran leftward; in others, as the northern and western nations, from left to right; others, as the Greeks, followed both directions, alternately going in the one, and returning in the other, called **BOUSTROPHEDON**: In most countries, the lines run from one side to the other; in some, particularly the Chinese, from top to bottom.

(12.) **BOOKS, MULTITUDE OF,** has been long complained of: the complaint is as old as Solomon, who lived 3000 years ago: they are grown

too numerous not only to procure and read, but to see, to learn the names of, or even to number. As knowledge, however, is naturally advantageous, and as every man ought to be in the way of information, even a superfluity of books is not without its use, since hereby they are brought to obtrude themselves on us, and engage us when we have least design. This advantage, an ancient father observes, we owe to the multiplicity of books on the same subject, that one falls in the way of one man, and another best suits the level or the apprehension of another. "Every thing that is written (says he) does not come into the hands of all persons: perhaps some may meet with my books, who may hear nothing of others, which have treated better of the same subject. It is of service, therefore, that the same questions be handled by several persons, and after different methods, though all on the same principles, that the explications of difficulties and arguments for the truth, may come to the knowledge of every one by one way or other." The multitude of books, before the invention of printing was the only security against the total loss of them: it is this that has preserved them against the injuries of time, the rage of tyrants, the zeal of persecutors, and the ravages of barbarians; and handed them down, through long intervals of darkness and ignorance, safe to our days. *Solaque non norunt hæc monumenta mori*: Books are the only immortal monuments.

(II.) BOOKS, SCARCITY OF. Of the scarcity and value of books during the 7th and many subsequent centuries, the following curious account is given by Mr Warton in his history of English Poetry, vol. i. "Towards the close of the 7th century, (says he,) even in the papal library at Rome, the number of books was so inconsiderable, that pope St Martin requested Sanctamand bishop of Maëstricht, if possible, to supply this defect from the remotest parts of Germany. In 855, Lupus, abbot of Ferrières in France, sent two of his monks to Pope Benedict III. to beg a copy of *Cicero de Oratore*, and Quintilian's Institutes, and some other books: 'for (says the abbot,) although we have part of these books, yet there is no whole or complete copy of them in all France.' Albert, abbot of Gemblours, who with incredible labour and immense expence had collected 100 volumes on theological, and 50 on profane, subjects, imagined he had formed a splendid library. About A. D. 790, Charlemagne granted an unlimited right of hunting to the abbot and monks of Sithni, for making covers for their books of the skins of the deer they killed. These religious were probably more fond of hunting than reading; and, under these circumstances, did not manufacture many volumes. At the beginning of the 10th century books were so scarce in Spain, that one copy of the bible, St Jerom's epistles, and some volumes of ecclesiastical offices and martyrologies, often served several different monasteries. In an inventory of the goods of John de Pontiffara, bishop of Winchester, in his palace of Wulvesey, all the books are only *Septemdecim peciem librorum de diversis scientiis*. This was in 1294. The same prelate, in 1299, borrows of his cathedral convent of St Swithin at Winchester, *Bibliam bene glossatam*; i. e. the Bible with marginal An-

notations, in 2 large folio volumes; but gives a bond for due return of the loan, drawn up with great solemnity. This Bible had been bequeathed to the convent by Pontiffara's predecessor, bishop Nicholas de Ely: and in consideration of so important a bequest, *pro bona Biblia dicti episcopi benedicta*, and 100 marks in money, the monks founded a daily mass for the soul of the donor. When a single book was bequeathed to a friend, it was seldom without many restrictions. If any person gave a book to a religious house, he believed that so valuable a donation merited eternal salvation; and he offered it on the altar with great ceremony. The most formidable anathemas were peremptorily denounced, against those who should dare to alienate a book presented to the cloister or library of a religious house. The prior and convent of Rochester declare, that they will every year pronounce the irrevocable sentence of *damnation* on him who shall purloin or conceal a Latin translation of Aristotle's Physics, or even obliterate the title. Sometimes a book was given to a monastery on condition that the donor should have the use of it during his life; and sometimes to a private person, on the terms that he who received it should pray for the soul of his benefactor. When a book was bought, the affair was of so much importance, that it was customary to assemble persons of consequence and character, and to make a formal record that they were present. Among the royal MSS. in the book of the Sentences of Peter Lombard, an archdeacon of Lincoln has left this entry. 'This book of the Sentences belongs to master Robert archdeacon of Lincoln, which he bought of Geoffrey the chaplain, brother of Henry vicar of Northelkington, in the presence of master Robert de Lee master John of Lirling, Richard of Luda clerk, Richard the almoner, the said Henry the vicar and his clerk, and others: and the said archdeacon gave the said book to God and Saint Oswald and to Peter abbot of Barton, and the convent of Barden.' The disputed property of a book often occasioned the most violent altercations. Many claims appear to have been made to a MS. of Matthew Paris, belonging to the last mentioned library; in which John Russell, bishop of Lincoln conditionally defends or explains his right of possession; and concludes thus; A. D. 1488, "Whoever shall obliterate or destroy this writing, let him be anathema." About 1225, Roger de Insula, dean of York, gave several Latin bibles to the university of Oxford, on the condition, that the students who perused them should deposit a cautionary pledge. The library of that university, before A. D. 1300, consisted only of a few tracts, chained or kept in chests in the choir of St Mary's church. In 1327, the scholars and citizens of Oxford pillaged the opulent Benedictine abbey of the neighbouring town of Abingdon. Among the books they found there, were 10 psalters, as many grayles, 40 missals, which undoubtedly belonged to the choir of the church and 22 codices, on common subjects. And although the invention of paper, at the close of the 11th century, contributed to multiply MSS. and consequently to facilitate knowledge, yet, even so late as the reign of Henry VI. the following remarkable

markable instance occurred of the inconveniences and impediments to study, which must have been produced by a scarcity of books. It is in the statutes of St Mary's college at Oxford, founded as a lemnary to Osney abbey in 1446: 'Let no scholar occupy a book in the library above one hour, or two hours at most; so that others shall not be hindered from the use of the same.' The famous library established in the university of Oxford by that munificent patron of literature, Humphrey duke of Gloucester, contained only 600 vols. About the commencement of the 14th century there were only 4 classics in the royal library at Paris. These were one copy of Cicero, Ovid, Lucan, and Boethius. The rest were chiefly books of devotion, which included but few of the fathers: many treatises of astrology, geomancy, chiromancy, and medicine, originally written in Arabic, and translated into Latin or French: pantheons, chronicles, and romances. This collection was principally made by Charles V. who began his reign in 1365. This monarch was passionately fond of reading; and it was the custom to send him presents of books from every part of the kingdom of France. These he ordered to be elegantly transcribed and richly illuminated; and he placed them in a tower of the Louvre, from thence called *La Tour de la Libraire*. The whole consisted of 900 volumes. They were deposited in 3 chambers, wainscotted with Irish oak, and ciced with cypress curiously carved. The windows were of painted glass, fenced with iron bars and copper wire. The English became master of Paris in the year 1425; on which event the Duke of Bedford, regent of France, sent the whole library, then consisting of only 853 volumes, and valued at 2223 livres, into England; where perhaps they became the ground-work of Duke Humphrey's library. Even so late as the year 1471, when Louis XI. of France borrowed the works of the Arabian physician, Rhasis, from the faculty of medicine at Paris, he not only deposited by way of pledge a quantity of valuable plate, but was obliged to procure a nobleman to join with him as a surety in a deed, by which he bound himself to return it, under a considerable forfeiture. The excessive prices of books in the middle ages afford numerous and curious proofs. In 1174, Walter, prior of St Swithin's at Winchester, a writer in Latin of the lives of the bishops who were his patrons, purchased of the monks of Dorchester in Oxfordshire, Bede's Homilies and St Austin's Psalter, for 12 measures of barley, and a gown on which was embroidered in silver the history of St Birinus converting a Saxon king. Among the royal MSS. in the British museum there is Comestor's Scholastic History in French; which, as it is recorded in a blank page at the beginning, was taken from the king of France at the battle of Poitiers; and being purchased by William Montague Earl of Salisbury for 100 marks, was ordered to be sold by the last will of his countess Elizabeth for 40 livres. About A. D. 1400, a copy of Jean de Meun's *Roman de la Roze* was sold before the palace gate at Paris for 40 crs. or 33l. 6s. 6d."

(11.) BOOKS, SYBILLINE, in Roman antiquity, were books said to have been composed by those pretended prophetesses, the Sybils, and carefully

deposited in the Capitol, to be consulted in all extraordinary emergencies. See SYBILS.

* *To BOOK. v. a.* [from the noun.] To register in a book.—I beseech your grace, let it be *booked* with the rest of this day's deeds; or I will have it in a particular ballad else, with mine own picture on the top of it. *Shakespeare*.—He made wilful murder high treason; he caused the marchers to *book* their men, for whom they should make answer. *Davies on Ireland*.—

* *BOOKBINDER. n. s.* [from *book* and *bind*.] A man whose profession it is to cover books.

BOOK-BINDING, the art of gathering together and sewing the sheets of a book, and covering it with a back, &c. It is performed thus: The leaves are first folded with a folding-stick, and laid over each other in the order of the signature; then beaten on a stone with an hammer, to make them smooth and open well; and afterwards pressed. They are sewed upon bands, which are pieces of cord or packthread; six bands to a folio book; five to a 4to, 8vo, &c. which is done by drawing a thread through the middle of each sheet, and giving it a turn round each band, beginning with the first and proceeding to the last. After this the books are glued, and the bands opened and scraped, for the better fixing the pasteboards; the back is turned with a hammer, and the book fixed in a press between two boards, in order to make a groove for fixing the pasteboards; these being applied to the sides of the book, holes are made for fastening them to it, when it is pressed a third time. Then the book is at last put to the cutting press, betwixt two boards; the one lying even with the press, for the knife to run upon; the other above it, for the knife to run against: after which the pasteboards are squared. The next operation is the sprinkling the leaves of the book; which is done by dipping a brush into vermilion or sap-green, holding the brush in one hand, and spreading the hair with the other; by which motion the edges of the leaves are sprinkled in a regular manner, without any spots being bigger than the others. There remain the covers, which are either of calf-skin or of sheep skin: these being moistened in water, are cut out to the size of the book; then smeared over with paste made of wheat-flour; and afterwards stretched over the pasteboard on the outside, and doubled over the edges within-side; after having first taken off the four angles, and indented and platted the cover at the head-band; which done, the book is covered, and bound firmly between two boards, and then set to dry. Afterwards it is washed over with a little paste and water, and then sprinkled with a fine brush, unless it should be marbled; when the spots are to be made larger by mixing the ink with vitriol. After this the book is glazed twice with the white of an egg beaten, and at last polished with a polishing iron passed hot over the glazed cover.

* *BOOKFUL. adj.* [from *book* and *full*.] Full of notions gleaned from books; crowded with undigested knowledge.—

The *bookful* blockhead, ignorantly read,
With loads of learned lumber in his head,
With his own tongue still edifies his ears,
And always list'ning to himself appears.

* **BOOKISH.** *adj.* [from *book*.] Given to books; acquainted only with books. It is generally used contemptuously.—

I'll make him yield the crown,
Whose *bookish* rule hath pull'd fair England
down. *Shakespeare.*
—I'm not *bookish*, yet I can read waiting-gentle-
woman in the 'scape. *Shakespeare's Winter's Tale.*

—Xantippe follows her namesake; being married to a *bookish* man, who has no knowledge of the world. *Spectator.*

* **BOOKISHNESS.** *n. f.* [from *bookish*.] Much application to books; over-studiousness.

BOOK-KEEPER, *n. f.* one who keeps the accounts of another. *A/b.*

B O O K - K E E P I N G.

INTRODUCTION.

DEFINITION, and GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) * **BOOK-KEEPING.** *n. f.* [from *book* and *keep*.] The art of keeping accounts, or recording pecuniary transactions, in such a manner, that at any time a man may thereby know the true state of the whole, or any part, of his affairs, with clearness and expedition. *Harris.*

(2.) A merchant's books should contain every particular which relates to his affairs. They should exhibit the state of his business, the connection of the different parts, the amount and success of the whole. They should be so arranged, as to afford ready information in every point for which they may be consulted.

(3.) The matter they should contain is comprehended under the following heads: I. The debts owing to the owner, and the debts he owes to others. II. The articles of property which belonged to him; the quantity and value sold, or otherwise disposed of; and the quantity and value which still remain in his possession. III. The amount of his stock when the books were opened; the profits he has obtained, and the losses he has suffered, since; and the amount of his stock at present.

(4.) That method of book-keeping which answers these purposes most clearly and concisely, is the best. The **ITALIAN METHOD**, by **DOUBLE ENTRY**, is generally preferred; at least, it is founded upon the most universal principles, and is the most convenient in extensive and complicated business: and the accountant who understands it, will find little difficulty in following, or even in inventing other methods that are better accommodated to any particular purpose.

(5.) But as the method by **SINGLE ENTRY**, has also its advantages, being more convenient for tradesmen, and all others who do not carry on business very extensively, we shall subjoin directions respecting that method; and conclude with an account of the **SUBSIDIARY BOOKS**, most of which are equally necessary in both methods.

PART I.

OF THE ITALIAN METHOD BY DOUBLE ENTRY.

(6.) The Italian method requires three principal books, viz. the Waste Book, Journal and Leger.

SECT. I. Of the WASTE BOOK.

(7.) The waste book, or day book, contains an lister of all occurrences in business in the

same order as they take place. It begins with an inventory of every thing belonging to the owner, a list of the debts due to him, and of the debts he owes to others: It is carried on with a full relation of all the money he receives or pays; of all the goods he buys or sells; and of every other occurrence in his business. Each article should be entered as soon as the transaction takes place, and should be clearly expressed in the plainest language. It should require no supply from the accountant's memory, but should be fully intelligible to any person, however unacquainted with the business: at the same time, it should be written with all convenient brevity; and, therefore, sometimes refers to invoices and other accounts, for particulars. The accountant's first care should be to have nothing defective or ambiguous; his second, to have nothing superfluous.

(8.) The date is written in text on the top of each page. The articles are separated from each other by a line; and the transactions of one day are separated from those of another by a double line, in the middle of which there is a blank space for inserting the day of the month. This book must be kept with the greater care and accuracy, as it contains the materials from which the other books are composed. Besides, it is the book whose authority is trusted to, and which must be exhibited to judges, or arbiters, when an account is disputed. As the journal is filled up from the waste-book, the authority of the latter is esteemed more authentic, unless there be an obvious mistake through hurry; and either of these books is depended on rather than the ledger, which, from its form, is more liable to error, and may be more easily vitiated by a fraudulent design.

(9.) As the waste-book contains the whole substance of the business, it may be applied so as to afford any information that can be wanted: but the labour of consulting it would be very great, and much exposed to the risk of omissions. To prevent this inconvenience, the ledger is used, in which the articles are arranged in a methodical order. We shall consider it next; because the journal, though it comes before it in the order of writing, cannot be well understood till the nature of the ledger be explained.

SECT. II. Of the LEGER.

(10.) In the ledger, articles of the same kind are collected together; and, for that purpose, it is divided into many accounts, under which the different branches of business are arranged. Each account is introduced by a proper title, to explain the nature of the articles it contains; and articles

of opposite kinds, which belong to the same account, are placed on the opposite pages of the same folio: for instance, money received on the one side, and money paid on the other; or goods bought on the one side, and goods sold on the other. The left-hand page is called the *Debtor* side of the account, and the right hand page the *Creditor* side. The difference between the sums of the Dr. and Cr. side is called the *Balance*.

(11.) Accounts in the ledger are of three kinds, which answer to the three purposes of book-keeping mentioned § 3.

(12.) I. PERSONAL Accounts. It is necessary to open an account for every person or company with whom there are any dealings on credit. At opening the books, if they be indebted to the owner, the debt is entered on the Dr.; but, if he be indebted to them, it is entered on the Cr. During the course of the business, goods sold on trust, money paid, and every thing for which they are accountable to him, is entered on the Dr.; but goods bought on trust, money received, and every thing for which he is accountable to them, is entered on the Cr. The balance shows how much they owe him, when the Dr. side is greatest; and how much he owes them, when the Cr. side is greater.

(13.) II. REAL accounts. By this we understand accounts of property of whatever kind, such as ready money, goods, houses, lands, ships, shares in public companies, and the like.

(14.) The account of ready money is intitled *Cash*. On the Dr. side, the money on hand at opening the books is entered, and afterwards every article of money received. On the Cr. side, there is entered every article of money paid out; and the balance shows how much ought to be on hand. The sum of the Dr. side of this account is always greater than that of the Cr. side.

(15.) Accounts of goods are generally ruled with inner columns for entering the quantities. When the books are opened, the goods on hand are entered on the Dr. side of the respective accounts; the quantities being placed in the inner, and the values in the outer column. Goods bought are entered in the same manner, and goods sold are entered on the Cr. side; the quantities and values being placed in the proper columns. Charges laid out on goods are entered on the Dr. side; and, when an incidental advantage arises from them, such as the public bounty, it is entered on the Cr. If the sums of the inner columns on the opposite sides be equal, it shows that the goods are all sold, and then the balance of the inner column shows the gain or loss. If the Cr. side be greater, it is gain; if the Dr. side be greater, it is loss. If the sum of the inner column be greater on the Dr. side, it shows that part of the goods are on hand; and their value must be added to the sum of the Cr. side, in order to determine the gain or loss.

(16.) If there be two or more kinds of the same sort of goods, they may be entered in the same account, allowing as many inner columns as there are kinds, and entering the quantities of each kind in the inner column reserved for it. This method exhibits the gain or loss on the whole

goods; but does not show how much of it arises from each kind. Or, a separate account may be opened for each kind, distinguishing the titles by the qualities, or by some other mark. Thus, one account may be kept for fine linen, another for coarse linen; &c. and thus the gain or loss on each kind, will be seen.

(17.) When there are more kinds than can be conveniently introduced in the same account, they may be divided into several classes, each class being placed in a separate account; and the particular kinds distinguished in inner columns. Thus the account of fine linen may be divided into several columns, for different kinds, distinguished by the number of threads in the breadth, or by any other convenient character.

(18.) Accounts of ships contain on the Dr. the value of the ship when the books are opened, and all expences laid out thereon; on the Cr. all freights received. In like manner, accounts of houses or lands have the value of the subject, and all repairs, or other charges, entered on the Dr. and all rents or other profits received on the Cr. If the subject be sold in whole or in part, the sale is entered on the Cr. And the balance, after valuing the subject (if any) on hand, shows the gain or loss.

(19.) Accounts of property in the public funds, or shares in companies, public or private, contain the value, or money paid in, on the Dr. and the dividends received on the Cr. and are balanced as other real accounts. Some persons open accounts for household furniture, plate, jewels, books, or the like. The entries on these accounts are made in the same manner. In general, real accounts contain the value of the property, and all charges, on the Dr. and the sales and other returns on the Cr. When the account is to be balanced, if any property remains, the value thereof is placed on the Cr.; and then the balance shows the loss or gain, according as the Dr. or Cr. side is greatest.

(20.) III. Accounts of STOCK, PROFIT and Loss, and their subsidiary accounts, which are sometimes called *fictitious accounts*.

(21.) The STOCK account contains on the Dr. the amount of the debts which the owner owes when the books are opened; and on the Cr. the amount of ready money, goods, debts, and property of every kind belonging to him: therefore the balance shows what his nett stock is; or, in case of bankruptcy, how much his debts exceed his effects. There is nothing further entered on this account till the books are balanced: and then, if the business has yielded profit, the nett gain is entered on the Cr.; if it has been unsuccessful, the nett loss is entered on the Dr.: after which the balance shows the nett stock at the time the books are closed.

(22.) The PROFIT and Loss account contains every article of gain on the Cr. and every article of loss on the Dr. The balance shows the nett gain or loss, and is transferred to the proper side of the stock-account, as mentioned above. This account is partly composed of articles that occur while the books are running. For example, legacies received are entered on the Cr. goods destroyed on the Dr. The rest of the articles are those of

of gain and loss, arising from the real accounts, which are collected, when the books are balanced.

(23.) It has been found convenient to open several **SUBSIDIARY ACCOUNTS**, in order to shorten and methodise that of profit and loss. These contain certain articles of gain or loss, which may be reduced under distinct heads. They are in effect so many parts of the profit and loss account, and their balances are entered on the proper side of that account when the books are closed. Thus,

(24.) The *Interest account* contains on the Dr. sums paid or incurred for interest; and on the Cr. sums received, or become due for it.

(25.) *Commission account* contains on the Cr. articles of gain received or owing for trouble in transacting business for others. There are seldom any entries on the Dr.

(26.) *Charges of merchandise* contains on the Dr. all charges paid or incurred on the business, which do not belong to any particular account, as shop-rent, public burdens for trade, clerks wages, postages, and the like. If any of these should afterwards be charged to some other account, the sum so charged is entered on the Cr.

(27.) *Account of proper expenses* contains on the Dr. money or any thing else, withdrawn from the trade for our private use. There are seldom any entries on the Cr. The amount of this account, as well as the former, is not properly loss; but as it has the same effect in diminishing the stock, it is placed in the same manner to the Dr. of profit and loss.

(28.) *Loss by bad debts* contains on the Dr. such debts as we reckon desperate; and on the Cr. any of these which may happen to be unexpectedly recovered.

(29.) *Account of abatements* contains on the Dr. discounts allowed by us on payments received; on the Cr. discounts allowed to us on payment made. It is particularly useful in retail business, where discounts are often given, to show how much they amount to.

(30.) *Insurance account* contains on the Cr. premiums received for making insurances; and, on the Dr. losses sustained on the same; there may be several accounts of this kind. Insurances against sea-hazard and fire are the most common. The balance shews the gain or loss which arises from being concerned in insurance.

(31.) Every simple transaction in business belongs to two accounts, and must be entered on the Dr. of the one and on the Cr. of the other. Hence the distinguishing title of this method, *by double entry*. Thus, when a person becomes indebted to us, the article he owes must be entered on the Dr. of his account; and, if it be for money paid him, it is also entered on the Cr. of cash; if for goods sold, it is entered on the Cr. of the account of goods; if for any thing delivered him by another person at our desire, it is entered on the Cr. of the deliverer's account; if for any wager or bargain, by which we are gainers, it is entered on the Cr. of profit and loss. Thus, in whatever way the debt arises, it is entered on the Cr. of some other account, as well as on the Dr. of the person's account who owes it.

--- In like manner, when we become indebt-

ed to any person, the article we owe must be entered on the Cr. of his account. If it be for money received, it is also entered on the Dr. of cash; if for goods bought, it is entered on the Dr. of the account of goods; if for any thing delivered to another person at our desire, it is entered on the Dr. of the receiver's account; and if it be in consequence of a losing bargain, it is entered on the Dr. of profit and loss.

(33.) When goods are received, the transaction is entered on the Dr. of the account of goods. If they are bought for ready money, it is also entered on the Cr. of cash; if on trust, it is entered on the Cr. of the seller; if they be exchanged for other goods, it is entered on the Cr. of the goods delivered; if they be obtained by some profitable business, without any return, it is entered on the Cr. of profit and loss.

(34.) When goods are delivered, the transaction is entered on the Cr. of the account of goods; and, if they be sold for ready money, it is also entered on the Dr. of cash; if on credit, it is entered on the Dr. of the purchaser; if exchanged for other goods, it is entered on the Dr. of the goods received; and, if they be given gratis, or destroyed, it is entered on the Dr. of profit and loss.

(35.) When any loss occurs, the transaction is entered on the Dr. of profit and loss; and as we must either pay it in money or goods, or remain indebted to some person for it, it must be entered on the Cr. of cash, or of goods delivered, or of the person intitled to receive it. And, when an article of gain occurs, it is entered on the Cr. of profit and loss, and also on the Dr. of cash or goods, if money or goods be received; and on the Dr. of the person accountable for it, if not immediately paid.

(36.) Thus, every article in any account, whether personal or real, or belonging to profit and loss, corresponds to some other article on the opposite of a different account. The same sum is entered on the Dr. of one account and on the Cr. of the other; and it follows from this, that, *If all the accounts in the ledger be added, the amount of the sums of the Dr. will be equal to those of the Cr.*

SECT. III. Of the JOURNAL.

(37.) The journal is a fair record of all the transactions compiled from the waste-book, in the same order as they stand there; but expressed in a technical style, that it may be transferred to the ledger with more ease.

(38.) When we are to enter any article in the journal, we must consider which account in the ledger it will require to be placed to, both on the Dr. and Cr. and write *the former account Dr. the latter account*; then we annex an explanation of the article, and place the sum in the money column.

(39.) **EXAMPLE.—Waste-book.** Sold for ready money, 30 yards linen, at 38 L. 4 10 —
Journal.) *Cash Dr. to Linen.* Sold 30 yards, at 38 L. 4 10 —

Here we consider, that the article must be entered on the Dr. of cash, because money is received and on the Cr. of linen, because linen is delivered. Therefore we write *Cash Dr. to Linen*, to which we annex the nature of the transaction. The article

[illegible][illegible][illegible]

300 gallons at 9s 9d in barter for 3 s
and, at 1s 4s
(46.) Rule IV *Goods and other re-
Dr. for all charges laid on and trans-
land ones, they are Dr. in Cash; if any
of the charges are Dr. in the thing,
the charges be taken in specie, they are
for to account it as due. Thus,
Wattle-book. (1) Paid for repairs to ships
Commerce
Journal.) Ship Commerce Dr. to Cash,
paid for repairs
Wattle-book. (1) Delivered wood from
my timber-yard for repairing the
George Inn
Journal.) George Inn Dr. to Wood, de-
livered for repairing the inn
Wattle-book. (2) Due to Will Wright
for repairs to the George Inn
Journal.) George Inn Dr. to Will-
Wright, due him for repairs
(47.) Rule V *When rents of houses,
freight of goods, houses, or goods, or
falls from real accounts are received, or
the account from such the profits arise,
they are Dr. in the thing, if they are
if they remain unpaid, the person owing
Dr. Thus,
Wattle-book. (1) Received freight of the
ship Commerce for a voyage to
London
Journal.) Cash Dr. to Ship Commerce
received freight to London
Wattle-book. (1) Received 10s barrel
Salmon, being the rent of Tay fish-
ery, at 7s
Journal.) Salmon Dr. to Tay fishery
received the rent of barrels
at 7s
Wattle-book. (1) John Jolly owes me
year's rent of the George Inn
Journal.) John Jolly Dr. to George Inn
for a year's rent due by him
(48.) Rule VI *When an article
Profit and Loss, or some subsidiary
1700s. Left a bar in ready money,
it is if and in any thing else, it is Dr.
liability. If it remain unpaid, it is
for to account it as owing. Thus,
Wattle-book. (1) Given my daughter
Prideaux as her marriage
Journal.) Profit and Loss Dr. to Cash
for my daughter at her marriage
Wattle-book. (1) Taken for family use
from my granary 3 bulls meal, at
1s 4d
Journal.) Profit and Loss (or Property
expenses, Dr. to Meal, taken for
family use, 3 bulls, at 1s 4d
Wattle-book. (1) Due Wattle-book
for a year's interest on £1,000
at 4 per cent.
Journal.) Profit and Loss (or Interest
account.) Dr. to William Black-
due him a year's interest on £1,000
at 4 per cent.
(49.) Rule VII. *When an article****

that is not immediately connected with any real account, Cash, the article received, or the person accountable for it, is Dr. to Profit and Loss, or to some subsidiary account. Thus,

Waste-book.) Received in a gift from my father 100 — —

Journal.) Cash Dr. to Profit and Loss, received from my father 100 — —

Waste-book.) Received in like manner at opening shop, 100 yards cloth at 12s 60 — —

Journal.) Cloth Dr. to Profit and Loss received from my father at opening shop 100 yards, at 12s 60 — —

Waste-book.) William Nielson owes me a year's interest of L. 1000 50 — —

Journal.) William Nielson Dr. to Profit and Loss [or Interest account] due by him for a year's interest of L. 1000 50 — —

(50.) Rule VIII. When one person pays money, or delivers any thing else to another on our account, the person who receives it is Dr. to the person who pays it. Thus,

Waste-book.) John Fairney has paid the bank of Scotland on my account L. 100 — —

Journal.) Bank of Scotland Dr. to John Fairney, paid them by him 100 — —

Waste-book.) Arthur M'Ewen has delivered John Baxter 100 quarters wheat, for which I am to account to him, at 30s 150 — —

Journal.) John Baxter Dr. to Arthur M'Ewen for 100 quarters wheat delivered him on my account, at 30s 150 — —

Payments of this kind are often transacted by bills of exchange.

(51.) These examples will make the learner acquainted with the form of the journal, and the rules extend to the greatest part of the simple transactions that occur in domestic trade. The technical sense of the words Dr. and Cr. has a kind of analogy to their meaning in common language, but is not precisely the same. Thus, in Ex. 1. Rule VIII. the journal entry is, Bank of Scotland Dr. to John Fairney; by which we are not to understand that the bank is indebted to John Fairney; for a debt between them has no connection with our business; and therefore ought not to be entered in our books: the meaning of the entry is, that the bank becomes indebted to us by the transactions narrated; and that we become indebted to John Fairney by the same.

(52.) An article which contains more Drs. or more Crs. than one, is called a COMPLEX POST. The form of these will appear from the following examples.

Ex. 1.] Sold William Webster 25 pieces cloth, at L. 15 per piece L. 375 — —
130 stones wool, at 5s 6d per stone 35 15 — —

(53.) If the two articles sold to William Webster were entered separately in the waste-book and transferred to the journal by Rule I. they stand thus:

William Webster Dr. to Cloth, sold him 25 pieces at L. 15 L 375 — —

William Webster Dr. to Wool, sold him 130 stones, at 5s 6d 35 15 — —

And if these were posted to the ledger, there would be two articles placed to the Dr. of William Webster, one to the Cr. of Cloth, and one to the Cr. of Wool. But the sales may be entered in the form of one complex journal post, as follows:

William Webster Dr. to Sundries.
To Cloth, for 25 pieces, at L. 15 L 375 — —
To Wool, for 130 stones, at 5s 6d 35 15 — —

And then there is only one article on the Dr. of William Webster in the ledger.

(54.) Ex. 2.] Sold W. Webster 10 pieces cloth at L. 15 L. 150 — —
12 ditto to J. Mercer, at do 180 — —
— — — — — L 330 — —

22 This example also falls under Rule I. But whereas there was one Dr. and two Crs. in the former example, there are two Drs. and one Cr. in this: William Webster and John Mercer, the purchasers, are Drs. for their respective quantities; and cloth, which is the only thing delivered, is Cr. for the whole quantity. The journal post is,

Sundries Drs. to Cloth,
W. Webster, for 10 pieces, at 15l. L 150 — —
J. Mercer, for 12 ditto at 15l. 180 — —
— — — — — L 330 — —

22 (55.) Ex. 3.] Bt. from John Duncan, 50 qrs. wheat at 35s L 87 10 — —
12 ditto from R. Brown at 36s 21 12 — —
— — — — — L 109 2 — —

62 This example falls under Rule II. There is only one Dr. wheat being the only thing received; and two Crs. because it is received from different persons.

Wheat Dr. to Sundries.
To J. Duncan, for 50 qrs. at 35s L 87 10 — —
To R. Brown, for 12 qrs. at 36s 21 12 — —
— — — — — L 109 2 — —

62 (56.) Ex. 4.] Sold Peter Coke 150 qrs. beans at 13s 4d L 100 — —
75 do. to Octavius Mitchel, at 13s 4d 50 — —
18 do. for ready money, 12s 2d 11 17 — —

243 L 161 17 — —
Here beans are delivered, some to different purchasers on trust, and some for ready money. The purchasers are Drs. for the quantities sold to each by Rule I.; Cash is Cr. for the quantity sold for ready money, by Rule III; and beans are Cr. for the whole.

Sundries

Sundries Dr. to beans.
P. Cate for 150 qrs. at 3s 4d L 100 — —
O. Mitchel, for 75 13s 2d 50 — —
Cash, for 18 13s 2d 11 17 — —
 ————— L 161 17 — —
 (57.) *Ex. 5.]* John Clark being bankrupt, I have accepted a composition on the debt due by him to me of L 150, and discharged the same.
 The composition received, at 15s per L. is L 112 10 — —
 And the balance lost 37 10 — —
 ————— L 150 — —

Here the whole debt of L 150, due by John Clark is cancelled; and he must therefore be stated as Cr. for that sum. Cash is Dr. for the sum received, by Rule II; and Profit and Loss, or Loss by bad debts, for the rest, by Rule VI.
Sundries Dr. to John Clark.
Cash, for comp, on L 150, at 15s per L. L 112 10 — —
Profit and Loss, for balance lost 37 10 — —
 ————— L 150 — —

(58.) The learner may be assisted in understanding these and other complex posts, by resolving them into simple ones. Most of them might have been stated in that manner; and the complex form is only preferred for abridging the ledger. In some articles the different clauses are so connected, that they cannot be separated with propriety.
 (59.) In some articles, there are both more Drs. and more Crs. than one. These may be entered in one journal post, *Sundries Drs. to Sundries*, specifying first the Drs. and then the Crs. But, as this method is somewhat confused, we would recommend it as a better way to divide the transaction into two journal posts; so that the first may contain only one Dr. and the second only one Cr.

(60.) *Ex. Bartered with*
A. Farquharson 100 pieces Osnaburgs, at 12s. L. 60 — —
 100lb. thread, at 3s 6d 17 10 — —
 ————— L. 77 10 — —
 For 10hds. lintseed, at 50s L. 25 — —
 500yds. linen, at 1s 6d 37 10 — —
 And received the balance in money 15 — —
 ————— L. 77 10 — —

Sundries Dr. to A. Farquharson.
Cash, for 10 hds. at 50s L. 25 — —
Cash, for 500 yds at 1s 6d 37 10 — —
 Received in barter
Cash, received balance 15 — —
 ————— L. 77 10 — —

A. Farquharson Dr. to Sundries.
To Osnaburgs, for 100 pieces, at 12s. L. 60 — —
To Thread, for 100 lb. at 3s 6d 17 10 — —
 Delivered in barter ————— L. 77 10 — —

(61.) It is neither practicable nor necessary to enumerate all kinds of complex posts that may occur in business. We shall here only mention a few articles which occur at opening the books.

The first journal post contains the substance of the inventory. The entry is *Sundries Drs. to Stock*: the particular Drs. are Cash, the different kinds of goods and other property belonging to us, and the persons indebted to us. The second journal post contains the debts due by us. The entry is, *Stock, Dr. to Sundries*; the particular Crs. are the persons to whom we are indebted. The forms of these entries is more fully exhibited at the beginning of the following set.

(62.) The journal should be written by one person, in a fair hand and at leisure hours. The articles are separated, and the titles and dates marked in the same manner as in the waste-book, § 7—9. The entries are written in half text, for ornament and distinction. In the inventory, the designation (or the business, station, and place of residence) of every person is mentioned; and the same is done the first time that any name occurs in journal entry. At other times, it is sufficient to enter the name without the designation, unless we have dealings with two persons of the same name; in which case, it is always necessary to annex the designation, in order to distinguish them. The narration should be complete, without referring to the waste-book; and so clear, that every person, acquainted with the style of the journal, may understand it with ease. When the post is written, we mark a dash ✓ against the article, on the margin of the waste-book, to show how far the writing of the journal is advanced.

SECT. IV. Of POSTING the LEDGER.

(63.) The first thing to be done in the ledger, is to allot a proper space for each account. The accounts may be either opened in the same order that they occur in the journal; or accounts of the same kind may be placed together; the personal on one part of the ledger, and the real accounts in another. The accounts of Stock, and Profit and Loss, are generally placed at the beginning.
 (64.) The number of the folio is marked in text at each corner of the top-line; and the titles of the accounts are written in text through both folios, if necessary. The designations of the personal accounts may be written in half text, or Italian hand. Some write the titles in Saxon, or German Text, for ornament. The word *Dr.* is prefixed to the title on the left-hand page; and *Contra Cr.* annexed to it on the right-hand page.
 (65.) An Index must be provided, for pointing out the folios where the accounts are opened. The titles of the accounts are entered alphabetically in the index, and the number of the folio annexed. Personal accounts are entered by the first letter of the surname; companies, by the first letter of the surname of the first partner; and all other accounts, by the first letter of the first word. The most convenient kind of index is a long narrow book, of 24 leaves. A is marked on the top of the first leaf, and the paper pared away below it; B on the 2d leaf, under A; and the other letters on the following leaves, in the same manner; by means of which we can turn at once to any letter required.

(66.) In posting the ledger, First, look for the Dr. of the journal post in the index, under the proper letter, which directs to the folio of the ledger where the account is, if it be already opened: if not, you must allot a space for it, write the title, and enter it in the index. Then enter the article on the left-hand page of the account under the title of the former article, by writing the date on the margin, and the name of the creditor on the line, with the word *To* prefixed, and a short narration of the transaction annexed, and inserting the sum in the money column, and the quantity, if it be an account of goods, in the inner column. Then turn to the account of the Cr. of the journal-post, and enter the article in the right hand page, prefixing the word *By* to the name of the Dr.

(67.) This being done, turn to the journal, and mark on the margin the number of the folios to which the article is posted. The figures which point out the reference to the Dr. and Cr. folios should be separated by a line: for example, If the Dr. entry be on the first folio, and the Cr. entry on the eighth, the reference is marked $\frac{1}{8}$. These figures show how far the posting is advanced, and are useful in comparing the books. The figures for dates or references should be written in a lighter hand, than the figures in the columns for money or quantity.

(68.) There is often a reference column ruled in the ledger, for pointing out the other entry, corresponding to any article. In this column, the folio of the Cr. entry is marked against the Dr. article, and the folio of the Dr. entry against the Cr. article. Sometimes the accounts are numbered according to their order in the ledger; and the references, both in the journal and ledger, point out the number of the account instead of the folio.

(69.) In complex posts, turn to the several Drs. or Crs. in their order, and enter the articles according to the foregoing directions; placing the sums belonging to each in the money column, against the respective entries.

(70.) An article in the ledger is generally comprehended in one line. The narration should be as full as can be contained in that bounds. If it cannot be narrated completely, the journal is referred to for further particulars, by writing *per Journal*, (or *p. J.*) either after an incomplete narration, or immediately after Dr. or Cr. when there is no room for a proper narration. In complex posts, there can seldom be any narration annexed to the single Dr. or the single Cr. The entry is generally *To Sundries per J.* or, *By Sundries per J.* If the sense of the whole article can be narrated, it should be done; but it is improper to narrate the first or any other part of the article, and omit the others.

(71.) When the space allotted for an account in the ledger is filled up, the account must be transported to another folio. For this purpose add the columns on both sides, and write against the sum, *Transferred to folio* , inserting the number of the folio where the new account is opened, in the reference-column, or on the line, if no reference-column be used. Then, after titling the new account, and entering the number of the folio

in the index, write on the Dr. *To amount, brought from folio* , inserting the number of the folio where the old account was; and on the Cr. *By amount, brought from folio* ; and place the sums, and quantities, if any, in the proper columns. When either side of an account is full, both sides should be transported, and diagonal lines drawn, to fill up the vacant space of the side which requires it.

(72.) The books should be written up as frequently as can be done conveniently; so that the journal may keep pace nearly with the waste-book, and the ledger with the journal. Each book should be carefully revised, and compared with the book from which it is posted. In comparing the ledger, observe the following directions.

(73.) Begin with the first journal post, and turn to the folio of the ledger where the Dr. is entered, which you are directed to by the marginal reference, and compare the date, entry, and sum. If they correspond, it is well; if not, the ledger must be altered till it correspond with the journal. Then place a dot before the reference figure in the journal, and a mark, thus Δ , before the sum in the ledger. Proceed in the same manner to compare the Cr. of the journal post, and all the following posts in their order. The dots in the journal show how far the comparison is advanced, and the marks in the ledger show what articles are compared. The sums of accounts transported should be left blank till the books be compared; as an error in any article will occasion an alteration in the sum.

(74.) In correcting errors in the ledger, observe the following rules: I. If an article be omitted, do not attempt to interline it at the place where it should have been; but insert it under the last article when you discover the omission, and mark a cross \times against it on the margin, and another at the place where it should have been. II. If you discover a mistake immediately when committed, correct it without cancelling any thing, as in this example: *To Cash, say, To James Spence received to account.* III. If you have written a line entirely wrong, or in a wrong place, write the word *Error* at the end, prefix a cross, and omit or cancel the sum. IV. Cancel errors, by drawing a line lightly through them, so that the old writing may still be legible; by which it will be evident that the book has not been vitiated for a fraudulent purpose. The same method should be followed in correcting errors in the journal.

(75.) When the comparison of the books is finished, glance over the ledger, to observe if the mark of comparison be affixed to every article.

(76.) Because the whole sum of the Dr. side of the ledger should be equal to the whole sum of the Cr. $\S 36$. it is proper to try if they correspond. For this purpose, you may add the Dr. of every account, except such as are already balanced, placing the sums in an inner column, and extending them at the end of one or more folios, as you find most convenient, to the outer column: and as you go along, add the Cr. in the same manner. If the sum total of both sides be equal, it gives a presumption that the books are right; if they differ, there is certainly some mistake. This is call

of the *Trial Balance*. The labour bestowed upon it is not lost, as the sums may be reserved for affixing to collect the balances.

(79.) If the sums of the trial-balance do not correspond, the books must be examined again. For this purpose, begin with the first article on the Dr. side of the first account, and turn to the account where the corresponding entry is, which you will find by the figure in the reference column. If the articles agree, mark them with a dot. Proceed in like manner with the other articles on the Dr. of the first account; then with articles on the Cr. of the same; and then with the following accounts in their order, till the error or errors be discovered.

(80.) In complex entries, observe if the amount of the sums on one side be equal to the sum on the other. When you come to a dotted article, you may pass it by, because it has been examined already. If the errors be not discovered at the first trial, you must repeat the same operation again, till you bring the books to balance. Marks different from the former ones, or differently placed, may be used, to signify that an article has been examined a 2d or 3d time. As the detection of errors is the most tedious and disagreeable part of book-keeping, the accountant must guard against them with all possible care.

SECT. V. Of BALANCING the BOOKS.

(81.) Before we explain the method of balancing the books, it will be proper to direct the learner how to balance particular accounts. When we settle accounts with any person, and ascertain how much is owing at either hand, it is necessary to balance his account in the ledger, and open a new one, beginning with the sum that was due according to the settlement; and when we clear accounts again, we must go back to that article, and no farther.

(82.) If any article be charged on either side, at the time of settling, they must be immediately entered on the waste-book; from which they will pass in course to the journal and ledger; and a remark must be entered in the waste-book, that the account was settled, and the balance transferred to the proper side of the new account. This remark is transcribed in the journal; and the ledger account is balanced, when it occurs, in the course of posting.

(83.) If the balance be due to you, write on the Cr. *By balance due to him to Dr. new account*, and enter the sum due you; after which, the amount of both sides will be equal. Add the account, placing the sums opposite to each other; and, if the sides be unequal, draw a diagonal line through the vacant space of the shorter side, and close the old account by drawing lines under the sums. Then open the new account immediately under the old one, or in a new folio, if the old one be closed, by writing on the Dr. *To balance of former account due by him*.

(84.) If the balance be due by you to him, the entries are made on the opposite sides, with the necessary alterations. When the new account is opened in the same folio, it is unnecessary to repeat the title; but the year and month, as well as

the day, must be repeated at the date of the first article. Sometimes when an account is balanced, one or more articles are left out on purpose: For example, goods lately bought on credit may be left out, and the settlement may only relate to articles of longer standing. When this is the case, if the articles omitted be on the Dr. of the ledger, write on the Cr. thus, *By articles sold him since 1st January replaced*: and when we have balanced the account, and opened a new one, we write on the Dr. *To articles replaced at settling, furnished since 1st January*: or, if the articles were left out for any other reason, we explain the same in the narration. If the omitted articles be on the Cr. the like entries are made on the opposite sides. It should be noticed in the waste-book and journal when this operation is necessary.

(85.) When we post any common article from the journal, we enter the sum on the Dr. of one account, and on the Cr. of another: when we balance an account, we place the balance sum on the Dr. of the old account, and on the Cr. of the new one, or contrarywise: and when we replace an article, as above directed, to the Dr. or Cr. of the old account, we place it after balancing to the Cr. or Dr. of the new one. Thus, in these entries, as well as in common posts, there are like sums entered on the Dr. and Cr. of the ledger, and the general equality of the sides is still preserved.

(86.) Merchants generally balance their books once a-year. The design of this operation is, to collect the various branches of their business, diffused through the books, into a concise abstract; to ascertain their gain or loss since the last balance; and exhibit the present state of their funds. If the business be of such a kind, that most of the branches naturally come to an issue at a certain time of year, that time is the proper one for making the balance. Otherwise the end of the year, or the least busy time, may be chosen.

(87.) Before balancing, it is proper to settle as many personal accounts as possible; to clear all arrears and small charges; to take an exact inventory of the goods on hand, as far as can be done; and affix a moderate value to each article, according to the current prices at the time; such a value as you would be willing at present to buy for. It is more proper to value the goods on hand in conformity to the current prices, than at prime cost: for the design of affixing any value is to point out the gain or loss, and the gain is in reality obtained so soon as the prices rise, or the loss suffered so soon as they fall; therefore it is impossible to make up a just state of the affairs, unless the present prices be attended to.

(88.) These things being done, proceed to make the balance as follows: Prepare two sheets of paper, ruled with money columns, in the form of Dr. and Cr.; write *Profit and Loss* as the title of the first, and *Balance* as the title of the second. Prepare also some paper for computing the balances, and mark down the folios, titles, and sums of each account in the ledger, in a regular order. If a trial-balance was made, the sums may be transcribed from it. Pass by such accounts as are already closed; also the accounts of Stock and Profit and Loss, which are always the last of being

ing balanced. Then subtract the lesser sum from the greater, and enter the difference on either of the sheets, that the nature of the article points out, and on the side of that sheet which corresponds to the greater sum of the account.

(87.) In *personal* accounts, enter the difference, which is the debt owing to you, or by you, on the proper side of the balance-sheet. In the *Cash* account, enter the difference, which is the money in hand, on the Dr side of the balance-sheet. In accounts of *goods* or other *property*, if there be nothing remaining on hand, enter the difference, which is the gain or loss, on the proper side of the profit and loss sheet.—If the whole be still on hand, enter the present value on the Dr. of the balance-sheet; and, if this be different from the prime cost, charges included, enter the difference on the proper side of the profit and loss sheet. If part be sold and part on hand, place the value of the quantity on hand under the sum of the Cr. and add them. The sum is the whole return that will be obtained, if the rest of the goods be sold at the estimated value; and this, being compared with the sum of the Dr. which is the whole expence, shows the gain or loss. Enter the same in the proper side of the profit and loss sheet, and enter the quantity and value on hand on the Dr. of the balance-sheet.

(88.) Observe if the quantities in the inner columns be equal on both sides, when the goods are all sold; or, if the difference, when only part is sold, be equal to the quantity on hand. If they correspond, you have a just account of the goods. If the Dr. be greater, there is something amissing, which you must enter on the Dr. of the balance-sheet, and mark the cause of the deficiency, as in-lake, waste, or the like. If the Cr. be greater, there is an excess, which you must enter on the Cr. of the balance-sheet, together with the occasion of it, as difference of measure, or the like.

(89.) In accounts subsidiary to profit and loss, enter the difference on the proper side of the profit and loss sheet. When there is nothing written on one side of an account, enter the sum of the article or articles on that sheet which the kind of the account points out.

(90.) When you have collected all the balances, sum up both sheets, and add to the profit and loss sheet the sums of the profit and loss account in the ledger: then subtract the lesser sum of each sheet from the greater. This being done, mark the sums of the stock account on your computation paper, and add thereto the balance of the profit and loss sheet, on the side which corresponds with the greater sum of that account: then subtract the lesser sum from the greater. The remainder will be equal to the difference of the sides of the balance sheet, if the books be right, and the balances exactly collected.

(91.) This equality must always hold, from the nature of the articles collected. The Dr. of the balance sheet contains every kind of property belonging to you, and every debt owing to you; and the Cr. contains every debt owing by you: therefore the difference of the sides shows what your nett estate amounts to. The profit and loss sheet, when the articles from the ledger are in-

cluded, contains every thing you have gained on the Cr. and every thing you have lost on the Dr. and the difference of your sides is your nett gain or loss. The stock account contained your effects and debts at the time the books were opened, and therefore, when the gain or loss is added to the proper side, it must show the extent of your nett estate at present. Thus the stock account and the balance sheet both point out how much you are worth at present; the one from your former stock, allowance being made for your gain or losses; the other from a view of your present effects and debts; and they will correspond, because both must be agreeable to the truth, if the books be correct.

(92.) Though the books must balance, if free from error, yet it is sometimes difficult to adjust them exactly, especially when the business is extensive, and the error trifling. If there be still a difference, which we do not think it worth while to make further search for, we may close the books, by making Profit and Loss Dr. or Cr. for the same. This introduces an article on one side of the ledger, which has none corresponding to it on the other, but is balanced by some undiscovered error.

SECT. VI. Of CLOSING the BOOKS.

(93.) The balance being struck, the next work is to close the books. Every article in the ledger should be posted from the journal; therefore the most regular way of finishing both is by inserting the following articles in the journal, and posting them in the common manner to the ledger.

I. *Profit and Loss Dr. to Sundries, for loss, on the following accounts.* The particulars are taken from the Dr. of the Profit and Loss sheet.

II. *Sundries Dr. to Profit and Loss, for Gain on the following accounts.* The particulars are taken from the Cr. of the Profit and Loss sheet.

III. *Balance account Dr. to Sundries, for debt and property belonging to me.*

IV. *Sundries Dr. to balance account, for debt due by me.* The particulars of this and the former are taken from the respective sides of the balance sheet.

V. *Profit and Loss Dr. to Stock for nett gain; Stock Dr. to Profit and Loss, for nett loss.*

VI. *Balance account Dr. to Stock, for nett stock.*

(94.) When the four first of these articles are posted in the ledger, all the personal, real, and subsidiary accounts will balance, and you may add them as you go along. In accounts of goods, if there be any deficiency, you must enter it on the Cr. in the inner column; and, if there be any over-come, you must enter it on the Dr. before you add the account. Then the sums of every account and every column on the opposite sides will be equal.

(95.) The only accounts that remain open are *Profit and Loss, Stock, and Balance.* The first post balances the profit and loss account, and the sixth balances the stock account. It was noticed § 36. that the whole sums of Dr. and Cr. of the ledger are equal; and therefore, if the sides of every account, except one, be balanced, that one will balance of its own accord. The balance account

alone remains open, and, upon trial, you will find that the sides are equal. This affords an additional proof, or, at least, a different view, of what was demonstrated, with respect to the balance of the books, in § 91.

(96.) The lines above and under the sums, at a general balance, may be drawn with red ink; and, at the balancing of particular accounts, with black ink, for distinction. Some insert the particulars of the profit and loss and balance sheets in the respective accounts of the ledger. If this be done, it is unnecessary to enumerate them also in the journal.—Some balance the accounts of goods, whenever the quantity is sold off; and this method lessens the work at the general balance, which is always sufficiently laborious.

(97.) Thus is the state of a person's affairs brought together, in a short compass, under his view; and the articles of the balance sheet supply materials for a new inventory. It is convenient,

however, to alter the order, and arrange the real accounts together, and the personal ones together.

SECT. VII.

SPECIMENS *of the* WASTE-BOOK,
JOURNAL, LEGER, &c.

(98.) It is not necessary to begin new books, or to open the accounts anew, unless the old folios be full. The accounts may be continued in the former folios; but it is best to begin a new ledger, if the old one be not likely to hold all the business of the next year. When one comes to have several sets of books, it is common to distinguish them by the letters of the alphabet. The first waste-book, journal, and ledger, are marked A, the second, B; and so on.

(99.) In the following SPECIMENS, the WASTE-BOOK and JOURNAL are placed on opposite pages, that the learner may the more easily compare them; and the rules are referred to by their numbers.

WASTE-BOOK.

(1) WASTE-BOOK.

JOURNAL.

(2)

Perth, JANUARY 15. 1797.

Perth, JANUARY 15. 1797.

15.			
✓ Sold 30 rms paper to John Bell, at 12s	L 18 —		
12 to John Hunt stationer Edin. at 12s	7 4 —		
5 for ready money, at 11s	2 15 —	27	19
47 Rules I. III.			
19.			
✓ Sold W. Hunt merch. Dunbar 150 bushels salt, at 1s 9d, L 13 2 6			
Received in part	L 10 —		
And he owes the balance	3 2 6	13	2 6
Rules I. III.			
✓ Received from H. Hood in payment of his bill	L 75 —		
And for interest on do	2 10 —	77	10
Rules II. VII.			
✓ Paid the Bank of Perth		100	
Rule I.			
26.			
✓ Bought from W. Wallace merchant Dundee 500 sp. 4 four hank yarn, at 1s 11d L 47 18 4			
Paid him in part	L 15 —		
And the balance due him is	32 18 4	47	18 4
Rules II. III.			
30.			
✓ Received 150 bolls meal, 13s 2d L 98 : 15, in barter for 6 hds Port wine, at L 10	L 96 —		
Paid the balance	2 15 —	98	15
Rule III.			
Perth, 2d FEB. 1797.			
✓ Sold John Bell 48 bush. salt, being the rem. at 1s 8½d	L 4 2 —		
60 sp. 5 hank yarn, at 2s 3½d	6 17 6		
100 stone iron, at 3s 4½d	16 17 6	27	17
Rule I.			
3.			
✓ Received from Hugh Cook in part		30	
Rule II.			
10.			
✓ Ordered 22 reams paper, at 12s	L 13 4 —		
30 bolls meal, at 13s 6d	20 5 —		
	L 33 9 —		
For 334½ sp. 4 hank yarn, at 2s		33	9
Rule III.			
Vol. IV. PART I.			

15.			
Sundries Dr. to Paper.			
✓ John Bell for 30 rms, at 12s	L 18 —		
✓ John Hunt stationer Edin. for	20 12s 7 4 —		
Cash. For	5 11s 2 15 —	27	19
47			
19.			
Sundries Drs. to Salt, for 150 bush. at 1s 9d,	L 13 2 6		
✓ Cash. Received in part	L 10 —		
✓ W. Hunt merch. Dunbar, for balance due by him	3 2 6	13	2 6
Cash Dr. to Sundries.			
✓ To H. Hood. Received payment of his bill	L 75 —		
✓ To Profit and Loss. Rec: interest on do	2 10 —	77	10
Bank of Perth Dr to Cash. Paid them.		100	
26.			
✓ Yarn Dr to Sundries, for 500 sp. 4 hank, at 1s 11d, L 47 18 4			
✓ To Cash. Paid in part	L 15 —		
✓ To W. Wallace merch. Dundee, for balance	32 18 4	47	18 4
30.			
✓ Meal Dr. to Sundries, for 150 bolls, at 13s 2d	L 98 : 15		
✓ To Port wine. For 6 hds delivered in barter, L 10	L 96 —		
✓ To Cash. Paid balance	2 15 —	98	15
Perth, 2d FEB. 1797.			
John Bell Dr. to Sundries.			
✓ To Salt, for 48 bush. being the rem. at 1s 8½d	L 4 2 —		
✓ To Yarn, for 60 sp. 5 hank, at 2s 3½d	6 17 6		
✓ To Iron, for 100 stones, at 3s 4½d	16 17 6	27	17
Cash Dr. to Hugh Cook. Received in part		30	
Yarn Dr. to Sundries. For 334½ sp. 4 hank yarn, at 2s. L 33 : 98			
✓ To Paper. For 22 rms delivered in barter, at 12s	L 13 4 —		
✓ To Meal. For 30 bolls, at 13s 6d	20 5 —	33	9

BOOK-KEEPING.

(4) WASTE-BOOK.

Perth, 17th MARCH, 1797.

✓ Bartered with John Bell 2 bags clover seed, at L.6, L.12, for 2 hds. lintf. at 55s L.5 10 —
Received in money 5 — —
And he owes the balance 1 10 —

Rules III. I.

✓ Paid Cha. Fox in full L.19 — —
And for interest 1 10 —

Rules I. VI.

✓ Sold 140 lb. clover-feed to W. Peat, farmer at Duplin, at 7½d L.4 7 6
70 to H. Cook, at 7½d 2 3 9
120 for ready money, at 7½d 3 12 6
330

Rules I. III.

✓ John Bell has paid the Bank of Perth on my account

Rule VIII.

✓ Bought from D. Richards merchant Alloa, one third share of the ship Adventure, for

Rule II.

✓ Sold Bell and Caw,
150 stone Iron, at 3s 7d L.26 17 6
1 hd. Port wine 15 5 —

Rule I.

Perth, 2d APRIL, 1797.

✓ Sold for ready money
50 yards diaper, at 1s 11d L.4 15 10
30 bolls meal, at 13s 7d 20 7 6
1 hd. lint-feed 3 3 —
160 lb. clover-feed, at 7½d 5 3 4
30 stone iron, at 3s 6½d 5 6 3

Rule III.

✓ Drawn on the Bank of Perth, for

Rule II.

✓ Bought for ready money
30 casks train-oil, at 22s L.33 — —
30 bolls meal, at 13s L.19 10 —
40, at 13s 2d 26 6 8
70 45 16 8

Rule III.

✓ Sold Dav. Richards 30 yds. diaper, at 2s L.3 — —
And paid him 30 — —

Rule I.

JOURNAL.

Perth, 17th MARCH, 1797.

Sundries Drs. to Clover-feed. For 2 bags, at L.6 L.12 — —
✓ Lint-feed, for 2 hds. recd. in bart. 55s 5 10 —
✓ Cash. In part 5 — —
✓ John Bell, for balance 1 10 —

Sundries Drs. to Cash.

✓ C. Fox. Paid him in full L.19 — —
✓ Profit & Loss. Paid him int. 1 10 —

Sundries Drs. to Clover-feed.

✓ Will. Peat, farmer at Duplin, for 140 lb. at 7½d L.4 7 6
✓ H. Cook, 70 7½d 2 3 9
✓ Cash. 120 7½d 3 12 6
330

✓ Bank of Perth Dr. to John Bell. Paid them by him

✓ Share of ship Adventure Dr. to D. Richards merchant Alloa, bought one third share for

✓ Bell and Caw Drs. to Sundries.
✓ To Iron. For 150 stone, at 3s 7d L.26 17 6
✓ To Port wine. For 1 hd. 15 5 —

Perth, 2d APRIL, 1797.

✓ Cash Dr. to Sundries.
✓ To Diaper. For 50 yards, at 1s 11d L.4 15 10
✓ To Meal. For 30 bolls, at 13s 7d 20 7 6
✓ To Lint-feed. For 1 hd. 3 3 —
✓ To Clover feed. For 160 lb. at 7½d 5 3 4
✓ To Iron. For 30 ft. at 3s 6½d 5 6 3

✓ Cash Dr. to Bank of Perth. Drawn on them for

Sundries Drs. to Cash.
✓ Train-oil. For 30 casks, at 22s L.33 — —
✓ Meal. For 30 bolls, at 13s L.19 10 —
✓ And 40 at 13s 2d 26 6 8
70 45 16 8

✓ D. Richards Dr. to Sundries.
✓ To Diaper. For 30 yds at 2s L.3 — —
✓ To Cash. Paid him 30 — —

T 2

Pei

(5) WASTE BOOK.
Perth, 8th APRIL, 1797.

✓ Bell and Caw have paid D. Richards, at my desire, balance of my share of the ship Adventure	Rule VIII.			
✓ Sold J. Bell 20 casks train-oil, at 27s.	Rule I.			
✓ Sold Will. Gib merch. Stirling 10 casks train-oil, at 28s	L 14	—	—	
1 hd. lint-feed	3	5	—	
35 bolls meal, at 13s 8d	23	18	4	
	L 41	3	4	
Received in part	L 25	—	—	
And he owes the balance	6	3	4	
	Rules I. II.			
✓ Paid Bell and Caw's bill on me to G. Freer, at sight	Rule I.			
✓ Taken for the use of my family, the remaining 5 yards calicoe, at 3s 2d	Rule VI.			
✓ The Bank of Perth have paid Paulus Van Trump's bill on me, 1 mdt. at my desire	Rule VIII.			
✓ Received my proportion of profits on a voyage to Amsterdam, by the Adventure	Rule V.			
✓ Paid for small charges on my business since 1st January	L 5	3	8	
Personal & family expences	32	—	—	
	Rule VI.			
✓ Due Peter Penman, my clerk, for wages	Rule VI.			
✓ Due the Bank of Perth for interest	Rule VI.			
✓ Previous to the balancing of my books, I had taken an inventory of goods in my shop and ware-house,				
124 bolls meal, at 13s 6d	L 8	14	—	
174 sp. 4 hank yarn, at 2s	47	8	—	
40 stone iron, at 3s 4d	6	23	4	
300 lb. clover-feed, at 6d	7	10	—	
	L 145	5	4	
I value my house at	300	—	—	
And my share of ship Adventure	140	—	—	
	L 585	5	4	

JOURNAL.

Perth, 8th APRIL, 1797.

✓ Dav. Richards Dr. to Bell and Caw.				
✓ Paid him by them on my account, being balance of share of ship Adventure				
✓ John Bell Dr. to Train-oil. Sold him 20 casks at 27s				
✓ Will. Gib Dr. to Sundries.				
✓ To Train-oil. For 10 casks, at 28s	L 14	—	—	
✓ To Lint-feed. For 1 hd.	3	5	—	
✓ To Meal. For 35 bolls, at 13s 8d	23	18	4	
✓ Cash Dr. to W. Gib. Received in part				
✓ Bell and Caw Drs. to Cash. Paid their bill on me to Geo. Freer, at sight				
✓ Proper expences Dr. to Calicoes. For 5 yards taken for family use, at 3s 2d				
✓ Paulus Van Trump Dr. to Bank of Perth. For his bill on me 1 mdt. paid by them				
✓ Cash Dr. to Share of Ship Adventure. Received my proportion of profits on a voyage to Amsterdam				
✓ Sundries Drs. to Cash.				
✓ Charges Merchandize. Paid small charges, since Jan. 1.	L 5	3	8	
✓ Proper Exp. Paid personal and family charges	32	—	—	
✓ Charges of Merchandize Dr. to Peter Penman, my clerk. Due him for wages				
✓ Profit and Loss Dr. to Bank of Perth. Due them for interest				
✓ Profit and Loss Dr. to Sundries, for articles of loss.				
✓ To Salt	L —	11	4	
✓ To Charges Merchandize	13	14	2	
✓ To Proper Expences (See p. 23.)	32	15	10	

(6) JOURNAL

Perth, 30th APRIL, 1797.

Sundries Drs to Profit and Loss, for articles of gain.

1 Meal	L9 18 —
2 Port-wine	6 15 —
3 Paper	4 18 6
4 Yarn	2 3 2
5 Calico	1 13 4
6 Dupper	— 15 10
7 Iron	2 7 11
8 Clover-feed	5 — 1
9 Lin-feed	— 18 —
10 Share of Ship Adventure	23 — —
11 Train-oil	8 — —
Sum	65 9 10

12 Bal. Account Dr. to Sun. for articles belonging to me.

1 To Cash	L8 3 10
2 To Meal. For 124 bolls, at 13s 6d	83 14 —
3 To Yarn. For 474 sp. at 2s 47 8 —	47 8 —
4 Amiffing 1/2 spindle.	
5 To House in Perth	300 — —
6 To John Bell	37 11 —
7 To Henry Hood	31 2 6
8 To William Mill	18 — —
9 To Hugh Cook	5 6 3
10 To Iron. For 40 stone, at 3s 4d	6 13 4
11 To John Hunt	7 4 —
12 To William Hunt	18 13 6
13 To Henry Yorke	35 15 —
14 To Clover-feed. For 300 lb. at 6d	7 10 —
15 Inlake 10 lb.	
16 To William Peat	4 7 6
17 To Share of Ship Adventure	140 — —
18 To William Gib	6 3 4
Sum	757 12 3

Sundries Drs to Balance-account.

1 Meal. Outcome 3 bolls	
2 Bank of Perth	L201 3 2
3 Hugh Pringle	20 — —
4 Peter Penman	8 — —
Sum	229 3 2

5 Profit and Loss Dr. to Stock, for neat gain

16 13 8

6 Stock Dr. to Balance-account, for nett stock

528 9 1

The next JOURNAL would begin thus.

Perth 1st MAY, 1797.

Sundries Drs. to Stock.


Cash on hand	L8 3 10
Meal. For 124 bolls, at 13s	L83 14 —
Yarn. For 474 sp. 4 hank, at 2s	47 8 —
Iron. For 40 ft. at 3s 4d	6 13 4
Clover-feed. For 300 lb. at 6d	7 10 —
Sum	145 5 4
House in Perth, value	L300 — —
Share in Ship Adventure.	
For onethird	140 — —
Sum	440 — —
J. Bell, Perth.	
Due by him	L37 11 —
H. Hood, Glasgow	Do 31 2 6
W. Mill, Dundee	Do 18 — —
H. Cook, Aberdeen	Do 5 6 3
J. Hunt, Edinburgh	Do 7 4 —
W. Hunt, Dundarbar	Do 18 13 6
H. Yorke, Manchester	Do 35 15 —
W. Peat, Duplin.	Do 4 7 6
W. Gib, Stirling	Do 6 3 4
Sum	164 3 1

757 12 3

Stock Dr. to Sundries.

To Bank of Perth. Due them	L201 3 2
To Hugh Gib, Leith. Due him	20 — —
P. Penman, my clerk, Do.	8 — —
Sum	229 3 2

229 3 2



1000

11

100	17	5	80
-----	----	---	----

Apr.	By Profit and Loss
	Inake
1890	
Jan.	
Feb.	
Mar.	
Apr.	
May	
June	
July	
Aug.	
Sept.	
Oct.	
Nov.	
Dec.	
Total	

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	-----

$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$

B O O K - K E E P I N G .

153

(4)

LEGER.

no.

LEGER.

no.

(4)

Dr.	H. Pringle merchant. Leith.			
1797				
Feb. 13	To Cash in part	1	50	
Apr. 15	To Balance-account			
Dr.	Iron.			
1797				
Jan. 13	To H. Pringle, at 3s 4d	320		
Apr. 15	To Profit & Loss, for gain			
		320		
Dr.	John Hunt Stationer Edinburgh.			
1797				
Jan. 15	To paper, for 12 reams at 12s			
Dr.	W. Hunt merchant Dunbar.			
1797				
Jan. 19	To Salt, for balance of 150 bushels, per J.			
Feb. 19	To Meal, for 27 bolls, at 13s 10d			
Dr.	W. Wallace merchant Dundee,			
1797				
Feb. 23	To Cash, in full	32	18	4
Dr.	Charges Merchandise,			
1797				
Feb. 15	To paper, taken for shop use, 1 ream	1	10	6
Apr. 30	To cash, for small charges since 1st January	1	5	3
	To P. Penman, for wages	6	8	
		13	14	2
Dr.	Bell and Caw Banff,			
1797				
Feb. 19	To Meal, for 52 bolls, at 13s 10d	35	19	4
Mar. 23	To Sundries, per J.	42	2	6
Apr. 15	To Cash, paid their bill on me to George Freer, st	1	38	18
		117		
Dr.	Henry Yorke Manchester,			
1797				
Mar. 5	To Yarn, for 360 spindles four hank, per J.	2	3	13
Dr.	Clowar feed,			
1797				
Mar. 12	To Sundries, per J. for prime cost and charges	1200		
Apr. 30	To Profit and loss, for gain			
		1200		

Contra	Cr.			
1797				
Jan. 13	By Sundries, per J.		70	
			70	
Contra	Cr.			
1797				
Feb. 2	By John Bell, at 3s 4½d	100	2	16
Mar. 28	By Bell and Caw, at 3s 7d	150	4	26
Apr. 2	By Cash, at 3s 6½d	30	1	5
30	By Balance-acct. at 3s 4d	40	6	6
		320	55	14
Contra	Cr.			
1797				
Apr. 30	By Balance account	6	7	4
Contra	Cr.			
1797				
Feb. 16	By Cash in full	1		2
Apr. 30	By Balance account	6	18	13
Contra	Cr.			
1797				
Jan. 16	By Yarn, for balance of 500 spindles, per J.	2	32	18
Contra	Cr.			
1797				
Apr. 30	By Profit and Loss	1	13	14
Contra	Cr.			
1797				
Apr. 8	David Richards paid him by them	5	11	7
Contra	Cr.			
1797				
Apr. 7	By Balance account,	6	35	15
Contra	Cr.			
1797				
Mar. 17	By Sundries, per J.	400		12
21	By Sundries, per J.	330		10
Apr. 2	By Cash, at 7½d	160		5
30	By Balance-account, at 6d Inlake	300		7
		1200	34	17

BOOK-KEEPING.

(5)

LEGER.

Fe

LEADER

50. (c)

[illegible]

B O O K K E E P I N G .

155

(6) L E G E R.			L E G E R.			No. (6)		
Dr.								
1797	Peter Penman, my Clerk,		1797	Contra	Cr.			
Apr. 30	To balance account	6 8	Apr. 30	By Charges Merchandize, due him for wages		4	8	
Dr.								
1797	Balance-accounts,		1797	Contra	Cr.			
Apr. 30	To Sundries, per J.	7	Apr. 30	By Sundries, per J.		1 329	3	2
				By Stock		528	9	1
		7				757	12	3

(103.) TRIAL-BALANCE.

Dr.		Cr.	
Stock	L 312 7 3	L 824 2 8	
Profit and Loss	4 4 10	2 10 —	
Cash	599 15 11	591 12 1	
	<u>L 916 8 7</u>	<u>L 1418 4 9</u>	
Meal	L 277 14 8	L 203 18 8	
Port wine	104 10 —	111 5 —	
Paper	36 15 —	41 13 6	
Yarn	94 17 4	49 12 6	
House in Perth	300 — —	— — —	
	<u>823 17 —</u>	<u>406 9 8</u>	
John Bell	L 247 11 —	L 110 — —	
H. Hood	31 2 6	— — —	
William Mill	18 — —	— — —	
Bank of Perth	140 — —	441 3 2	
	<u>436 13 6</u>	<u>551 3 2</u>	
Calicoes	L 16 12 6	L 18 5 10	
Hugh Cook	35 6 3	20 — —	
Diaper	7 — —	7 15 10	
Salt	17 15 10	17 4 6	
	<u>76 14 7</u>	<u>73 6 2</u>	
Iron	L 53 6 8	L 49 1 3	
Hugh Pringle	50 — —	70 — —	
John Hunt	7 4 —	— — —	
William Hunt	18 13 6	— — —	
Charges Merchandize	13 14 2	— — —	
	<u>143 18 4</u>	<u>119 1 3</u>	
Henry Yorke	L 35 15 —	L — — —	
Clover seed	29 17 —	27 7 1	
Flax-seed	5 10 —	6 8 —	
William Peat	4 7 6	— — —	
Share of Ship Adventure	150 — —	33 — —	
	<u>225 9 6</u>	<u>66 15 1</u>	
Train-oil	L 33 — —	L 41 — —	
William Gib	41 3 4	35 — —	
Proper Expenses	32 15 10	— — —	
Peter Penman	— — —	8 — —	
	<u>106 19 2</u>	<u>84 — —</u>	
	<u>L 2719 — 2</u>	<u>L 2719 — 1</u>	
	U 2	COMPL.	

(104.) COMPUTATIONS.

	Dr.	Cr.		Dr.	Cr.
1 Cash	L599 15 11	L591 12 1	Salt	L 17 15 10	L 17 4 6
	591 12 1			17 4 6	
	L 8 3 10		Loss	L — 11 4	
Meal	L277 14 8	L203 18 8	4 Hugh Pringle	L 50 — —	L 70 — —
Dr. 420 boll		83 14 —			50 — —
Cr. 299	L 83 14 —				L 20 — —
		L287 12 8	Iron	L 53 6 8	L 49 1 3
121		277 14 8	320 stone		6 13 4
124			280	L 6 13 4	
3 outcome	Profit L 9 18 —		40		L 55 14 7
a Port wine	L104 10 —	L111 5 —			53 6 8
		104 10 —			Profit L 2 7 11
	Profit L 6 15 —		John Hunt	L 7 4 —	
Paper	L 36 15 —	L 41 13 6	W. Hunt	L 18 13 6	
		36 15 —	Char. Merchan.	L 13 14 2	loss.
	Profit L 4 18 6		Henry Yorke	L 35 15 —	
Yarn	L 94 17 4	L 49 12 6	Clover seed	L 29 17 —	L 27 7 1
Spindles		47 8 —	1200 lb.		L 7 10 —
834 120	L 47 8 —		890	L 7 10 —	
360 120		L 91 — 6			L 34 17 1
		94 17 4			29 17 —
474 1/2	Profit L 2 3 2				Profit L 5 — 1
Amiffing 1/2	L300 — —		10 inlake	L 5 10 —	L 6 8 —
House in Perth			6 Lint-seed		5 10 —
					Profit L — 18 —
John Bell	L147 11 —	L110 — —	W. Peat	L 4 7 6	
	110 — —		Share Adventure	L150 — —	33 — —
	L 37 11 —				140 — —
H. Hood	31 2 6			L140 — —	
3 W. Mill	L 18 — —				L173 — —
Bank of Perth	L240 — —	L441 3 2			150 — —
		240 — —			Profit L 23 — —
		L201 3 2			
			Train-oil	L 33 — —	L 41 — —
Calicoes	L 16 12 6	L 18 5 10			33 — —
		16 12 6	W. Gib	Profit L 8 — —	
	Profit L 1 13 4			L 41 3 4	L 35 — —
H. Cook	L 35 6 3			35 — —	
	30 — —		Proper Ex.	L 6 3 4	
			7 P. Penman	L 32 15 10	loss.
	L 5 6 3				L 8 — —
Diaper	L 7 — —	L 7 15 10	STOCK	L312 7 3	L824 2
		7 — —	Balance	518 9 1	prof. 16 13
	Profit L — 15 10			L840 16 4	L840 16 4
					(105.) PROFIT

(105.) PROFIT AND LOSS SHEET.

[illegible]

(106.) BALANCE-SHEET.

[illegible]

PART. II.

OF BOOK-KEEPING BY SINGLE ENTRY.

107.) Having explained the method of Book-keeping by DOUBLE ENTRY, we shall add a few sections for keeping books by SINGLE ENTRY; because this method although less perfect, is yet the simplest and shortest. It is generally used by shop-keepers, and requires two principal books, a DAY BOOK and LEGER.

(108.) The **DAY BOOK** begins with a list of the debts due to the owner, and of the debts due by him to others. Then every transaction by which new debts are contracted, or former debts discharged, is entered as it occurs with the quantities and prices of goods bought or sold or other circumstances necessary for explaining the transaction.

(109.) When goods are sold on credit we write *A. B.* [the purchaser] *Dr.* and then mention the article or articles with the rates and amount. When we pay money we write *C. D.* [the receiver] *Dr. to Cash*; when we buy goods, *E. F.* [the seller] *Cr.* for the articles purchased; when we receive money, *G H.* [the payer] *Cr. by Cash.*

(110.) If debts be discharged or contracted by any other means, the person who becomes indebted to us, or to whom we pay a debt we formerly owed, is entered *Dr.* and the person to whom we become indebted, or who pays a debt he formerly owed, is entered *Cr.* and the nature of the transaction explained.

(III.) The **LEGER** contains an account for every person with whom there are dealings on credit, where the articles for which he is accountable to us, and those for which we are accountable to him

him, are placed in opposite pages of the same folio; the *Dr.* articles on the left hand pages, and the *Cr.* articles on the right hand pages.

(112.) To Post the ledger, allot a space for every person or company whose name occurs in the list of debts at the beginning of the day book; write the title and enter the debts on the proper side, referring to the page of the former ledger, where the account was; and enter the names in an index prepared as directed PART I. § 65; then proceed to post the articles from the day-book in their order, in the accounts of the persons they belong to, allotting a space for the account and writing the title, if it was not opened before. The date of the article is written on the margin, and the transaction is entered on the *Dr.* side, when the person is marked *Dr.* in the day-book; and on the *Cr.* side, when he is marked *Cr.* in the day-book.

(113.) When a single article is bought or sold, we mention it, with the quantity and rate, in the ledger; but when several articles are bought or sold at the same time, it is more usual to enter only the sum of the whole, writing *To Sundries*, or *By Sundries*, and referring to the day-book for particulars. The number of the folio, in which each article is posted, is marked on the margin of the day-book. If the space assigned for an account, be filled up, it must be transferred to another folio.

(114.) Instead of entering the *Dr.* and *Cr.* articles on opposite pages, some enter them all on the same page, and rule two sets of money columns, one for extending the sums of the *Dr.* articles and another for the sums of the *Cr.* articles.

(115.) Those who keep their books upon this plan, ought also to have a CASH BOOK, and an INVOICE BOOK; (see PART III. § 119, and 122,) which will make it unnecessary to enter the particulars of such articles in the day-book.

(116.) It is easy to collect a state of all the debts due to the owner of the books, and those due by him, once a year, or oftener; from which, together with an inventory of the goods on hand, and ready money, the stock of the owner will be easily known, and this compared with the amount of his stock at the beginning of the year, found in the same manner, shews the gain or loss upon his trade during the year.

(117.) Some shop-keepers enter all their sales, those for ready money, as well as those on credit, in their day-book; and when this is done, a column is generally ruled in the day-book for extending the cash articles, and the amount of money received is entered once a-week, or once a-day in the cash-book. This method is the best, when the articles are not very numerous or minute.

PART III.

OF THE SUBSIDIARY BOOKS.

(118.) Though all merchants accounts may be kept by the WASTE-BOOK, JOURNAL, and LEDGER, alone; yet men of great business find it convenient, either for abridging these, or for other ends, to keep some others, generally called SUBSIDIARY

or SUBSERVIENT BOOKS; the most common of which are the following, *viz.*

(119.) I. *The CASH-BOOK* is kept in a folio form like the ledger, and serves to abridge the cash account there. On the left-hand page, or *Dr.* side *Cash* is charged *Dr.* for all the sums received; and on the right-hand page, *Cash* is made *Cr.* for all the sums paid. Once a-week, or, which is more ordinary, once a-month, this book is posted to the ledger; or, first to the journal, by two entries *viz. Cash Dr. to Sundries*, for all the receipts, and *Sundries Drs. to Cash*, for all the payments. By this means the cash account in the ledger will be far contracted as to consist of 12 lines, *viz.* one for each month in the year.

(120.) II. *Book of CHARGES of MERCHANDISE*. This book is only paged, and designed to abridge the cash-book. It contains particular charges on goods and voyages; such as carriage, custom, freight, cranage, wharfage, &c. also other expences that affect trade in general; such as, warehouse rent, shop rent, accountant's wages, postage of letters, and the like. At the end of each month the money columns of this book are added up, and the sum carried to the credit side of the cash book.

(121.) III. *The Book of HOUSE EXPENCES*. Also paged, and designed to ease the cash book. It contains all disbursements for family provisions, servants wages, house rent, apparel, utensils, &c. The money columns of this book are also added up at the end of each month, and the sum transferred to the credit side of the cash book.

(122.) IV. *The INVOICE-BOOK*, used chiefly by factors, is paged, and contains copies of the invoices of goods sent to sea, or of goods received from abroad.

(123.) V. *The SALES-BOOK* is also chiefly used by factors; and into it is posted, from the waste-book, the particular sales of every consigned cargo by which the several articles of a sale, that lie scattered in the waste-book, are brought together and represented under one view, and that in a manner more full and minute than in the ledger. This book exhibits the sales of every consignment separately and by themselves: to which are subjoined the respective charges, such as freight, custom, the factor's commission, as also abatement allowed to buyers, &c. whose sum subtracted from the gross amount of sales gives the neat proceeds. From this book, when a cargo is sold off, an account of sales is drawn out, in order to be transmitted to the employer.

(124.) VI. *The BILL-BOOK, or MONTH-BOOK* is intended to furnish a merchant with a ready way of knowing the time when bills or other debts become payable to or by him. It consists of 12 folios, one for each month in the year. The left hand page contains the debts that fall due to the merchant in the month on the top, and the right hand page contains the debts payable by him to others in the same month.

(125.) VII. *RECEIPT-BOOK*. In this book the merchant takes receipts of the payments he makes. The receipt should contain the date; the sum received, expressed in words at large, and also in figures in the money columns; the reason why

and whether in full or in part; and must be signed by the person receiving.

(116.) VIII. LETTER-BOOK. It is very imprudent in any person to send away a letter of business, without keeping a copy of it; and therefore to prevent the bad consequences of such a careless practice, merchants are provided with a large book in folio, into which is copied *verbatim* every letter of business before it be sent off. So that this book, together with the letters received, which must also be carefully kept in files or boxes, makes a complete history of all the dealings that pass betwixt a merchant and his correspondents; which may be very useful on many occasions.

(117.) IX. POCKET-BOOK. This is a small book, of a portable size, which a merchant carries in his pocket, when business calls him abroad to a tavern, a fair, the country, or other places. In this he sets down the bargains he makes, the expences he

is at, the debts he pays, or sums he receives, with every other part of business he transacts while abroad; as also any occurrence or piece of news he thinks worth while to record. And when he comes home, he transfers the things contained in this book, each to their proper places in the waste book, or books subsidiary.

(128.) X. Factors of great business sometimes keep another small book, called the *Memorandum-book*. Into this book is copied, from letters as they come to hand, short notes of the several commissions for buying goods contained in them; and as commissions are effected, the notes are crossed, or have some mark affixed to them. This is more convenient in doing business, than to be continually running to the letters themselves.

(129.) The above are the subsidiary books most in use: but a merchant may keep some, and neglect others, or invent more as the nature of his business requires.

I N D E X .

A	D	
ASSETMENTS, accounts of, how to state, 29.	DAY-BOOK described, 108.	Loss, accounts of, how to state, 22, 28.
ACCOUNTS, personal, defined, 12. real, 13—19. fictitious, 20—22. subsidiary, 23—30. others, 95.	DEBTS, bad, how to state, 28.	M
B	DOUBLE ENTRY explained, 31.	MEMORANDUM-BOOK recommended, 128.
BALANCE defined, 10.	E	MONTH-BOOK described, 124.
BALANCE-SHEET, specimen of the, 106.	ENTRIES in the journal, rules for, 41—62.	N
BILL-BOOK described, 124.	ENTRY defined, 39.	NEW BOOKS, how to begin, 98.
BOOK-KEEPING defined, 1. observations on, 2—5. Italian method of, 6—106. method by single entry, 107—117.	ERRORS, rules for correcting, 74.	P
BOOKS, method of balancing the, 79—92. of closing them, 93—97. specimens of, 99—102. subsidiary, described, 118—128.	EXPENCES, proper, account of, described, 27. house, book of, described, 121.	PERSONAL accounts defined, 12.
C	H	POCKET-BOOK, use of the, 127.
CASH-BOOK described, 119.	HOUSE-EXPENCES, book of, described, 121.	PROFIT AND LOSS account described, 22. sheet, specimen of, 105.
CHARGES of merchandise defined, 26. book of, described, 120.	I	R
COMMISSION account described, 17.	INDEX described, 65.	REAL accounts defined, 13.
COMPUTATIONS, specimen of, 14.	INSURANCE account defined, 30.	RECEIPT-BOOK described, 125.
	INTEREST account described, 24.	S
	INVOICE-BOOK described, 122.	SALES-BOOK described, 123.
	JOURNAL described, 37—40. rules for entries in it, 41—62. specimen of it, 101.	SINGLE ENTRY, method of book-keeping by, 107—117.
	JOURNAL-POST defined, 39.	STOCK account described, 21.
	L	SUBSIDIARY accounts described, 23—30.
	LEGER described, 10, 36, 111. rules for posting it, 63—78, 112—114.	T
	LETTER-BOOK recommended, 126.	TRIAL-BALANCE, specimen of the, 103.
		W
		WASTE BOOK described, 7—9. specimen of it, 100.

B O O

BOOK-LAND. See BOOK-LAND.
 * BOOKLEARNED. *adj.* [from *book* and *learn*.] Verbed in books or literature: a term implying some slight contempt.—
 'Whate'er these *booklearn'd* blockheads say,
 Solon's the veriest fool in all the play. *Dryden*.
 'He will quote passages out of Plato and Pindar,
 at his own table, to some *booklearned* companion,
 without blushing. *Swift*.

B O O

* BOOKLEARNING. *n. s.* [from *book* and *learning*.] Skill in literature; acquaintance with books: a term of some contempt.—They might talk of *booklearning* what they would; but he never saw more unfeaty fellows than great clerks. *Sidney*.—Neither does it require so much *book-learning* and scholarship, as good natural sense, to distinguish true and false, and to discern what is well proved, and what is not. *Burnet's Theory*.
 * BOOK-

BO OK MAN. *n. f.* [from *book* and *man*.] A man whose profession is the study of books.—

This civil war of wits were much better us'd
On Navarre and his *bookmen*; for here 'tis
abus'd. *Shakesf.*

* **BOOKMATE.** *n. f.* [from *book* and *mate*.] Schoolfellow.—

This Armado is a Spaniard that keeps here
in court,
A phantasm, a monarch, and one that makes
sport

To the prince and his *bookmates*. *Shakesf.*

(1.) * **BOOKSELLER.** *n. f.* [from *book* and *sell*.] He whose profession it is to sell books.—He went to the *bookseller*, and told him in anger, he had sold a book in which there was false divinity. *Walton*.

(2.) **BOOKSELLERS, GENERAL ACCOUNT OF.** Booksellers, among the ancient Romans, were stiled *Bibliopola*. Their office was distinct from that of *librarii*. Venders of small books were more particularly denominated *libelliones*. At Rome, the Argiletum was the chief mart of books. Booksellers in many places are ranked among the members of universities, and intitled to the privileges of students. At Tübingen, Salisburg, &c. and at Paris before the revolution, they have always been distinguished from the mechanical traders, and exempted from many taxes laid on their companions. Formerly, the offices of booksellers and printers were united in the same persons. Labbé gives a list of learned booksellers most of whom were also printers and authors. Of late, booksellers, leaving the labour of composing books to one set of persons, and that of printing them to another, content themselves with the gainful part. In this view they have been useful agents between authors and the public; and have contributed in no small degree, to the encouragement of genius. The fairs of Francfort and Leipzig are famous for the resort of booksellers, not only from all parts of the empire, but from Holland, Flanders, &c. They have each their shop or warehouse, over which is inscribed the name of some celebrated bookseller of former times; such as *officina Elzeviriana*, *Frobeniana*, *Morelliana*, *Jansoniana*, &c. The traffic of books was anciently very inconsiderable, inasmuch that the book merchants of England, France, Spain, and other countries, were distinguished by the appellation of **STATIONERS**; as having no shops, but only stalls and stands in the streets. During this state, the civil magistrates took little notice of the booksellers, leaving the government of them to the universities, to whom they were supposed more immediate retainers; who accordingly gave them laws and regulations, fixed prices on their books, examined their correctness, and punished them at discretion. But when, by the invention of printing, books and booksellers began to multiply, it became a matter of more consequence; and the sovereigns took the direction of them into their own hands, giving them new statutes, appointing officers to fix prices, and granting licences, privileges, &c.

(3.) **BOOKSELLERS, MARKS USED BY SEVERAL FAMOUS.** An acquaintance with the marks, on the title pages of books, is of some use; be-

cause many ancient books have no other designation either of printer, bookseller, or even city. The anchor is the mark of Raphelengius at Leyden; the same with a dolphin twisted round it of the Manutii at Venice and Rome; the Aries of Oporinus at Basil; the caduceus, or Pegasus of the Wecheliuses at Paris and Francfort; the cranes of Cramoisy; the compass of Plantin at Antwerp; the fountain of Vascofan at Paris; the sphere in a balance, of Janson and Blaew, at Amsterdam; the lily, of the Juntas at Venice, Florence, Lyons, and Rome; the mulberry tree, of Morel at Paris; the olive tree, of the Stephenses at Paris and Geneva, and the Elzevirs at Amsterdam and Leyden; the bird between two serpents of the Frobeniuses at Basil; the truth, of the Commelins at Heidelberg and Paris; the Saturn, of Colinæus; and the printing-press, of Badius, Alençius, &c.

(1.) * **BOOKWORM.** *n. f.* [from *book* and *worm*.] 1. A worm or mite that eats holes in books, chiefly when damp.—My lion, like a mite or *bookworm*, feeds upon nothing but paper, and I shall beg of them to diet him with wholesome and substantial food. *Guardian*. 2. A student too closely given to books; a reader without judgment.—Among those venerable galleries and solitary scenes of the university, I wanted but a black gown, and a salary, to be as mere a *bookworm* as any there. *Pope's Letters*.

(2.) **BOOK-WORM** is an insect of the mite kind which afterwards becomes a fly, bred from eggs deposited in the month of August in books, especially in the leaves nearest the covers. It is not unlike the mite or **BLATTA** found in corn. When the time of its transformation approaches, it seeks to get into the air, and eats through, till it gets to the extremity of the book.

(3.) **BOOK-WORMS, ANTIDOTES AGAINST.** The mixture of juice of wormwood and other bitter ingredients in the paste, (which is an expedient used by book-binders) is no security to books against book worms. The best security is from mineral salts, which all insects hate. For this purpose book-binders, ought to mix with the paste employed in binding, the salt called **ARCANUM DUPLICATUM**, alum, and vitriol. With this precaution, books may be preserved from all injury by this mischievous little creature. M. Prædige in his Instructions to German book-binders, (Leipzig, 1741,) recommends making paste of starch instead of flour; and advises to powder slightly the books, their covers, and the shelves on which they stand, with a mixture of powder of alum and fine pepper; and in the months of March, July, and September, to rub the books with a piece of woollen cloth steeped in powdered alum.

BOOLIE, *adj.* *Obs.* beloved.

* **BOOLY.** *n. f.* [an Irish term.] All the Tartarians, and the people about the Caspian Sea, which are naturally Scythians, live in hordes; being the very same that the Irish *boolies* are, driving their cattle with them, and feeding only on the milk and white meats. *Spenser*.

* **BOOM.** *n. f.* [from *boom*, a tree, Dutch.] [In sea language.] A long pole used to spread out the clue of the studding sail; and sometimes the clues of the mainsail and foresail are boomed out.

2. A pole with buthes or baskets, set up as a mark to show the sailors how to steer in the channel, when a country is overflown. *Sea Dictionary*. 3. A row of wood laid across a harbour, to keep off the enemy.—

As his heroick worth struck envy dumb,
Who took the Dutchmen, and who cut the
boom. *Dryden*.

* *BOOM*. *v. n.* [from the noun. A sea term.]

1. To rush with violence; as a ship is said to *boom* *beaming*, when she makes all the sail she can. *DiB.* 2. To swell and fall together.—

Booming o'er his head,
The billows clos'd; he's number'd with the
dead. *Young*.

Forsook by thee, in vain I fought thy aid,
When *booming* billows clos'd above my head:
Pope.

BOOMER, a village in Somersetshire, between Bridgewater and Taunton.

BOOMHALL, a village of Ireland; near Londonderry, in Ulster.

ROOMITES, a kind of agate, of a remarkable lightness and transparence, which represents the figures of shrubs, trees, mosses, &c. in the manner of the *DENDRACHATES*, or *mocho-stone*.

(1.) * **BOON**. *adj.* [*bôn*, Fr.] Gay; merry: as, a *boon* companion—

Satiate at length,

And heighten'd as with wine, jocund and *boon*;
Thus to herself she pleasingly began: *Par. Lost*.
—I know the infirmity of our family; we play
the *boon* companion, and throw our money away
in our cups. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) * **BOON**. *n. f.* [from *bene*, Sax. a petition.] A gift; a grant; a benefaction; a present.—

Vouchsafe me for my meed but one fair look:
A smaller *boon* than this I cannot beg,
And less than this, I'm sure, you cannot give.
Shakesf.

—That courtier, who obtained a *boon* of the emperor, that he might every morning whisper him in the ear, and say nothing, asked no unprofitable fat for himself? *Bacon*.—

The bluff'ring fool has satisfy'd his will;
His *boon* is giv'n; his knight has gain'd the day;
But lost the prize. *Dryden's Fables*.

What rhetorick didst thou use,
To gain this mighty *boon*? she pities me!
Addison's Cato.

BOONEN, Arnold, portrait painter, born at Det in 1669, was at first a disciple of Arnold Verbois, and afterwards of Godfrey Schalcken, to whom he continued six years. The sweetness of his colouring, and the neatness of his touch, with a striking likeness in his portraits, secured him many admirers. He painted subjects by candle-light, very natural; and much more of his work was requested than it was possible for him to undertake. He painted the portraits of Peter the Great of Muscovy; Frederic of Prussia; the Duke of Marlborough, many of the princes of Germany, and most of the noblemen who attended the Czar. His small pictures are in the taste of Schalcken; but his excessive application, to answer the multitude of his engagements, impaired his health, while it enriched him. He died in 1729, aged 32.

VOL. IV. PART I.

BOONETON, a small post town of the United States, in New Jersey; 160 m. from Philadelphia.

BOONSBOROUGH, a small town of Kentucky, and the first that was settled in that state. It is agreeably situated on the S. side of the river Kentucky, about 160 miles above its confluence with the Ohio, and 20 S. E. of Lexington. Lon. 9. 45. W. Lat. 37. 57. N

(1.) **BOOPS**, in ichthyology, the trivial name of a species of balæna. See *BALÆNA*, § I. N. 1.

(2.) **BOOPS** is also the name of a fish caught in the Mediterranean, and sold at Naples, Messina, and Genoa; seldom exceeding 5 inches in length, and remarkable for the largeness of its eyes. It is a species of *SPARUS*.

BOOPTHALMUS, [from *Boo*, an ox, and *οφθαλμος*, an eye,] a kind of grey agate with large dark blue circles in it, bearing some resemblance to an ox's eye.

* **BOOR**. *n. f.* [*beer*, Dutch; *gebüre*, Sax.] A ploughman; a country fellow; a lout; a clown.—The bare sense of calamity is called grumbling; and if a man does but make a face upon the *boor*, he is presently a malecontent. *L'Esrange*.—He may live as a *boor* of Holland, whose cares of growing still richer waste his life. *Temple*.—

To one well-born, th' affront is worse and more,

When he's abus'd and baffl'd by a *boor*. *Dryd.*

* **BOORISH**. *adj.* [from *boor*.] Clownish; rustic; untaught; uncivilized.—Therefore, you clown, abandon, which is, in the vulgar, leave the society, which, in the *boorish*, is company of this female. *Shakespeare's As you like it*.

* **BOORISHLY**. *adv.* [from *boorish*.] In a boorish manner; after a clownish manner.

* **BOORISHNESS**. *n. f.* [from *boorish*.] Clownishness; rusticity; coarseness of manners.

BOOR-WORM, in natural history, a name given by Rumphius, to the *solen lignorum*, a sea worm, which bores the bottoms of ships.

* **BOOSE**. *n. f.* [*bofig*, Sax.] A stall for a cow or an ox.

BOOSHATTER, formerly the city of UTICA, famous for the retreat and death of Cato, lies about 7 miles inland from PORTO FARINO in the bay of TUNIS. Nothing remains of its ancient grandeur, except part of a large aqueduct, some cisterns, and other magnificent ruins, which cover a large extent of ground, and show it to have been a very considerable place. The sea came up anciently to this city, though now 7 miles distant.

(1.) * **BOOT**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Profit; gain; advantage; something given to mend the exchange.—

My gravity,

Wherein, let no man hear me, I take pride,
Could I, with *boot*, change for an idle plume,
Which the air beats for vain. *Shakesf.*

2. To boot. With advantage; over and above; besides.—

Canst thou, O partial sleep, give thy repose
To the wet seaboy, in an hour so rude;
And, in the calmest and the stillest night,
With all appliances and means to boot,
Deny it to a king?

X

Shakesf.
Man

Man is God's image ; but a poor man is
Christ's stamp *to boot* : both images regard.

Herbert.

—He might have his mind and manners formed,
and be instructed *to boot* in several sciences. *Locke*.
3. It seems, in the following lines, used for *booty*,
or plunder.—

Others, like soldiers, armed in their stings,
Make *boot* upon the summer's velvet buds.

Shakespeare.

(2.) * *BOOT*. *n. f.* [*bottas*, Armorick ; *botes*, a
shoe, Welch ; *botte*, French.] 1. A covering for
the leg, used by horsemen.—

That my leg is too long—

—No ; that it is too little.—

—I'll wear a *boot*, to make it somewhat rounder.

Shakespeare.

Shew'd him his room, where he must lodge
that night,

Pull'd off his *boots*, and took away the light.

Milton.

—Bishop Wilkins says, he does not question but
it will be as usual for a man to call for his wings,
when he is going a journey, as it is now to call
for his *boots*. *Addison's Guardian*.—2. A kind of
rack for the leg, formerly used in Scotland for
torturing criminals.

(3.) *BOOT*, among the ancient Romans, was
called *ochrea* ; and by middle age writers, *GRE-
VA*, *GAMBERIA*, *bainberga*, *bembarga*, or *benbarga*.
The boot is said to have been the invention of the
Carians. It was at first made of leather, after-
wards of brass or iron ; whence Homer calls the
Greeks *brazen-booted*. The boot was used by the
foot, as well as by the horsemen. It only covered
half the leg ; some say the right leg, which was
more advanced than the left, it being advanced
forwards in an attack with the sword ; but in reali-
ty it appears to have been used on either leg, and
sometimes on both. Those who fought with darts
or other missile weapons, advanced the left leg
foremost, so that this only was booted.

(4.) *BOOT*, [*BORDEKIN*,] as above defined, (§ 1.
def. 2.) was used in *England*, as well as in this
country, to extort confession by torture. A boot,
stocking, or buskin of parchment, being put on
the leg moist, and brought near the fire, in shrink-
ing squeezes the leg violently, and occasions into-
lerable pain. There is also another kind of boot ;
consisting of 4 thick strong boards bound round
with cords : two of these are put between the cri-
minal's legs, and the two others placed one on the
outside of one leg, and the other on the other ;
then squeezing the legs against the boards by the
cords, the criminal's bones are severely pinched,
and sometimes even broken. This and most other
barbarous punishments are now abolished in Bri-
tain and France ; but it is still used in some other
countries.

(5.) * *BOOT OF A COACH*. The space between
the coachman and the coach.

(6.) *BOOTS*, among the moderns, (§ 2. *def.* 1.)
are used on horseback, both to keep the body more
firm, and defend the part from the injuries of the
weather. Boots seem to have taken their name
from the resemblance they bear to a sort of jacks
or leathern bottles formerly in use, and called *bos-
tes*, in the old French. *bouts*. *Borel* derives the

name from the old French word *bot*, a stump, be-
cause the boot gives the leg this appearance. The
Chinese have a kind of boots made of silk, or fine
stuff lined with cotton, a full inch thick, which
they always wear at home ; and when a visit is
made them, if they happen to be without their
boots, their guest must wait till they put them on.
They never stir out of doors without their boots
on ; and their scrupulousness in this respect is the
more ridiculous, as they are always carried in
chairs.

(7.) *BOOTS, FISHING*, are a thick strong sort
used in dragging ponds, and the like.

(8.) *BOOTS, HUNTING*, a thinner kind used by
sportsmen.

(9.) *BOOTS, JACK*, a very strong kind of boots
used by troopers.

(1.) * *To BOOT*. *v. a.* [*baten*, to profit, Dutch ;
bot, in Saxon, is recompence, repentance, or fine
paid by way of expiation ; *botan*, Sax. is, to re-
pent ; or to compensate ; as,

He is wis that bit and bote,

And bet birsoren dome.]

1. To profit ; to advantage : it is commonly used
in these modes, *it boots*, or *what boots it* ?—It shall
not *boot* them, who derogate from reading, to ex-
cuse it, when they see no other remedy ; as if their
intent were only to deny that aliens and strangers
from the family of God are won, or that belief
doth use to be wrought at the first in them, with-
out sermons. *Hooker*.—

For what I have, I need not to repeat ;
And what I want, it *boots* not to complain.

Shakespeare.

If we shun

The purpos'd end, or here lie fixed all,
What *boots* it thus these wars to have begun.

Fairfax.

What *boots* the regal circle on his head,
That long behind he trails his pompous robe ?

Pope.

2. To enrich ; to benefit.—

And I will *boot* thee with what gift beside,
That modesty can beg. *Shak. Ant. and Cleop.*

(2.) * *To BOOT*. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To
put on boots.—*Boot, boot*, master Shallow ; I know
the young king is sick for me : let us take any
man's horses. *Shakespeare*.

BOOTAN, a mountainous country of Indostan
Proper, and a feudatory province of Thibet. It
lies between Thibet and Bengal. *Tallaudon* is
the capital.

* *BOOT-CATCHER*. *n. f.* [from *boot* and
catch.] The person whose business at an inn is to
pull off the boots of passengers.—The ostler and
the *bootcatcher* ought to partake. *Swift*.

* *BOOTED*. *adj.* [from *boot*.] In boots ; in
horseman's habit.—

A *booted* judge shall sit to try his cause,
Not by the statute, but by martial laws. *Dryden*

BOOTES, a constellation of the northern he-
misphere, consisting of 23 stars according to Pto-
lemy's catalogue ; of 18 in Tycho's ; of 34 in
Bayer's ; of 52 in Hevelius's ; and of 54 in Flam-
steed's catalogue. It is also called *ARCTOPHY-
LAX*, *BUBULCUS*, *BUBULUS*, &c.

(1.) *BOOTH*, Barton, a famous tragedian, born
in Lancashire in 1681, and educated in Wadsworth

ter school under the celebrated Dr Bushby. He was intended for the church, but his success in the Latin plays, customarily performed by the scholars, gave him an inclination for the stage; and, running away from school to Dublin, he there commenced actor. His first appearance was in the part of Oroonoko, in which he came off with every mark of approbation. From this time he continued daily improving; and, after two successful campaigns, returned to his native country, to try his abilities on the English stage. Having, by letter, reconciled himself to his friends, he obtained a recommendation from Lord Fitzharding to Mr Betterton, who gave him all the assistance in his power. The first part he appeared in at London was that of Maximus in Lord Rochester's *Valentinian*, wherein his reception exceeded his sanguine expectations. His performance of *Artaban*, in Rowe's *Ambitious Stepmother*, which was a new tragedy, established his reputation. In *Pyrrhus*, in the *Distressed Mother*, he shone without a rival. But he was indebted to a happy coincidence of merit and chance, for that height of fame which he at length attained in the character of *Cato*, as drawn by Mr Addison, in 1712. For this being considered as a party play, the Whigs, in favour of whose principles it was evidently written, thought it their duty strongly to support it, while the Tories, unwilling to have it considered as a reflection on their administration, were still more vehement in their approbation of it; which they carried to such a height, that they made a collection of 50 guineas in the boxes during the performance, and presented them to Mr Booth, with this compliment, "That it was a slight acknowledgement for his honest opposition to a perpetual dictator, and his dying so bravely in the cause of liberty." He also got a present of an equal sum from the managers, in consideration of the great success of the play, which they attributed in a good measure to his extraordinary merit; and certain it is, that no one since has ever equalled, or even nearly approached, his excellence in the character. Nor were these the only advantages he reaped from his success in this part; for Lord Bolingbroke soon after procured a special licence from Q. Anne, recalling all the former ones, and nominating Mr Booth as joint manager with Wills, Cibber, and Dogget; the last of whom took it so much amiss, that he withdrew from any further share in the management. In 1704, Mr Booth had married a daughter of Sir William Berkeley Bart. who died in 1710, without issue. In 1719 he married the celebrated Miss Hester Fallow, a woman of a most amiable disposition, whose great merit as an actress, added to the utmost discretion and prudential economy, had enabled her to save a considerable fortune. During the 20 years in which Mr Booth continued a manager, the theatre was in the greatest credit; and his death, which happened on the 10th of May 1739, contributed not a little to its decline. Mr Booth wrote a dramatic work entitled *Dido and Eneas*; but his master-piece was a Latin inscription to the memory of Mr William Smith, a celebrated actor. Mr Booth's dramatic excellency lay wholly in tragedy, not being fond of such parts as had not strong passion. Dignity rather than

complacency, rage rather than tenderness, seemed to be his taste. For a complete idea of his abilities, we must refer to the descriptions given by Cibber in his *Apology*, and by Aaron Hill, Esq; in a political paper, called the *Prompter*, which may be seen in Cibber's *Lives of the Poets*, and Chetwood's *History of the Stage*.—His character as a man was adorned with many amiable qualities.

(2.) BOOTH, Henry, earl of Warrington, was born in 1651, and was member for Chester in several parliaments during the reign of Charles II. Being a zealous protestant, he was active in promoting the bill for excluding the D. of York from the throne. This, with his vigorous and constant opposition to the arbitrary measures then prevailing, rendered him so very obnoxious to the court, that in 1684, (soon after his becoming Lord Delamer, by the death of his father,) he was committed close prisoner to the tower, and though liberated soon after, he was committed a 2d and 3d time in 1685; and at last, in Jan. 1686, tried for high treason; but in spite of all the efforts of the court, and the bloody Jeffries, was unanimously acquitted by his jury. After this he lived retired till matters ripened for the revolution, to which he contributed by raising forces and every other means in his power. Upon its accomplishment, he was made a privy counsellor, chancellor of exchequer, Lord lieutenant of Chester, &c.; but though he held some of these offices for life, he was dismissed from others, as he opposed the court measures, and wished for farther limitations of the royal prerogative. But to avoid all appearance of ingratitude, his dismissal was accompanied with the creation of the new title of E. of Warrington, in 1690, and a pension of L. 2000 a-year. He died 2. Jan. 1694. He wrote several political tracts, and the case of William E. of Devonshire; which, with his speeches made in parliament, and some family prayers, were published in one vol. 8vo. in 1694.

(3.) BOOTH, in geography, a village in the E. Riding of Yorkshire, near the Ouse.

(4.) * BOOTH, *n. f.* [*baed*, Dutch; *bawth*, Welch.] A house built of boards, or boughs, to be used for a short time.—The clothiers found means to have all the quest made of the northern men, such as had their *booths* in the fair. *Camden*.—Much mischief will be done at Bartholomew fair by the fall of a *booth*. *Swift*.

•To BOOT-HALE, *v. a. obs.* To rob; to plunder.

BOOT-HALER, *n. f. obs.* A robber.

BOOTHBY, a village in Lincolnsh. near Bloxham.

BOOTHBY-PAGNEL, a village in Lincolnshire, S. E. of Grantham.

* BOOT-HOSE. *n. f.* [from *boot* and *hose*.] Stockings to serve for boots; spatterdashes.—His lacquey with a linen stock on one leg, and a *boot-hose* on the other, gartered with a red and blue list. *Shakespeare*.

BOOTHES, a town in the High Peak of Derby.

BOOTHES-HALL, a village in Lancashire, 3 m. N. E. of Leigh. It has fairs, on Whits. Sat. and Sat. before October 23.

•BOOTING, a kind of rack. See BOOT, § 2, 4.

BOOTING CORN, in our ancient customs, a rent of corn paid by tenants, by way of boot to the proprietor, for granting them leases.

BOOT-LAST. See **BOOT-TREE**.

BOOTLE, a village in Cumberland, 5 m. from Ravenglas. It has fairs April 5, and Sep. 24.

BOOT-LEGS, *n. s.* pieces of leather cut for making the legs of boots. *A/b.*

* **BOOTLESS**. *adj.* [from *boot*.] 1. Useless; unprofitable; unavailing; without advantage.—

When those accursed messengers of hell
Came to their wicked man, and 'gan tell
Their *bootless* pains, and ill succeeding night.

Spenser.

—God did not suffer him, being desirous of the
light of wisdom, with *bootless* expence of travel,
to wander in darkness. *Hooker*—

Bootless speed,

When cowardice pursues, and valour flies.

Shakespeare.

Let him alone;

I'll follow him no more with *bootless* pray'rs;

He seeks my life.

Shakespeare.

2. Without success.—

Doth not Brutus *bootless* kneel? *Shake-sp.*

Thrice from the banks of Wye,

And sandy bottom'd Severn, have I sent

Him *bootless* home, and weather-beaten back.

Shakespeare.

BOOT-MAKER, *n. s.* one who makes boots:

BOOTON, a town in Norfolk, E. of Reppham.

(1.) **BOOTS**, in botany, the marsh-mallows.

(2.) **BOOTS**. See **BOOT**, § 6—9.

BOOT-TOPPING, in sea language, the act
of cleaning the upper part of the ship's bottom,
or that part which lies immediately under the
surface of the water, and daubing it over with
tallow, or with a mixture of tallow, sulphur, re-
sin, &c.

* **BOOT-TREE**. *n. s.* [from *boot* and *tree*.] Two
pieces of wood, shaped like a leg, to be driven
into boots, for stretching and widening them.

(1.) * **BOOTY**. *n. s.* [*buylt*, Dutch; *butin*, Fr.]
1. Plunder; pillage; spoils gained from the enemy.

One way a band select from forage drives

A herd of beeves, fair oxen, and fair kine,

Their *booty*.

Milton.

—His conscience is the hue and cry that pursues
him; and when he reckons that he has gotten a
booty, he has only caught a Tartar. *L'Esrange*.—

For, should you to extortion be inclin'd,

Your cruel guilt will little *booty* find. *Dryden.*

2. Things gotten by robbery.—If I had a mind to
be honest, I see fortune would not suffer me; she
drops *booties* in my mouth. *Shakespeare.* 3. To

play *booty*. To play dishonestly, with an intent
to lose. The French use, *Je suis botté*, when
they mean to say, *I will not go*.—We understand
what we ought to do; but when we deliberate,
we play *booty* against ourselves; our consciences
direct us one way, our corruptions hurry us an-
other. *L'Esrange*.—I have set this argument in
the best light, that the ladies may not think that
I write *booty*. *Dryden.*

(2.) **BOOTY**, among the Greeks, was divided
in common among the army, the general only
claiming a larger share. By the military discipline
of the Romans, spoils taken from the enemy be-
longed to the republic, particular persons having
no right to them. Sometimes indeed they divi-
ded it among the soldiery, to animate them, and

serve in lieu of a reward. But this distribution
depended on the generals, who were to conduct
themselves herein with great equity and modera-
tion; otherwise it became a crime of peculation
to lay hands on the pillage. The consuls Romu-
lus and Vaturius were condemned for having sold
the booty taken from the Æqui. During the
Jewish republic, the booty was divided equally
between the army and the people; but under the
kings a different kind of distribution obtained.—
Among the Mahometans, two thirds of the spoils
are allowed to the army; the other third to God,
to Mahomet and his relations, and to the orphans,
the poor, and the pilgrims. Among us, formerly
the booty was divided among the soldiers. If the
general be in the field, every body takes what he
can lay hold on; if the general be absent, the
booty is distributed among the soldiers, two parts
being allowed the cavalry, and one to the infantry.
A captain is allowed ten shares, a lieutenant six,
and a cornet four.

BOOZ, [122, Heb. *i. e.* strength.] See **BOAZ**.

* **BOPEEP**. *n. s.* [from *bo* and *peep*.] The act of
looking out, and drawing back as if frightened, or
with the purpose to fright some other.—

Then they for sudden joy did weep,

And I for sorrow sung,

That such a king should play *bopeep*,

And go the fools among.

Shake-sp.

Rivers,

That serve instead of peaceful barriers,

To part th' engagements of their warriors,

Where both from side to side may skip,

And only encounter at *bopeep*.

Hudibras.

—There the devil plays at *bopeep*, puts out his
horns to do mischief, then shrinks them back for
safety. *Dryden.*

BOPFINGEN, a town of Suabia in Germany,
seated on the Elgar. Lon. 9. 55. E. Lat. 48. 51. N.

BOPPART, a town of Germany, in the circle
of the Rhine, and electorate of Treves; seated at
the foot of a mountain, on the W. bank of the
Rhine, 8 m. S. of Coblenz. It was taken by the
French, in the end of 1794, along with BINGEN;
BONN, COBLENZ, and the rest of the territory,
W. of the Rhine; and is now included in one of
the new departments into which that territory is
divided. Lon. 7. 10. E. Lat. 50. 20. N.

BOQUINIANS, } a sect of sacramentarians,
BOQUINI, } who asserted that the body
of Christ was present in the Eucharist only to those
for whom he died; viz. the elect.

BOQUINUS, the founder of the sect of Boqui-
nians, a Lutheran divine, who taught that Christ
did not die for all mankind, but only for the faith-
ful, and consequently was only a particular Savi-
our. In this opinion he is not singular.

BORA, in natural history, the name used for
the BUFONITES, by some authors; these are sup-
posed by many to be real stones, but are only the
teeth of a fish.

* **BORABLE**. *adj.* [from *bore*.] That may be
bored.

BORABY, a village in Yorkshire, N. W. of
Whitby.

BORACE, *n. s. obs.* Borax. *Cbauc.*

(1.) * **BORACHIO**. *n. s.* [*borracho*, Span.] A
drunkard.—How you stink of wine! D'ye think

my niece will ever endure such a *borachio*! you're absolute *borachio*. *Congreve*.

(2.) BORACHIO is the name of a sort of leathern bottles, used in Spain for bringing wine from the mountains: whence the metaphor, § 1.

BORÆUM, in ancient geography, the name given by Ptolemy to the promontory on the coast of ASTRIM, in Ireland, now called ST HELEN'S HEAD.

* BORAGE. *n. f.* [from *borago*, Lat.] A plant. *Linn.*

BORAGO, a synonyme of the ANCHUSA.

BORAK. [Arab. *i. e.* Shining.] See ALBORAK.

(1.) * BORAMEZ. *n. f.* The Scythian lamb, generally known by the name of *Agnus Scythicus*.—Much wonder is made of the *boramez*, that strange plant animal, or vegetable lamb of Tartary, which was delight to feed on; which hath the shape of a lamb, affordeth a bloody juice upon breaking, and liveth while the plants be consumed about it. *Boerhaave's Vulgar Errors*.

(2.) BORAMEZ. See AGNUS SCYTHICUS.

BORASSUS, in botany, a genus of plants, described by Linnæus, but not classed. The male and female flowers grow on separate plants, and give the plant such a different figure, that they are called by different names, in the Hortus Malabaricus; the male being called AMPANA, and the female CARIMPANA. The male has for the cup of its flower the whole compound spatha, which is amentaceous and imbricated: the flower is divided into 3 segments, the petals being hollowed, and of an oval figure: the stamina are 3 thick filaments, and the antheræ are thick and united. In the female, the cup is the same as in the male, but the petals of the flower, which is divided into 3 parts, in the manner of the male, are very small, of a roundish figure, and remain upon the pistil, &c. fall off. The germen of the pistil is roundish; the styles are 3, and small, and the stigmata are small; the fruit is a roundish oblong berry, of a rigid structure, and containing only one cell; the seeds are 3, and of an oval compressed figure.

(1.) * BORAX. *n. f.* [*borax*, low Latin.] An artificial salt, prepared from sal armoniac, nitre, calcined tartar, sea salt, and alum, dissolved in wine. It is principally used to solder metals, and sometimes an uterine ingredient in medicine. *Quincy*.

(2.) BORAX, ACCOUNTS OF THE ORIGIN OF. Borax is a salt in appearance similar to alum, brought originally from the East Indies in an impure state, and afterwards purified in Europe. It was long uncertain whether this salt was a natural or artificial substance; but it is now ascertained that it is naturally produced in the mountains of Thibet, from whence other parts of the eastern continent are supplied. Mr Kirwan, in his mineralogy, informs us, that Mr Gill Adamson sent some to Sweden in 1772, in a crystalline form, as dug out of the earth in Thibet, where it is called *pounxa*, *my-poun*, and *boui-poun*. It is said to have been found in Saxony in some coal-pits. In the *Phil. Transf.* vol. 77. we have two different accounts of the place where it is found, and the manner of obtaining it. One of these is by William Blane, Esq; who tells us that in the language of the country it is called *Savagah*, and

is brought into Indostan from the mountains of Thibet. It is produced in Jumlate, about 50 days journey N. from Betowle, a small principality about 200 miles N. E. of Lucknow. The place where it is found is said to be a small valley surrounded with snowy mountains, in which is a lake about 6 miles in circumference; the water of which is constantly so hot that the hand cannot bear it for any time. Around this lake the ground is perfectly barren, not producing even a blade of grass; and the earth is so full of a saline matter, that after falls of rain or snow it concretes in white flakes on the surface like the natron of Indostan. On the banks of this lake, in winter when the falls of snow begin, the earth is formed into small reservoirs six inches high: when these are filled with snow, the hot water from the lake is thrown upon it; which, together with the water from the melted snow, remains in the reservoir, to be partly absorbed by the earth and partly evaporated by the sun; after which there remains at the bottom a cake, sometimes half an inch thick, of crude borax, which is taken up for use. It can only be made in winter, because the falls of snow are indispensably requisite, and also because the saline appearances upon the earth are strongest at that time. When once it has been made, it cannot be made again on the same spot, until the snow has fallen and dissolved 3 or 4 times, when the saline efflorescence appears as before. The borax, in this state, is carried from hill to hill upon goats, and passes through many hands, which increases the difficulty of obtaining any authentic information concerning the original manufacture. When brought down from the hills, it is refined from its gross impurities by boiling and crystallization. Mr Blane could obtain no answer, from those who gave him this account, to any of his questions concerning the quality of the water and the mineral productions of the soil. All they could tell him was, that the water was very hot, very foul, and as it were very greasy; that it boils up in many places, and has a very offensive smell; and that the soil is remarkable only for the saline appearances already mentioned. The country in general produces considerable quantities of iron, copper, and sulphur; and Mr Blane was assured that all the borax in India came from this place. With respect to the credibility of the account, he observes, first, "That borax is really brought from the mountains of Thibet is certain, as he himself often had occasion to see large quantities of it brought down, and had purchased it from the Tartar mountaineers, who brought it to market; 2dly, he had never heard of its being produced or brought into India from any other quarter; and, 3dly, if it was made on the coast of Coromandel, he thinks there can be little doubt but that the whole process would have been fully inquired into, and given to the public long before this time." The other account is from father Joseph de Ravato, president of the mission of Thibet, and sent in a letter to the Royal Society, communicated by Joseph Banks, Esq; He pretends also to have had his intelligence from a native of the country, though it differs considerably from that of Mr Blane. "In the province of Marme (says he), 28 days journey N. of Nepal, and 25 to the W. of

Lassa, the capital of Thibet, there is a vale about 8 miles broad. In a part of this vale there are two villages, the inhabitants of which are wholly employed in digging the borax, which they sell into Thibet and Nepal. Near these two villages there is a pool of a moderate size, and some smaller ones, where the ground is hollow and the rain collects. In these pools, after the water has been some time detained in them, the borax is formed naturally: the men wading into the water, feel a kind of pavement under their feet, which is a sure indication that borax is there formed; and there they accordingly dig it. Where there is little water, the layer of borax is thin; where it is deep, it is thicker; and near the latter there is always an inch or two of soft mud, which is probably a deposit of the water after it has been agitated by rain or wind. Thus is the borax produced merely by nature, without either boiling or distillation. The water in which it is formed is so bad, that the drinking a small quantity of it will occasion a swelling of the abdomen, and in a short time death itself. The earth that yields the borax is of a whitish colour; and in the same valley, about 4 miles from the pools, there are mines of salt, which is there dug in great abundance for the use of all the inhabitants of these mountains, who live at a great distance from the sea. Ten days journey farther N. there is another valley named TAPRE, where they dig borax; and another still farther to the northward, named CIOGA. Borax in the Hindoo and Nepalese languages, is called SOAGA. If it be not purified, it will easily deliquesce; and in order to preserve it for any time till they have an opportunity of selling it, the people often mix it with earth and butter. In the territory of Mungdan, 16 days journey N. of Nepal, there are rich mines of arsenic; and in various other places are found mines of sulphur, as also of gold and silver, whose produce is much purer than those of the mines of Pegu." See § V.

(III.) BORAX, CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF. Borax is a peculiar neutral salt formed by the union of a kind of acid with mineral alkali. This acid, from some supposed properties of allaying the heat of fevers, had the name of *sal sedativus*, which it still retains. According to Mr Kirwan, 100 parts of purified borax contain 32 of real boracic acid, 17 of mineral alkali, and about 47 of water; but of this quantity of mineral alkali only about 5 parts are saturated; whence, in many cases, borax acts as an alkali. Bergman informs us, that it requires an equal weight of acid to make the alkaline properties entirely disappear; and Dr Withering, that double the quantity of acid is required for this purpose, both in the tincal and refined borax. See § IV. N. 2 and 3.

(IV.) BORAX, DIFFERENT KINDS OF. Mr Fourcroy informs us, that borax is found, in commerce, in three different states.

1. BORAX, CHINESE, is somewhat pure, and is met with in the form of small plates or masses irregularly crystallized, and of a dirty white. It appears to consist of fragments of prisms, and pyramids, confounded together without any symmetrical arrangement. A white powder is observed on the surface, which is thought to be of an argillaceous nature.

2. BORAX, CRUDE, tincal, or chrysocola, comes from Persia, in greenish masses, of a greasy feel, or in opaque crystals of an olive green, which are six-sided prisms terminated by irregular prisms.—There are two varieties of these crystals, differing in magnitude. This salt is very impure by the addition of foreign matters. Mr Kirwan tells us, that this kind is called *brute borax*, *tincal*, or *chrysocola*, and that it is in the form of large, flat, hexangular, or irregular crystals, of a dull white or greenish colour, greasy to the touch; or in small crystals, as it were cemented together by a rancid yellowish, oily substance, intermixed with much gravel, and other impurities. Mr Engestrom has a suspicion that the tincal is only the residuum of the mother liquor of borax evaporated to dryness, and that the greasiness arises from its being mixed with butter milk, to prevent its efflorescence.

3. BORAX, DUTCH, or purified borax, is in the form of portions of transparent crystals of considerable purity. Pyramids with several facets may be observed among them, the crystallization appearing to have been interrupted. "This form (says Mr Fourcroy) shows to a certainty that the Dutch refine this salt by solution and crystallization."—Mr Kirwan says, that it is purified by solution, filtration, and installation; and the crystals thus obtained are calcined, to free them still farther from greasiness; and then dissolved, filtered and crystallized, a second time. Sometimes more mineral alkali is added, as tincal is said to contain an excess of sedative salt. Mr Fourcroy tells us, that a purified borax, not inferior to the Dutch, but perhaps even of greater purity, is prepared by some chemists at Paris.

(V.) BORAX, DISCOVERIES AND OPINIONS RESPECTING. M. Fourcroy says, that M. La Piazze, an eminent apothecary at Paris, has discovered, that borax is continually formed in the soap-suds and refuse waters of the kitchen, which a person preserves in a kind of ditch; and from which, at the end of a certain time, he obtains true borax in fine crystals. Some authors affirm, that it is produced by art in China. A mixture of grease, clay, and dung, is said to be deposited in a ditch, *stratum super stratum*. This mixture is sprinkled with water, and suffered to remain for some years, at the end of which time it is lixiviated, and affords crude borax by evaporation. Others have alleged, that it is obtained from water, which filters through copper mines. Mr Beaume positively asserts, that the former of these processes succeeded very well with him; but Dr Black gives little credit to his assertions. Borax has been by some supposed to be an artificial production, and perhaps may be artificially made; (See CHEMISTRY, INDEX;) but Mr Hoefer, apothecary to the late Emperor Leopold II. when grand duke of Tuscany, discovered that the waters of several lakes of that country contain it in a state of great purity. It is probable, (says our author) that it may hereafter be found in other mineral waters; and it seems to be produced by the putrefaction of fat substances. Mr Hoefer first discovered this acid in the waters of Lagoon, named *Cerchiolo*, near Monte Rotondo, of which discovery an account was published in 1778. The same was found in a concrete state, in six places, viz. the

lake of *Travale*, 20 miles W. of Sienna; that of *Alvado*, 10 miles farther W.; of *del Saffo*, 3 m. farther; of *Sarazzano*, six m. from Monte Rotondo; of *Castel Nuovo*, 7 m. from Monte Rotondo and 14 from Sienna; and that of *Monte Cerboli*, 4 miles distant from *Castel Nuovo*. In the neighbourhood of all these lakes are considerable springs of hot water rushing out of the earth, some clear, and some muddy; either of a dark, or a whitish colour; and, in some, a kind of metallic crust or pellicle is perceived on the surface of the water. Many cavities from which the waters rush out seem to be true small volcanic craters, and continually emit from the earth vapours of a sulphureous and ammoniacal nature. These waters not only contain the acid of borax, both in the fluid and concrete state, but various other concretions are there observed, such as martial vitriol, ammoniacal, aluminous, concrete boracic salts, brimstone, &c. "It is remarkable, (says our author, p. 363.) that, near 40 years ago, Dr Hill, in his notes on *Theophrastus's Treatise on Stones*, asserted, that borax was a salt made by evaporation of an impure and foul water, of which there were springs in Persia, Muscovy, and Tartary. Mr Beame, at Paris, pretended to have discovered the method of making the sedative salt by a long maceration of grease and earthy substances; but nobody has yet been able to verify this fanciful discovery. The unrefined borax which is brought to Europe under the name of *tincal*, looks like sulphur, is fat, and covers or encrusts the borax crystals. Mr Swab has published some experiments upon this *tincal* in the acts of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm for 1756. He found it in a martial earth, and a fat substance, which, to smell, and other circumstances, comes nearest to a mineral fat; as also, that pure borax does not yield any *beper sulphuris* when united with a phlogiston and a vitriolic acid; from which he concludes, that borax is prepared from its own peculiar mineral substance. Professor Pott and M. Hénouville have very carefully examined the refined borax; and from their experiments, which have been published, it is evident, that it is of a mineral nature. However, there remains to be known, for certain, from whence it is prepared by the Indians: for if it is produced from a mineral substance, as is very probable, there must exist other mixtures and compositions as yet unknown to the learned world. I have also found the *tincal* small bits of leather, bones, and small pebbles, whence there is no certainty to be concluded on from its examination; but if it should happen that it is prepared from animal substances, must be allowed, that nature has formed an alkaline salt in the animal kingdom analogous to the *salibile microcosmicum*."

VI. BORAX, USES OF. Borax serves as a flux to vitrifiable earths, with which it forms a good glass, and is employed in making artificial gems. It refines clay, but much less completely than various earths; and from this property it adheres to the insides of crucibles, and glazes them. The use of borax, (§ III.) as well as the borax in substance, is made use of to fuse vitrifiable earths, with which it forms clear and nearly colourless glass: by the assistance of heat it dissolves the

earth precipitated from the liquor of flints. It unites with ponderous earth, magnesia, lime, and alkalis, and forms, with different substances, salts distinguished by one general name of borax, tho' only that formed by the combination of sedative salt and mineral alkali is used in the arts. It is used in many other chemical operations as a flux, besides that of glass-making; and the dyers also use it for giving a gloss to silks. In medicine it has been given as a narcotic, and was formerly an ingredient in a powder for promoting delivery, but is now disused.

BORBEREK, a town of Transylvania, in the county of Wessenburg, seated on the river Maros. It has a castle seated on a high rock, and fortified with towers.

BORBETOMAGUS, in ancient geography, a city of the Vangiones on the Rhine; now called WORMS.

BORBONIA, in botany, a genus of the decandria order, belonging to the diadelphia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 32d order, *Caryophyllea*. The stigma is emarginated: the calyx has pointed spines; and the legumen is pointed. There are six species, all natives of warm countries. They are a kind of broom; and rise to the height of 10 or 12 feet, but in Europe seldom above 4 or 5. They must be kept constantly in the stove, and may be propagated by shoots; but as these are generally two years before they put forth roots, the best method is by seeds, which much be procured from their native places.

BORBONIA ASTRA, a denomination formerly given by some French writers to the solar spots, on a supposition that they were secondary planets.

BORBORIANI, } in church history, a sect of
BORBORITES, } gnostics, in the 2d century, who, besides embracing the errors of these heretics, denied the last judgment. Their name comes from *Borboros*, filth; on account of a custom they had of daubing their faces and bodies with dirt.

BORBORYGMUS, [*Borborismus*, Gr.] a rumbling or croaking of the intestines.

BORBOTHA, in ichthyology, a name given by some authors to the *MUSTELA FLUVIATILIS*, or eel-pout.

BORCH, a town of Lower Saxony, 14 m. N. E. of Magdeburgh, seated on the Elbe. Lon. 12. 24. E. Lat. 52. 25. N.

BORCHLOEN, or LOOTS, a town in the cede-vant bishopric of Liege, now included in one of the new departments lately annexed to the French republic. It is 13 m. N. W. of Leige. Lon. 5. 28. E. Lat. 50. 50. N.

BORCOVIUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Ottadini in Britain, now called Berwick. See BERWICK, No. 2.

(I.) BORD, *n. f. sbf.* a cottage. *Spens.* See ABOARD.

(II.) BORD, *n. f. sbf.* a table, or board. *Chauc.*

(III.) BORD, in law, is variously applied: *e. g.*
1. BORD HALFPENNY, a small toll by custom paid to the lord of the town for setting up boards, tables, booths, &c. in fairs or markets.

2. BORD LANDS, the demesnes which lords anciently kept in their hands for the maintenance of their board or table.

3. **BORD LODGE**, i. a service required of tenants, to carry timber out of the woods of the lord to his house: 2. the quantity of provision which the **BORDARII**, or bordmen, paid for their bord lands.

4. **BORD MAN**, a tenant on bord lands.

5. **BORD SERVICE**, the tenure of bord lands, by which some lands in certain places are held of the bishop of London, and the tenants now pay 6d. per acre, in lieu of sending provision as formerly for their lord's table.

To **BORD**, *v. a. obs.* To approach. *Spenser.*

BORDA, [old law Lat.] a board, or plank.

BORDAGE, or } the condition of the bor-
BORDAGIUM, } *darii.*

BORDARIA, in old records, a cottage.

BORDARII, often mentioned in the Domesday inquisition, were distinct from the **SERVI** and **VILLANI**, and seem to be those of a less servile condition, who had a bord or cottage, with a small parcel of land, allowed to them, on condition they should supply the lord with poultry and eggs, and other small provisions for his board and entertainment. Though, according to Spelman, the *bordarii* were inferior to the *villani*, as being limited to a small number of acres.

BORDAT, in commerce, a small narrow stuff, manufactured in some parts of Egypt, particularly in Cairo, Alexandria, and Damietta.

BORD-CLOTH, *n. f. obs.* a table-cloth. *Chauc.*

(1.) **BORDE**, Andrew, M. D. was born at Pevensey in Suffex, early in the 16th century. In his *Introduction to Knowledge*, he says, that he was a student of Oxford. He entered a brother of a Carthusian convent in or near London; but, not liking their discipline, he returned to Oxford, and applied to physic. Some time after, he embarked for the continent; and, as he expresses it, "travelled through and round about Christendom, and out of Christendom into some parts of Africa." In 1541 and 1542, he resided at Montpelier, where he was made M. D. and after his return to England received the same degree at Oxford. From his preface it appears that he had also been in Scotland. Having satisfied his inclination for travelling, he settled first at Pevensey, afterwards at Winchester, and finally in London, where he became first physician to Henry VIII; notwithstanding which, he had the misfortune to end his life in the Fleet prison, in 1549. Wood says, "he was esteemed a noted poet, a witty and ingenious person, and an excellent physician." Pitts calls him a man of sufficient learning, but too volatile. His writings are, 1. A book of the introduction of knowledge, the which doth teach a man to speak part of all manner of languages, &c. Lond. 1542, 4to; dedicated, from Montpelier, to the lady Mary, daughter of Henry VIII. It is written partly in verse, and partly in prose. 2. The breviary of health. Lond. 1547, 4to. 3. Dietary of health, Lond. 1576, 8vo. 4. The merry tales of the madmen of Gotham: Printed, says Wood, in the time of Henry VIII. in whose reign, and after, it was accounted a book full of wit and mirth, by scholars and gentlemen. It is now sold only on the stalls of ballad-sellers. 5. A right leafant and merry history of the mylner of Abington, with his wife and his fair daughter, and of 10 poor scholars of Cambridge. Lond. 4to.

6. A book of every region, country, and province, &c. published by Hearne at end of *Benedictus abbas Peterb. de vita Henrici II.* Oxf. 1735, 8vo.

7. The principles of astronomy. Lond. 12mo. The author says, that he wrote this little book in 4 days, with one old pen without mending.

(2.) **BO:DE**, *n. f. obs.* A jest. *Chauc.*

To **BORDE**, *v. n. obs.* To jest. *Chauc.*

BORDEKIN. See **BOOR**, § 4.

* **BORDEL**. } [*bordeel*, Teut. *bordel*, Armo-

* **BORDELLO**. } rick.] A brothel; a bawdy-house.—

From the *Bordello* it might come as well,

The spital, or pichatch. *Ben Jonson.*

—Making even his own house a stew, a *bordel*, and a school of lewdness, to instil vice into the unwary ears of his poor children. *South.*

BORDEN, two villages; 1. in Cornwall, near Devonshire: 2. in Kent, near Milton.

BORDENTOWN, a thriving town of the United States in Burlington County, New Jersey; seated on the E. side of the Delaware, 26 miles above Philadelphia, and 4 S. E. by S. of Trenton. It consists of about 100 houses, a grammar school, and 2 churches for Baptists and Quakers. As it stands on a rising ground, about 70 feet perpendicular above the Delaware, between two creeks which run into that river, it is extremely healthy. Lon. 29. 0. E. Lat. 40. 12. N.

(1.) * **BORDER**. *n. f.* [*bord*, Germ. *berd*, Fr.

1. The outer part or edge of any thing.—They have looking-glasses, bordered with broad borders of crystal, and great counterfeit precious stones. *Bacon.*—The light must strike on the middle, and extend its greatest clearness on the principal figures; diminishing by degrees, as it comes nearer and nearer to the borders. *Dryden.* 2. The margin or edge of a country; the confine.—If a prince keep his residence on the border of his dominions, the remote parts will rebel; but if he make the centre his seat, he shall easily keep them in obedience. *Spenser.* 3. The outer part of a garment generally adorned with needle-work, or ornaments. 4. A bank raised round a garden, and set with flowers; a narrow rank of herbs or flowers.—

There he arriving, round about doth fly

From bed to bed, from one to other border;

And takes survey, with curious busy eye

Of every flower and herb there set in order.

Spenser.

All with a border of rich fruit-trees crown'd
Whose loaded branches hide the lofty mound
Such various ways the spacious alleys lead,
My doubtful muse knows not what path to tread.

Waller.

(2.) **BORDERS**, among florists, the leaves which stand around the middle thrum of a flower.

(3.) **BORDERS**, in gardening, are made to inclose parterres, that they may not be injured by walling in them. Borders are made either circular, straight, or in cants; and are turned into knots, scrolls, volutes, and other compartments. They are rendered very ornamental by the flower shrubs, yews, &c. that are raised in them. They are always laid with a sharp rising in the middle to render them more agreeable to the eye: the largest are allowed 5 or 6 feet, and the smallest commonly 4.

(1.) * 2

(1.) * *To BORDER. v. a.* 1. To adorn with a border of ornaments. 2. To reach; to touch; to confine upon; to be contiguous to.—Sheba and Ramah are those parts of Arabia, which *border* the sea called the Persian gulf. *Raleigh.*

(2.) * *To BORDER. v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To confine upon; to touch something else at the side or edge: with *upon*.—It *bordereth upon* the province of Croatia, which, in time past, had continual wars with the Turks garrisons. *Knolles.*—Virtue and honour had their temples *bordering on* each other, and are sometimes both on the same *even*. *Addison.* 2. To approach nearly to.—All wit, which *borders upon* profaneness, and makes bad with those things to which the greatest reverence is due, deserves to be branded with folly. *T. Arden.*

* *BORDERER. n. f.* [from *border*.] He that dwells on the borders, extreme parts, or confines; he that dwells next to any place.—

They of those marches, gracious sovereign!
Shall be a wall sufficient to defend
Our inland from the pülsering *borderers*. *Shakespeare.*
—An ordinary horse will carry two sacks of sand; and, of such, the *borderers* on the sea do bestow fifty at least in every acre; but most husbands double that number. *Carew.*—

The easiest to be drawn
To our society, and to aid the war;
The rather for their seat, being next *bord'ers*
On Italy; and that they abound with horse.
Ben Jonson.

—The king of Scots in person, with Perkin in his company, entered with a great army, though it chiefly consisted of *borderers*, being raised somewhat suddenly. *Bacon.*—

Volga's Stream

Sends opposite, in shaggy armour clad,
Her *borderers*; on mutual slaughter bent,
They rend their countries. *Philips.*

BORDESLEY, two English villages; viz. 1. in Warwickshire, near Aston: 2. in Worcestershire, near Hewel-Grange.

BORD-FREE, adj. not liable to pay the *Bord* halfpenny. See *BORD*, § III. N° 1.

BORDILLER, n. f. obs. A frequenter of brothels. *Chaucer.*

BORDLEY, a village in Yorkshire, E. of Settle.

BORDOE, one of the *FARO* islands. It has a fine harbour called *KLACK*.

BORDONE. See *BORDUNI*.

* *To BORDRAGE. v. n.* [from *border*.] To plunder the borders. Not in use.—

Long time in peace his realm established,
Yet oft annoy'd with sundry *bordragings*
Of neighbour Scots, and foreign scatterlings.
Spenser.

BORDRAGING, n. f. obs. The act of plundering on the borders of a country. *Ash.*

BORDUNI, or *BORDONE*, Paris, an excellent Italian painter, born at Venice about 1512. He was the disciple of Titian; but has been admired more for the delicacy of his pencil, than for the truth of his outlines. He was at the court of France in the reign of Francis I. who had a great esteem for him, and for whom he drew not only abundance of history pieces, but the portraits of several court ladies, in so fine a manner, that ori-

VOL. IV. PART L

ginal nature was hardly more charming. He at length returned to Venice, laden with riches and honour; and died in 1587, aged 75.

BORDURE. See *HERALDRY*.

(1.) *BORE*, Catharine DE, wife of LUTHER, the celebrated reformer, was the daughter of a private gentleman, and was born about A. D. 1499. Having been early immured in the monastery of Nimptschen, she left it along with other 8 nuns in 1523, during the bustle of the *holy week*, and was married to Luther in 1526. On these accounts the Catholic writers raised many calumnies against her, from which Mr Bayle has very completely vindicated her; and points out numberless mistakes of Varillas and others concerning her. He gives her an excellent character, and mentions, that Luther was so satisfied with his choice, that he said, "he would not change his condition for the wealth of Cræsus." She bore him 5 children, and survived him a few years. She died at Torgau in 1552, aged 53.

(2.) * *BORE. n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. The hole made by boring.—

Into hollow engines long and round,
Thick ram'd, at th' other *bore* with touch of fire

Dilated, and infuriate. *Milton.*

2. The instrument with which a hole is bored.—So shall that hole be fit for the file, or square *bore*. *Moxon.* 3. The size of any hole; the cavity; the hollow.—We took a cylindrical pipe of glass, whose *bore* was about a quarter of an inch in diameter. *Boyle.*—

Our careful monarch stands in person by,
This new-cast cannon's firmness to explore;
The strength of big-corn'd powder loves to try,
And ball and cartridge sorts for every *bore*.
Dryden.

—It will best appear in the *bores* of wind instruments; therefore cause pipes to be made with a single, double, and so on, to a sextuple *bore*; and mark what tone every one giveth. *Bacon.*

(3.) * *BORE.* The *preterite* of *bear*.—

The father *bore* it with undaunted soul,
Like one who durst his destiny controul;
Yet with becoming grief he *bore* his part;
Resign'd his son, but not resign'd his heart.
Dryden.

'Twas my fate

To kill my father, and pollute his bed,
By marrying her who *bore* me. *Dryden.*

(4) *BORE OF A GUN, OR CANNON*, denotes the diameter of it, or rather its whole cavity.

(5.) *BORE, SQUARE*, in smithery, a square steel point, or shank well tempered, fitted in a square socket in an iron wimble, serving to widen holes, and make them round and smooth within.

(1.) * *To BORE. v. a.* [*borian*, Sax.] 1. To pierce in a hole.—

I'll believe as soon,

This whole earth may be *bor'd*; and that the moon

May through the centre creep. *Shakespeare.*

—Mulberries will be fairer, if you *bore* the trunk of the tree through, and thrust, into the places *bored*, wedges of some hot trees. *Bacon.*

But Capys, and the graver sort, thought fit
The Greeks suspected present to commit

Y

To

To seas or flames; at least, to search and bore
The sides, and what that space contains t' explore.
Denham.

2. To hollow.—Take the barrel of a long gun, perfectly bored, and set it upright, and take a bullet exactly fit for it; and then if you suck at the mouth of the barrel never so gently, the bullet will come up so forcibly, that it will hazard the striking out your teeth. *Digby.* 3. To make by piercing.—These diminutive caterpillars are able, by degrees, to pierce or bore their way into a tree, with very small holes; which, after they are fully entered, grow together. *Ray.* 4. To pierce, to break through.—

Consider, reader, what fatigues I've known,
What riots seen, what bustling crouds I bor'd,
How oft I cross'd where carts and coaches roar'd.

Gay.

(2.) * To BORE. *v. n.* 1. To make a hole.—A man may make an instrument to bore a hole an inch wide, or half an inch, not to bore a hole of a foot. *Wilkins.* 2. To push forwards toward a certain point.—

Those milk paps,
That thro' the window bars bore at men's eyes,
Are not within the leaf of pity writ. *Shakesp.*

Nor southward to the raining regions run;
But boring to the west, and hov'ring there,
With gaping mouth's they draw prolifick air.

Dryden.

(3.) * To BORE. *v. n.* [with farriers.] Is when a horse carries his nose near the ground. *Diſt.*

BOREA, an ancient name for a species of jasper, of a bluish green colour.

* BOREAL. *adj.* [*borealis*, Lat.] Northern; septentrional.—

Crete's ample fields diminish to our eye;
Before the boreal blasts the vessels fly. *Pope.*

BOREALIS, AURORA. See AURORA, N° II. § 2—6.

(1.) * BOREAS. *n. f.* [Lat.] The north wind.

Boreas, and Cæcas, and Argestas loud,
And Thrascias, rend the woods, and seas upturn.

Milton.

(2.) BOREAS is derived by Chambers from the Greek, *βόρρα*, food, because the north wind creates an appetite. Pezron observes, that anciently Boreas signified the north-east wind blowing at the time of the summer solstice.

(3.) BOREAS, in the ancient mythology, is represented as the son of the giant Astræus, by the goddess Aurora, and to have reigned in Thrace, because Thrace lay N. of Greece. Notwithstanding the coldness of his blasts, he is said to have been very warm in his love; and to have ravished Orithya the daughter of Erectheus, king of Athens, who bore him ZETES and CALAIS, two of the Argonauts, and 6 daughters. He is also said to have carried off Chloris the daughter of Arcturus, and to have dashed Pitys, another of his mistresses, against a rock in a fit of jealousy, because she preferred the god Pan: Mr Bayle has a long article full of learned and humorous remarks upon his amours. The Greeks paid divine honours to Boreas. The Megalopolitans honoured him as their chief deity; and the Athenians, considering him as their ally, by his marriage with their ancient king's daughter, implored his

aid in their wars with the Persians. He is represented on the temple at Athens with his robe before his mouth, as if he felt the cold of the climate over which he presides; agreeably to which, Ovid calls him *gelidus tyrannus*, the shivering tyrant. But he is usually described by the Roman poets as violent and impetuous. In painting, he is represented as an old man with a horrible look, his hair and beard covered with snow or hoar-frost, with the feet and tail of a dragon. M. Spierlingius has a treatise in praise of Boreas, wherein he shows the honours paid to him by antiquity. Boreas, he says, purifies the air, renders it calm and salubrious, preserves buildings from decay, drives away the plague and other noxious diseases, and expels locusts and other vermin hurtful to the grounds.

BOREASMI, feasts instituted at Athens in honour of Boreas.

BOREATTON, two villages in Shropshire: 1. between Brown-clee hill, and the river Rea: 2. six miles N. W. of Shrewsbury.

BORECH, a kind of salt brought from Persia.

BORECOLE, a species, or rather variety, of cabbage. See BRASSICA.

* BOREE. *n. f.* A kind of dance.—

Dick could neatly dance a jig,

But Tom was best at borees.

Swift.

BOREHAM, the name of three English villages:

1. in Essex, near Chelmsford, famous for a stately ancient fabric, once the most magnificent in the county, now in ruins: 2. in Suffex, near Ashburnham: 3. in Wiltshire, near Warminster.

BOREHILL, in Surry, near Homesbury hill.

BOREL, Peter, M. D. was the son of James Borel who published several poems, and was born at Castres in 1620. He applied himself to the study of physic, and practised with great success in the city of Castres. Towards the end of 1653, he went to Paris, and was soon after made king's physician. In 1674, he was received into the academy of sciences, and distinguished himself by writing a great number of works. The most esteemed are, 1. *Historiarum & observationum medico-physicarum.* 2. *Bibliotheca chymica*, 12mo. 3. *De vero telescopii inventore, cum brevi omnium conspicillorum historia.* He died in 1678.

BORELAND. See BORLAND, N° 1, & 2.

BORELL, *adj. obs.* Ignorant; rude. *Chanc.*

BORELLI, John Alphonso, a famous philosopher and mathematician born at Naples in 1628. He was professor of philosophy and mathematics at Florence and Pisa, where he became highly in favour with the princes of the house of Medici, but having been engaged in the revolt of Messina, he was obliged to retire to Rome, where he spent the remainder of his life, under the protection of Christiana queen of Sweden, who by her liberality softened the rigour of his fortune. He continued two years in the convent of the regular clergy of St Pantaleon, called the *Pious Schools*, where he instructed the youth in mathematics. He died there of a pleurisy, in 1679, aged 72. He wrote in Latin, 1. Euclid restored. 2. The theory of the influence of the planets in medicine, deduced from physical causes. 3. Of percussive forces. 4. Of natural motions depending upon gravity. 5. An historical and meteorological account of the

burning of mount *Ætna*, in 1669. 6. Of the motion of animals; and several other works, some of which are in Italian.

BORELY, a village in Essex, near Suffolk.

BOREPLACE, in Kent, 5 miles W. of Tunbridge.

*** BORER**. *n. s.* [from *bore*.] A piercer; an instrument to make holes with.—The master-bricklayer must try all the foundations, with a *borer*, such as well-diggers use, to try the ground. *Moxon*.

BORESWORTH-HUSBAND, a village in Leicestershire near Northampton.

BORG. See **BORGUE**.

BORGARUTIUS, Prosper, an eminent Italian physician of the 16th century, and professor of anatomy at Padua. He published several works, particularly a treatise on anatomy, first in Italian and afterwards in Latin. He went to France in 1540, and was made king's physician to Charles IX. Having met with a M. S. copy of Vesalius's *Cibergia Magna*, at Paris, he revised and published it at Venice, in 1569, in 8vo.

BORG-BREGE. See **BORGI FRACTURA**.

BORGE, or } [Sax.] A pledge of security for
BORGHA, } another's keeping the peace, and conforming to the laws.

BORGHEIM, a town of Germany, in the electorate of Cologne, situated near the E. bank of the Rhine, between Duffeldorf and Nuys, in the territory which was over-run by the French republican army in 1794, and 1796.

BORGHETTO, a town of Italy, in the Veronese, near which Buonaparte obtained a victory over the Austrians, in June 1796.

(1.) **BORGIA**, Cardinal, was elected Pope in 1502, having obtained the chair of *infallibility* by bribery, and took the name of **ALEXANDER VI**. During his cardinalship, he had, by his mistress *Eurozza*, 4 sons and a daughter, who was named *Lucrezia*, but proved extremely unworthy of the name; for she had the monstrous depravity of not only committing incest with two of her brothers, but even of consenting to the brutality of her father; who, in a fit of jealousy, killed one of his sons, whom she preferred to him. His favourite son, Francis, the only good character in the family, was murdered by his brother *Cæsar*. The avarice of this monster was as unbounded as his lust, and he fell a deserved sacrifice to it at last: see N° 1. *Alfredus* has the following epitaph upon him:

*Vendit Alexander sacramenta, altaria, Christum;
Emerat ille prius; vendere jure potest.*

(2.) **BORGIA**, *Cæsar*, natural son of pope *Alexander IV*. was a brave general, but a most abandoned villain: see **ITALY**, HISTORY OF. It is incredible what numbers he caused to be taken off by poison, or by the sword. Swarms of assassins were constantly kept in pay by him at Rome, for removing all who were obnoxious or inconvenient to him. He experienced various turns of fortune, being sometimes very prosperous, sometimes the reverse. He narrowly escaped dying by poison in 1503; for having concerted with his father a design of poisoning nine newly created cardinals at once, for the sake of possessing their effects, the poisoned wine, destined for the purpose, was by

mistake brought to and drank by themselves. The pope died of it; but *Cæsar*, by the vigour of his youth, and the force of antidotes, after many struggles, recovered. He only recovered to outlive his fortune and grandeur, to see himself depressed, and his enemies exalted; for he was soon after divested of all his acquisitions, and sent a prisoner to Spain, in order to free Italy from an incendiary, and the Italian princes from those dangers, which the turbulent spirit of *Cæsar* made them fear, even though he was unarmed. He escaped, however, and got safe to Navarre, to king John his brother-in-law, who was then at war with his subjects. *Cæsar* served as a volunteer, and was killed in 1507. Machiavel, in his celebrated book, entitled *The Prince*, proposes this villain as a pattern to all princes, who would act the part of wise and politic tyrants.

(3.) **BORGIA**, *Lucretia*, the daughter of *Alexander* (N° 1.) and sister of *Cæsar* (N° 2.) and the infamous mistress of both. See N° 1.

BORGIE, a river of Scotland in the county of Sutherland. It produces salmon.

BORGI FRACTURA, **BORG-BREGE**, or **BORGH-BREACH**, in ancient law writers, denotes a breaking of the pledge or security given by the members of tithings for the behaviour of each other.

(1.) **BORG**O, an ancient town of Sweden, seated on the gulf of Finland, in the province of Nyland. Lon. 25. 40. E. Lat. 60. 34. N.

(2.) **BORG**O DI SAN DOMINO, a town of Italy, in the duchy of Parma, with a bishop's see. Lon. 10. 6. E. Lat. 44. 58. N.

(3.) **BORG**O DI SAN SEPULCHRO, a town of Italy, in Urbino, on the borders of Tuscany, subject to the Grand Duke. It is seated near the source of the Tiber, 50 miles E. of Florence. On the 30th Sept. 1789, this town was much damaged by an earthquake, which destroyed many houses and palaces, with part of the cathedral, and some churches, and a village 5 miles distant. Above 1000 persons perished. Mr Creech mentions, that a shock of this earthquake was felt on the same day, at Parson's Green, on the N. side of Arthur's Seat, within a mile of Edinburgh. (*Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* IV. 626.) Lon. 12. 7. E. Lat. 43. 30. N.

(4.) **BORG**O DI VAL DI TARO, a town of Italy, in Parma, seated on the Taro, 20 miles S. W. of Parma. Lon. 10. 36. E. Lat. 44. 15. N.

(5.) **BORG**O-FORTE, a town of Mantua in Italy, situated at the confluence of the rivers Po and Menzo; 8 miles S. of Mantua. Lon. 11. 0. E. Lat. 44. 50. N.

BORGOGNONE, a celebrated painter, whose true name was *Giacomo Cortesi*; but he is commonly called *Borgognone*, from the country where he was born, about 1605. He was much admired for his grand manner of painting battles. He had for several years been conversant in military affairs, was an officer of considerable rank in the army, made the camp his school, and formed all his ideas from what he had seen performed in the field. His style is roughly noble, full of fire and spirit, and there are a few prints etched by his own hand. Towards the close of his life he retired to the Jesuits convent in Rome, where he is

said to have taken sanctuary to get rid of a bad wife; but happily surviving her, he lived in great esteem and honour till 1675.

BORGUE, or **BORG**, [from *burg*, Gael. a little hill,] a parish of Scotland, on the S. coast of Kircudbrightshire, united, in 1670, to those of **SENWICK** and **KIRK-ANDREWS**. It is 10 m. long, and 7 broad, and contains about 40 square miles. The coast is elevated and rocky, the cliffs rising in some parts 300 feet perpendicular. Being exposed to the S. and W. winds, the sea often rolls in with such prodigious force, that the spray is carried to the distance of two miles. Samphire grows among the rocks, and cod, skate, flounders, lobsters, oysters, &c. are caught. The surface is very unequal, and the soil, a fine loam, very fertile in wet seasons, but easily injured in dry. The chief crops are oats and barley. The climate is healthy, neither the cold nor the heat being ever intense. The population in 1793, as stated by the rev. Mr Smith, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 771, and had increased 74, within 40 years preceding. The number of horses was then 270; of sheep of various breeds, 1129; and of black cattle, 2958. As the parish lies in one of the finest grazing countries in Scotland, the farmers are famed for their skill in rearing cattle. It is also noted for excellent honey. The rents of land have been more than quadrupled, yet the farmers are opulent and independent.

BORHEEN, a town of Ireland in Limerick.

BORIA, a small town of Spain, in Arragon, at the foot of a hill, 35 m. N. W. of Saragossa. Lon. 2. 10. W. Lat. 41. 50. N.

(1.) **BORING**, in farriery, a cruel and absurd method of treating a wrenched shoulder. See **FARRIFRY**.

(2.) **BORING**, in mineralogy, a method of piercing the earth with scooping irons, which being drawn back at proper times, bring up with them samples of the different strata through which they have passed; by the examination of which the skilful mineralogist will be able to guess whereabouts a vein of ore may lie, or whether it will be worth while to open a mine.

(3.) **BORING OF WATER PIPES** is thus performed. The poles of alder, which is a very useful wood in making pumps, water-pipes, &c. being laid on horses or trassels of a foot high, to rest the augre upon while they are boring, a lath is set up to turn the smallest end of the poles, to fit them to the cavities of the great ends of the others. The small ends are turned about 5 or 6 inches in length, to the size intended to bore the bigger ends about the same depth. This is designed to make a joint to shut each pair of poles the concave part being called the female part, and the other the male of the joint. A channel or small groove at a certain distance from the end is turned in the male part; and in the female a small hole is bored to fit over this channel. The poles are then bored through, and to prevent boring out at the side, great nails are stuck at each end to be a guide in boring. It is usual, however, to bore them at both ends; so that if a pole be crooked one way, it can be bored through and not spoiled.

BORIQUEN, one of the Caribbee islands, in

N. America, 5 m. S. W. of Porto Pico. The English formerly had a settlement there, but were driven away by the Spaniards. It is without inhabitants, though agreeable and fertile; the air being wholesome, and the water good. Land crabs are numerous in it, whence some call it **CRAB-ISLAND**. Lon. 66. 0. W. Lat. 18. 0. N.

BORISTHENES, in ancient geography, the largest river of Sarmatia Europea, thus described by Mela, and Herodotus: "It is the most pleasant of all the rivers of Scythia, calmer than all of them in its course, and very agreeable to drink: it feeds very rich pastures, and produces large fish of the best flavour, and without bones it comes a great way, rising from springs unknown; its course is a distance of 40 days, and so far it is navigable." It is now called the **DNIÉPER** or **NIÉPER**.

BORITH, in botany, an herb thought to be the **KALI** or saltwort. In Jer. ii. 22. it is translated "nitre."

BORIVON, the ancient name of **CALDER**.

BORKEI, a river in Guelderland.

BORKELO, a strong town of Guelderland, in the county of Zutphen, seated on the Borkel. Lon. 6. 30. E. Lat. 52. 15. N.

BORLACE, Dr. See **BORLASE**, N. 1.

BORLIAN, a lake in Sutherlandshire.

(1.) **BORLAND**, a mountain in Lanarkshire.

(2.) **BORLAND**, a village of Fife, in the parish of Dysart. It was begun in 1756, and contained 196 inhabitants, in 1793.

(1.) **BORLASE**, Edmund, M. D. an eminent English writer in the 17th century, was the son of Sir John Borlase, one of the Lords Justices of Ireland, in 1643. He studied in Dublin college, and afterwards at Leyden, where he took his degree of M. D. He afterwards practised physic with great success in Chester. He wrote, 1. *Latham Spaw in Lancashire*, with some remarkable cases and cures performed by it. 2. *The reduction of Ireland to the crown of England*. 3. *The history of the Irish rebellion*. 4. *Brief Reflections on the earl of Castlehaven's memoirs*, &c. He died after 1682.

(2.) **BORLASE**, William, a very learned antiquarian, of an ancient family in Cornwall, was born at Pender, in 1695-6. He studied at Oxford, and, in 1719, took his degree of M. A. In 1720 he was ordained a priest; and in 1722, made rector of Ludgvan in Cornwall. In 1732, the lord chancellor King presented him to the vicarage of St Just, his native parish. Finding that the copper works of Ludgvan abounded with mineral and metallic fossils, he collected them from time to time, and thence was led to study at large the natural history of his native country. Being struck with the numerous monuments of antiquity that are to be met with in Cornwall, he determined to gain as accurate an acquaintance as possible with the Druid learning, and with the religion and customs of the ancient Britons, before their conversion to Christianity. In 1750 he was admitted F. R. S. and, in 1753, published in folio at Oxford his *Antiquities of Cornwall*; a 2d edition of which was published at London, in 1760, entitled "Antiquities historical and monumental of the county of Cornwall; consisting of several essays."

effays on the ancient inhabitants, Druid superstition, customs and remains of the most remote antiquity in Britain, and the British isles; exemplified and proved by monuments now extant in Cornwall and the Scilly islands; with a vocabulary of the Cornu-British language." His next publication was, "Observations on the ancient and present state of the islands of Scilly, and their importance to the trade of Great Britain; Oxf. 1756," 4to. In 1758 came out his "Natural history of Cornwall; Oxf." fol. He sent a variety of fossils and remains of antiquity, to be deposited in the Ashmolean museum: for which he received the thanks of the university, in 1758; and in March 1766, the degree of LL. D. He married in 1724, and died in 1773, aged 77, leaving two sons. Among his literary connections, he had a particular correspondence with Mr Pope; and there is still existing a large collection of letters written by that poet to Dr Borlase. He furnished Pope with many of the fossils which adorned his grotto at Twickenham; where his name in capitals, composed of chrystals, may still be seen. On receipt Pope wrote him, "I am much obliged to you for your valuable collection of Cornish diamonds: I have placed them, where they may best represent *yourself, in a shade, but shining;*" alluding to the obscurity of the doctor's situation, and the brilliancy of his talents.

BORLEY, or LOCH-BORLEY, a lake in the parish of Durness in Sutherlandshire.

BORLUM, a hill in Inverness-shire, on which there are quantities of vitrified matter, whereon no plant will vegetate.

BORMER, a village in Sussex, W. of Lewes.

(1.) BORMIO, a territory belonging to the republic of the Grisons in Switzerland. It is bounded on the S. by the territory of Venice, on the E. by Austria, and on the N. and W. by Caddeä. It is 15 miles over both ways; and is divided into 3 communities, viz. the town (N. 2.) the valley of Verbä, the Interior Valley, the Lower Valley, and the Valley of Luvino.

(2.) BORMIO, the only town in the above district (N. 1.) has a governor called a *podesta*, sent by the Grisons to preside in civil and criminal affairs. It is seated at the confluence of the Addo and the Islacua. Lon. 10. 10. E. Lat. 46. 45. N.

* BORN. The *participle passive* of *bear*.—Their charge was always *born* by the queen, and they paid out of the exchequer. *Bacon*.—The great men were enabled to oppress their inferiours; and their followers were *born* out and countenanced in wicked actions. *Davies*.—Upon some occasions, Clodius may be bold and insolent, *born* away by his passion. *Swift*.

To BORN, v. a. *Obs.* to burnish.

* To be BORN. v. n. *pass.* [derived from the word *To bear*, in the sense of *bringing forth*; as, *My mother bore me 20 years ago*; or, *I was born 20 years ago.*] 1. To come into life.—

When we are *born*, we cry, that we are come To this great stage of fools. *Shakesp.*

The new *born* babe by nurses overlaid. *Dryd.*

Nor nature's law with fruitless sorrow mourn, But die, O mortal man! for thou wast *born*. *Prior.*

—All that are *born* into the world, are surrounded with *bodies*, that perpetually and diversly affect

them. *Locke*. 2. It is usually spoken with regard to circumstances; as, he was *born* a prince; he was *born* to empire; he was *born* for greatness; that is, formed at the birth.—The stranger that dwelleth with you, shall be unto you as one *born* among you, and thou shalt love him as thyself. *Leviticus*, xix. 34.—Yet man is *born* unto trouble, as the sparks fly upward. *Job*.—A friend loveth at all times, and a brother is *born* for adversity. *Proverbs*.—

Either of you knights may well deserve
A princess *born*; and such is she you serve.

Dryden.

Two rising crests his royal head adorn;
Born from a god, himself to godhead *born*. *Dryd.*

Both must alike from heav'n derive their light;
These *born* to judge, as well as those to write.

Pope.

For all mankind alike acquire their grace;

All *born* to want; a miserable race! *Pope.*

—I was *born* to a good estate though it now turneth to little account. *Swift*.—Their lands are let to lords, who, never designed to be tenants, naturally murmur at the payment of rents, as a subserviency they were not *born* to. *Swift*. 3. It has usually the particle *of* before the mother.—

Be bloody, bold, and resolute, laugh to scorn

The pow'r of man; for none *of* woman *born*

Shall harm Macbeth.

Shakesp.

—I being *born of* my father's first wife, and she *of* his third, she converses with me rather like a daughter than a sister. *Tatler*.

(1.) BORNE, a market town of Lincolnshire. Lon. 0. 20. W. Lat. 52. 40. N.

(2.) BORNE, a river in Staffordshire, which runs into the Tame.

(3.) BORNE, or BOURNE, *n. f.* [*bornes*, Fr.] a limit or boundary.

(4.) BORNE, *part. pass.* an erroneous, or rather obsolete spelling, of late attempted to be re-introduced by some modern writers. See BORN.

BORNE-END, a village in Bedfordshire, near Woburn.

(1.) BORNEO, an island of Asia, in the Indian ocean, one of the 3 great Sunda islands. It is thought to be the largest island in the world, next to New Holland; being 1800 miles in circumference. It is seated under the equator, which nearly divides it. It is almost of a circular figure; abounds with gold, and the finest diamonds in the Indies are found in its rivers, being probably washed down from the hills by torrents. It has also mines of iron, tin, and loadstones; and produces cassia, camphire, frankincense, musk, aloes, agaric, sapan, pepper, cinnamon, honey, wax, rice, and a variety of fruits and gums. Birds-nests are to be had in it, which are eatable, and reckoned a great delicacy. See BIRDS-NESTS, § 4. It abounds with horses, oxen, buffaloes, deer, goats, elephants, bears, tigers, and monkeys; and has fine rivers, especially to the W. and S. In their monsoon from April to September, the wind is westerly; and the rains are constant and heavy, attended with violent storms of thunder and lightning. The rainy season continues for 8 months, and as, during that time, all the flat country near the coast is overwhelmed, the air is rendered very unhealthy. The inhabitants build their houses

sets on floats, which they make fast to trees. The houses have but one floor, with partitions made with canes; and the roofs are covered with palmetto leaves, the caves of which reach within 4 or 5 feet of the bottom. Some of their houses are built upon pillars, a sufficient height from the surface, not to be deluged. The W. and N. E. sides of the island are almost desert, and the E. is but little known. The inland parts are very mountainous; and the S. E. for many leagues together, is marshy and unhealthy. The Portuguese, who first discovered Borneo, had arrived in the Indies above 30 years, before they knew any thing more of it than its name, and situation. At last capt. Edward Corriel examined it more narrowly, and being thus acquainted by the country, they made frequent voyages to it. They found the coasts inhabited with Malayan Moors, but the original inhabitants live in the mountains and are styled *Beajus*, which in the Malayan language signifies a *wild man*. The most authentic account of these people is given by father Antonio Ventimiglia, an Italian missionary, who was sent to Borneo from Macao, on board a Portuguese ship, converted great numbers to Christianity, and died on the island about A. D. 1691. He says, the Beajus have no kings, but many petty chiefs. Some are subject to the Moorish kings, and pay them tribute; but such as live far up the country, are altogether independent, and live according to their own customs. They are generally superstitious, and much addicted to augury. They do not adore idols; but their sacrifices of sweet wood and perfumes are offered to one God, who, they believe, rewards the just in heaven, and punishes the wicked in hell. They marry only one wife; and look upon any breach of conjugal faith, either in the man or woman, as a capital offence. The Beajus are naturally honest and industrious, and have a brotherly affection for one another. They have a notion of property, which however, does not render them covetous. They sow and cultivate their lands; but in harvest, each reaps as much as will serve his family, and the rest belongs to the tribe in common; by which means they prevent both scarcity and disputes. With the Moors on the coasts the Portuguese for some time carried on a considerable trade, and at their request settled a factory there; which, however, was afterwards surprised and plundered by the Moors, who put most of the people to the sword. The principal river in Borneo is the BANJAR, at the mouth of which our East India company have a factory, having obtained a grant of the N. part of the island. It lies between 107° and 117° Lon. E. and between 4° N. and $0^{\circ} 34'$ Lat. S.

(2.) BORNEO, the capital of the island, (N. 1.) is a large and populous city, with a good harbour; and lies on the N. W. side. Lon. 111. 27. E. Lat. 4. 55. N.

BORNHOLM, an island in the Baltic sea, S. E. of Schonen in Sweden; 21 miles in length, and above 13 in breadth. It has 3 considerable towns, Rattum, Sandwick, and Nexia; with a great number of villages; and is fertile and populous. It was conquered by the Swedes in 1658; but the

inhabitants, under the conduct of Jens Roefords, voluntarily surrendered it to the king of Denmark, to avoid the tyranny of the Swedes. In 1678, a body of 5000 Swedish troops, in their passage from Pomerania to Sweden, being shipwrecked on this island, such of them as remained were made prisoners of war. The inhabitants defend the island by their own militia, without any expence to the crown. The governor resides at Rattum. Bornholm lies 16 m. from Zealand, and 6 from Ystad. Lon. 15. 36. E. Lat. 55. 15. N.

(1.) BORNOU, a kingdom of Zaara in Africa, extending from 12° to 22° E. longitude, and from 17° to 21° N. latitude. It is bounded by Bilma on the N. Cathna on the S. E. and Nubia on the S. W. The north part is poor, but all the rest is well watered by rivers that tumble down with a dreadful noise from the mountains; rendering the country prolific in corn, grass, and fruits, and giving it a pleasing aspect. The E. and W. frontiers consist of mountains and valleys, the latter being all covered with flocks of cattle, fields of rice and millet, and many of the mountains with wood, fruit-trees, and cotton. On the N. W. stands the mountain Tarton, and on the S. flows the river NIGER. The E. and W. parts are said to be inhabited by a people of a roving disposition, who live in tents, and have their women, children, and every thing else, in common; the word *property*, or any idea of it, being utterly unknown among them. They have neither religion, laws, government, nor subordination; and hence they have been supposed by Cluverius to be the lineal descendants of the ancient GARAMANTES, and this to have been the residence of that people. In these parts, the natives are almost to a man shepherds and husbandmen. In summer they go naked, except a short apron before; but in winter they are warmly clothed with the softest sheep skins, of which they also form their bed-clothes; and indeed this is scarce a sufficient defence against the inclemency of the weather at certain seasons of the year, when a cold piercing wind blows from the N. Others say their winter is mild and their summer tempestuous. Baudrand and Daper affirm, that the natives are scarce superior to brutes; not even having any names whereby to distinguish each other, except what they take from some personal defect or singularity; such as lean, fat, squinting, hump-backed, &c. Walker, however, gives a very different account of these people; and says they are courteous and humane; that they manufacture cottons and cultivate the ground with hoes; that their religion is Mahometanism, and their government an elective monarchy. He adds that 30 different languages are spoken in Bornou, and its dependencies; which may account for the different and contradictory accounts of authors, in describing perhaps as many different people. See N. 3.

(2.) BORNOU, a lake in the above kingdom, (N. 1.) which the Niger runs through.

(3.) BORNOU, the capital of the kingdom, (N. 1.) is seated in a level country, on the banks of a small river. It is of greater extent than Tripoli; but the houses, though neat, are so irregularly placed, that they can hardly be said to form streets. It has

has mosques built of brick, and schools, in which the Koran is taught. It lies 650 miles S. E. of Mourzouk. Lon. 27. 30. E. Lat. 19. 40. N.

BOROCATE, a village in Hampshire, between Micheldever and Brown-Condover.

BORODEAN, a village in Hampshire, between Brams-Dean and Priors-Dean.

BOROLYBICUS, the North-West wind.

BOROMÆUS, ST. See **BORROMEUS**.

BORONDON, ST, an island in the Atlantic Ocean, mentioned by Linschotten and others, in their description of the Canary islands, as something supernatural. It is said to be about 100 leagues distant from Ferro, probably W. though no writer has pretended to lay down its exact situation. Here it is said several ships have touched by accident, and all agree in their relations of the size of the inhabitants and island. They affirm, that it is perpetually clothed with a great variety of wood, chiefly fruit-trees: that the valleys are in a perpetual state of verdure; and continually decked with flowers, grass, and plants, the spontaneous productions of the earth; or with corn and pulse, cultivated by the inhabitants; that the soil is so prolific as to raise large quantities of corn for exportation; that the ships that call here never fail of meeting with refreshments of every kind; and that it is peopled by Christians, who have a language of their own, apparently compounded of a variety of modern languages; for, say they, whoever understands the European tongues may make shift to hold conversation with this people. It is remarkable, that no ships, expressly sent upon this discovery, were ever fortunate enough to fall in with the island of St Borondon, though the Spaniards have several times attempted it from the Canaries. Hence it has been called the *marvellous island*; and hence indeed we may conclude, either that it exists wholly in imagination, or at least, that it is surrounded with such currents, as infallibly carry ships out of their course, and prevent their meeting with it. Some affirm that it actually disappears upon certain occasions, and shifts its position; others, with more probability, allege, that it is frequently overcast with thick and impenetrable clouds, which occasion the disappointment of all the adventurers who have gone in search of it.

(1.) * **BOROUGH**. *n. f.* [*borboc*, Saxon.] 1. It signified anciently a surety, or a man bound for others.—A *borough*, as I here use it, and as the old laws still use, is not a *borough* town, that is, a franchised town; but a main pledge of 100 free persons, therefore called a free *borough*, or, as you say, *francplegium*. For *borth*, in old Saxon, signifieth a pledge or surety; and yet it is so used with us in some speeches, as Chaucer saith, *St John to Borob*; that is, for assurance and warranty. *Spenser*. 2. A town with a corporation.—

And, if a *borough* chuse him not, undone. *Pope*.

(1.) **BOROUGH**, **BURROUGH**, **BOROW**, or **BURGH**, in its original Saxon *borge*, or *borgb*, is by some supposed to have been primarily meant of a tithing or company consisting of ten families, who were bound and combined together as each others pledge. Afterwards, it came to signify a town that had a wall or inclosure about it; so that all places, which among our ancestors had the deno-

mination borough, were one way or other fenced or fortified. In later times, the same appellation, was bestowed on several of the *villæ insigniores*, or country towns of more than ordinary note, though not walled. The ancient Saxons gave the name burgh to those called, in other countries, cities. But divers canons being made for removing the episcopal sees from villages and small towns to the chief cities, the name *city* became attributed to episcopal towns, and that of *borough* retained to all the rest; though these too had the appearance of cities, being governed by their mayors, having laws of their own making, sending representatives to parliament, and being fortified with a wall and castle, and the like. Borough or burgh, is now particularly appropriated to such towns and villages, as send burgesses or representatives to parliament. Boroughs are equally such, whether they be incorporate or not. Great numbers of our English boroughs are not incorporated; and, on the contrary, several corporations are not boroughs; *e. gr.* Kingston, Deal, Kendal, &c.

(3.) **BOROUGH**, in geography, a small town in Gloucestershire, near Berkeley.

(4.) **BOROUGHs**, in Scotland. See **LAW**, **INDEX**.

(5.) **BOROUGHs**, **ROYAL**, in Scotland, are corporations made for the advantage of trade, by charters granted by several of their kings; having the privilege of sending commissioners to represent them in parliament, besides other peculiar privileges. The Royal Boroughs are not only so many distinct corporations, but also constitute one entire body, governed by, and accountable to, one general court, anciently called *the court of four boroughs*, held yearly to treat and determine concerning matters relating to the common advantage of all boroughs. The 4 boroughs which composed this court were, Edinburgh, Stirling, Roxburgh, and Berwick; which two last falling into the hands of the English, Linlithgow and Lanerk were put in their places; with a saving to the former, whenever they should return to their allegiance. But this court not being sufficient to answer the necessities of the royal boroughs, they were all empowered, under James III. in 1487, to send commissioners to a yearly convention of their own, which was then appointed to be held at Inverkeithing, but is now held at Edinburgh, under the denomination of *the convention of boroughs*, vested with great power, and having for their object the benefit of trade and the general interest of the boroughs.

BOROUGHBRIDGE, a town in the N. riding of Yorkshire, seated on the river Your, over which there is a handsome stone bridge. It sends two members to parliament, and lies 17 miles N. W. of York, and 218 N. by W. of London. Lon. 1. 25. W. Lat. 54. 10. N.

BOROUGH-CASTLE, a village in Hampsh. near Spithead.

BOROUGH COURTS are certain courts held in boroughs by prescription, charter, or act of parliament: such are the sheriff's court, and court of huffings in London.

(1.) * **BOROUGH ENGLISH** is a customary descent of lands or tenements, whereby, in all places where this custom holds, lands and tenements

ments descend to the youngest son; or, if the owner have no issue, to his youngest brother. *Cowel.*

(2.) **BOROUGH ENGLISH, REASONS FOR THE CUSTOM OF.** Littleton gives this reason, that the younger son, by his tender age, is not so capable as the rest of his brethren to help himself. Others give a much stranger reason; viz. that the lord of the fee had anciently a right to break the 7th commandment with his tenant's wife on her wedding night; and that therefore the tenement descended, not to the eldest, but to the youngest son, who was more certainly the offspring of the tenant. But it is not certain that this abominable custom ever prevailed in England, though it certainly did in Scotland, (under the name of *merchet* or *jus prime noctis*;) till abolished by Malcolm III. Perhaps a more rational account than either may be brought from the practice of the Tartars; among whom, according to Father Duhalde, this custom of descent to the youngest son also prevails. That nation is wholly composed of shepherds and herdsmen; and the elder sons, as soon as they are capable of leading a pastoral life, migrate from their father with a certain allotment of cattle, and go to seek a new habitation. The youngest son, therefore, who continues latest with his father, is naturally the heir of his house, the rest being already provided for. And thus we find, that, among many other northern nations, it was the custom for all the sons to migrate from the father, but one, who became his heir. So that possibly this custom, wherever it prevails, may be the remnant of that pastoral state of the ancient Britons and Germans, which Cæsar and Tacitus describe.

BOROUGH-GREEN, a village in Norfolk, 2 m. N. E. of Attleborough.

BOROUGH-HEAD, } **BURS-HOLDER, or HEAD-**

BOROUGH-HOLDER, } **BOROUGH**, the chief man of the decenna, or hundred, chosen to speak and act in behalf of the rest. Head-borough also signifies a kind of head constable, where there are several chosen as his assistants, to serve warrants, &c. See **CONSTABLE**.

BOROUGH-MASTER, *n. f. obs.* the mayor of a borough.

BOROW-HOLES, the holes, in the remotest corner of which the female rabbits deposite their young, to prevent the males from eating them.

BOROZAIL, [or the zeal of the Ethiopians,] a disease epidemic in the countries about the river Senegal. It principally affects the pudenda, but is different from the lues venerea. It owes its rise to excessive venery; in the men this distemper is called *asab*, and in women *asfabatus*.

BORRA, or **BORRADH**, in Gaelic antiquity, a pile of stones, but differing both from a **CAIRN** and a **DUN**, in external figure, as well as in size and design. Outwardly these borras were covered with heath or grass, so as to appear natural protuberances, and surrounded with wood. In their internal construction, they were oblong, and

divided into small apartments. They were generally built on an eminence. Mr M'Farlane minister of Kilfinan, describes one of them in his parish, "40 yards long, of considerable breadth, and amazing depth. At the bottom, from one end to the other, there was a number of small cells end to end, each made up of 5 or 7 large flags. Each cell was about 6 feet long, 4 broad, and high. One large flag made up each side, and another of a curved figure, to throw off the water covered them for a roof: the end was made up of two, and an opening between them, wide enough for a man to squeeze himself through." He thinks they were intended as places of concealment for the plunder, which the ancient clans, in the age of irregular government, carried off from each other. *Stat. Acc. XIV. 257.*

BORRACHIO. See **CAOUTCHOUK**.

BORRADH. See **BORRA**.

BORRAGE. See **ANCHUSA**.

* **BORREL**, *n. f.* † [it is explained by Junius without etymology.] A mean fellow.—

Siker thou speak'st like a lewd sorrel,

Of heaven to deemen so:

Howbe I am but rude and *borrel* †,

Yet nearer ways I know. *Spenser*

BORRELLISTS, in church history, a Christian sect in Holland; so named from their founder Borrel, a man of great learning in the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin tongues. They reject the use of the sacraments, public prayer, and all other external acts of worship. They assert, that all the Christian churches of the world have degenerated from the pure apostolic doctrines, because they have suffered the word of God, which is infallible to be expounded, or rather corrupted, by doctors who are not infallible. They lead a very austere life, and employ a great part of their goods in alms.

BORRERAY, a small island of Scotland, one of the Hebrides, lying N. W. of N. Uist, between Valay and Pabby isles. It is inhabited, and has a place of worship, where the minister of N. Uist preaches once a-year. Lon. 7. 25. W. Lat. 57. 47. N.

BORRHAUS, Martin, professor of divinity at Basil, was first named **CELLARIUS**. He was born at Stutgard, in 1499, and acquired the friendship of Melancthon, at Wirtemberg, where he had many scholars, and made much money. But afterwards falling in with Stubner, the anabaptist, he adopted his fanaticism, and in a conference with Luther, in 1522, showed an extravagant degree of zeal. In 1525, being in Prussia, he was imprisoned on account of his principles, which however, he still defended, and wrote several books to support them. Opinions, true or false, are not to be altered by compulsion. Reason alone can convince. The failure of the prophecies of his brethren fanatics, respecting the immediate renovation of all things, at last converted him, and made him not only change his profession but even his name. He retired to Basil in 1536, turned

† † Dr JOHNSTON appears to be wrong in styling **BORREL** a substantive noun. In his quotation from Spenser at least, it is plainly an adjective. Common sense as well as grammar, prohibits the joining a substantive with an adjective, as *borrel* is here joined with *rude*, by a conjunction. Dr Ascham very properly ranks it as an adjective.

glazier for a livelihood, married, and at last was admitted professor of rhetoric and divinity in that university. He wrote, 1. Notes on Aristotle's politics, in 1545: 2. A commentary on Aristotle's rhetoric, in 1551: 3. Another on the pentateuch, in 1557: 4. One on Isaiah, and the Revelations, in 1561: and, 5. One on Job and Ecclesiastes, in 1564. He died at Basil, in 1564, of the plague.

BORRI, or **BURRHUS**, Joseph Francis, a famous chemist, quack, and heretic of the 17th century, was a Milanese, and a most consummate rascal. In his youth, he was quite debauched, but afterwards set up for a very religious man, and pretended to inspiration. He engaged his devoted followers in vows of poverty, while he had the address to make them give all their money to himself. His design was to bring about a revolution in Milan, and get the power into his own hand; but some of his disciples being apprehended, he fled to Strasburg, and afterwards to Amsterdam; whence, after figuring some time with what as a great chemist, he decamped in the night, with much money and many jewels, which he had swindled from the public. He next imposed upon the simplicity of Q. Christina, of Sweden, and led her to throw out a great sum upon the discovery of the philosopher's stone; and soon after, put Frederick III. king of Denmark, upon the same vain and expensive search. On that monarch's death, he fled to Turkey, but was apprehended on the frontiers and sent to Rome, where he was condemned to perpetual imprisonment in the inquisition. In 1672, he abjured his errors, and was allowed to attend the D. of Esch, whom the physicians had given over. The extraordinary cure, he performed, astonished all good Catholics, that such a miracle should have been wrought by an arch-heretic. He died in the castle of St Angelo, in 1695, aged 79.

BORRICHIOUS, Olaus, one of the most learned men of his age, the son of a Lutheran minister in Denmark, was born in 1626. He studied physics in the university of Copenhagen, and began to practise during a most terrible plague that made great havoc in that city. He travelled; but before his departure in 1660, he was appointed professor in poetry, botany, and chemistry; and at his return, discharged his duties with great assiduity, of which the works he published afford full proof. He was raised to the office of counsellor in the supreme council of justice, in 1686; to that of counsellor of the Royal Chancery, in 1689; and died of the operation for the stone, in 1702. He published, 1. *Lingua pharmacopæorum*: 2. *Dissertationes de poetis Græcis et Latinis*: 3. *De arte et progressu chemiæ*; and several other works.

1. **BORRIS**, a town of Ireland, in *Offory*, Queen's county, Leinster.

2. **BORRIS**, a village of Ireland, in Carlow.

BORRISOKEON, a village in Tipperary.

BORRISOLEAGH, a town in Tipperary.

1. **BORRODALE**, a most romantic valley of Cumberland, among **DERWENT-WATER FELS**, which are reckoned among the loftiest hills in England. It is watered by a number of fine rivulets, which precipitate from the hills, and forming many beautiful cascades meet in Borrodale. (See

VOL. IV. PART I.

No. 2.) This valley is 4 m. from Keswick, in passing from which, the traveller has Keswick lake on his right hand, stupendous rocky precipices on his left, and huge masses of rocks scattered along his road, which have fallen from the mountains. The view, in approaching the dale, is extremely picturesque.

2. **BORRODALE BECK**, a river formed in the above valley, (No. 1.) by the junction of the rivulets, which after passing out of the dale spreads into an extensive lake, called **DERWENT-WATER**, or **KESWICK**, and contains many beautiful islands.

BORROMEIO, or } St Charles, cardinal, and
(1.) **BORROMEUS**, } archbishop of Milan; a personage of great note in the Romish calendar, and whose sincere piety, simplicity of manners, and zeal for reformation, render him indeed a character equally interesting and instructive to the members of any church. He was the son of Gilbert Borromeo, Count of Arona, and Mary of Medicis, and was born at the castle of Arona upon Lake Major in the Milanese, in 1538. When he was about 12 years old, Julius Cæsar Borromeo resigned an abbacy to him of a considerable revenue, which was considered as an hereditary inheritance of the family. Charles accepted of it, but applied the revenue wholly in charity to the poor. Having acquired a sufficient knowledge of the languages at Milan, he studied the civil and canon law at Pavia, where he lived like Lot in Sodom, preserving his innocence among a thousand snares, by which it was endangered. He received great advantage from the conversation of Francis Alciat, one of the most learned men of the age, for whom he afterwards procured the purple. He would accept no benefice, but upon condition that he should be at liberty to apply the revenue to public uses. In 1554, his father died, an event which brought him back to the castle of Arona; where, though he had an elder brother, Count Frederick, he was requested by the family to take upon him the management of the domestic affairs, to which he at length consented. In 1559, he finished his studies, and took his degree of D. D. The promotion of his uncle Pius IV. to the pontificate, in 1560, seemed to have very little effect upon him; but he was soon made protonotary; intrusted with the seals of the ecclesiastical state; and created cardinal deacon, and soon after archbishop of Milan. In obedience to his uncle, he lived in great splendor, yet retained his own temperance and humility. To render even his amusement useful, he established an academy of learned ecclesiastics and laics, who were employed in some exercise, tending to inspire a love of virtue. Each of them was to write upon some subject, in verse or prose, and to communicate in frequent conferences the fruits of their studies. The works of this society have been published in many volumes, intitled *Noctes Vaticanæ*, because these assemblies were held at the Vatican, at night. About this time he also formed a design of founding a college at Pavia, which should be both a school of science, and an, asylum from vice. He accordingly raised a large edifice upon ground which belonged to the family of Borromeo in that city; he obtained from the pope several benefices, which he attach-

ed to his building; and he provided it with all things necessary out of his own revenue. Upon the death of his only brother Frederick, his relations, his friends, and even the pope himself, advised him to quit the church, and marry, that his family might not become extinct. Charles, however, contrary to the expectations of the world, received the priesthood, and addressed the pope in these terms: "Do not complain of me, Holy Father, for I have taken a spouse whom I love, and on whom my wishes have been long fixed." There was a very intimate friendship between Borromeo and Don Barthelemy des Martyrs archbishop of Prague, and author of a work intitled *Stimulus Poenitentiae*. This work falling into Borromeo's hands, gave him an earnest desire to become a preacher. An almost inconceivable multiplicity of business, ill health, a feeble voice, and a difficult pronounciation, were great obstacles to his design, yet he surmounted them all by perseverance. Having obtained permission to visit his church, he set out for Milan, where he was received with the most distinguished honours. He was, however, soon recalled to Rome; the pope was dying; and Charles arrived just in time to administer to him the last sacraments, on the 7th Jan. 1566; and, by his influence, to moderate the cabals of the conclave, in the election of his successor, Pius V. Borromeo then gave himself up to the reformation of his diocese, where the most flagitious irregularities were openly practised. He began by making pastoral visits in his metropolis, where the canons were not distinguished for the purity of their manners. He restored decency to divine service. He cleared the cathedral of many pompous tombs, banners, arms, and other trophies, with which the vanity of man had disfigured the house of God; and in this, he spared not the monuments of his nearest relations. He divided the nave of the church into two parts, by planks, that the sexes, being separated, might perform their devotions without any attention to each other, and with a modesty suitable to the place. His pastoral care extended to the collegiate churches, the societies of penitents, and the monasteries, which abounded with irregularities that required correction. As the great abuses which had over-run the church, arose principally from the gross ignorance of the clergy, Charles established seminaries, for the education of youth, intended for holy orders. He met with much opposition in his endeavours to bring about a reformation of abuses; but he prevailed against every obstacle by an inflexible constancy tempered with great sweetness of manners. But the most formidable opposition he had to struggle with, was that of the Brothers of Humility. Three provosts of this order entered into a conspiracy to cut him off; and one of their confederates called *Ferron Donat*, surnamed *Farina*, took upon him to execute the bloody design. For this purpose he mixed with the crowd that went into the archiepiscopal chapel, where the cardinal spent an hour every evening in prayer; and fired a harquebuss at him, loaded with a ball and a considerable charge of leaden shot. It is said that the ball struck him on the scapular bone, but fell down at his feet without any other damage than soiling his rochet,

and that the other shot tore away part of a wall and went through a table. This was reckoned a miracle, but what was much more to his honour, than if it had been one, he made every exertion to procure a pardon for the assassin. But the pope was inflexible; the monk was executed, and the order suppressed. In 1576, Milan was visited by the plague, which swept away incredible numbers; and the behaviour of Borromeus, on this occasion, was truly christian and heroic. He not only continued on the spot, but went about giving direction for accommodating the sick, and burying the dead, with a zeal and attention that were at once ardent and deliberate, minute and comprehensive; and his example stimulated others to join in the good work. He avoided no danger, and he spared no expence; nor did he content himself with establishing proper regulations in the city, but went into all the neighbouring parishes where the contagion raged, distributing money to the poor, ordering proper accommodations for the sick, and punishing those, especially the clergy, who were remiss in their duties. Charles, notwithstanding the fatigue which he suffered, by thus executing his pastoral charge, abated nothing of the usual austerity of his life; for, whatever approached to luxury, he considered as incompatible with his character. Being once on a visit to the archbishop of Sienna, a very sumptuous entertainment was provided. Borromeus, though he had been used to content himself with bread and water, yet sat down at the table, where however he eat but little, and gave sufficient intimation that he was much displeased with such ostentatious prodigality; but what was his surprise, when he saw the table again covered with a desert, consisting of whatever was most rare, exquisite, and costly. He rose hastily from his seat, and gave orders for his departure, notwithstanding the rain, and the most earnest entreaties of the archbishop. "My Lord," said the cardinal, "if I should tarry here to night, you would give me another such treat, as that I have just seen, and the poor will then suffer another loss, great numbers of whom might have been fed with the superfluities that have been now set before us." The continual labours and austerities of Borromeus shortened his life, and he died at Milan, the 4th of Nov. 1584. He was lamented by the whole province with marks of sincere sorrow, and he was immediately worshipped as a saint, without waiting for the pope's approbation. The pope, however, when he was told of it by Cardinal Baronius, gave directions that the devotion of the people should not be restrained, though Borromeus was not canonized till the 1st of Nov. 1610. Many churches and chapels have since been erected to his honour, and many religious societies instituted under his protection.

(2.) BORROMEUS, ST, MIRACLES ASCRIBED TO. The preceding account of this saint, (p. 177) is extracted from Father Tournon; but Ribadeneira, the Jesuit, relates the most ridiculous fables concerning him. He tells us, that a miraculous light was seen over the chamber of Borromeus's mother when she was in labour: That Borromeus seeing too persons carried violently down a rapid river on their horses, and just ready to perish,

perish, caused the horses suddenly to leap with them out of the water, by giving them his benediction: That Octavian Varese, a gentleman of Milan, who was confined to his bed by sickness, when Borromeus died, became instantly well, by recommending himself to the Saint's intercession: That a daughter of Julius Bonacina, was instantly cured of a disorder in her eye, which had taken away the sight of it, by performing an act of devotion in honour of this Saint: That a count of Ferrara was instantly seized with a violent disease upon speaking irreverently of Borromeus's picture, but was cured upon confessing his fault; &c. Such pretended miracles are excellent antidotes against the system they were forged to serve.

BORRON, a hill on the coast of the county of Kirkcudbright and parish of Kirkbean, on which there is an ancient castle.

BORROW, a village in the county of Cornwall, S. of Stratton.

BORROW. *n. s.* [from the verb.] The thing borrowed.—

Yet of your royal presence I'll adventure

The *borrow* of a week.

Shakespeare.

To BORROW. *v. a.* [*borgen*, Dutch;

borgen, Saxon.] 1. To take something from another upon credit: opposed to *lend*.—He *borrowed* a box of the ear of the Englishman, and swore he would pay him again when he was able. *Shakespeare.*

—We have *borrowed* money for the king's tribute, and that upon our lands and vineyards.

Nehemiah. 2. To ask of another the use of something for a time.—Then he said, go, *borrow* thee vessels abroad of all thy neighbours. 2 *Kings.*—

Where darkness and surprize made conquest cheap!

Where virtue *borrowed* the arms of chance,

And struck a random blow!

Dryden.

To take something belonging to another.—

A *borrow'd* title hast thou bought too dear;

Why didst thou tell me that thou wert a king?

Shakespeare.

—They may *borrow* something of instruction even from their past guilt. *Decay of Piety.*—I was engaged in the translation of Virgil, from whom I have *borrowed* only two months. *Dryden.*—These

various signs they sometimes *borrow* from others,

and sometimes make themselves; as one may observe among the new nameschildren give to things.

Locke.—Some persons of bright parts have narrow remembrance; for having riches of their own,

they are not solicitous to *borrow*. *Watts.* 4. To

use as one's own, though not belonging to one.—

Unkind and cruel, to deceive your son

In *borrow'd* shapes, and his embrace to shun.

Dryden.

BORROWER. *n. s.* [from *borrow*.] 1. He that borrows; he that takes money upon trust:

opposed to *lender*.—His talk is of nothing but his poverty, for fear belike lest I should have proved

a young *borrower*. *Sidney.*—

Neither a *borrower* nor a lender be;

For loan oft loses both itself and friend,

And borrowing dulls the edge of husbandry.

Shakespeare.

Go not my horse the better,

I must become a *borrower* of the night

For a dark hour or twain.

Shakespeare.

But you invert the name of her trust,

And harshly deal, like an ill *borrower*,

With that which you receiv'd on other terms.

Milton.

2. He that takes what is another's, and uses it as his own.—Some say, that I am a great *borrower*; however, none of my creditors have challenged me for it. *Pope.*

BORROW-HEAD, a promontory of Scotland on the S. E. coast of the isle of Stronsay.

BORROWING and **HIRING**, in law, are contracts by which a qualified property may be transferred to the hirer or borrower; in which there is only this difference, that hiring is always for a price or stipend, or additional recompence: borrowing is merely gratuitous. But the law in both cases is the same. They are both contracts, whereby the possession and transient property is transferred for a particular time or use, on condition and agreement to restore the goods so hired or borrowed, as soon as the time is expired, or the use performed, together with the price or stipend (in case of hiring) either expressly agreed upon by the parties, or left to be implied by law, according to the value of the service. By this mutual contract, the hirer or borrower gains a temporary property in the thing hired, accompanied with an implied condition to use it with moderation, and not to abuse it; and the owner or lender retains a reversionary interest in the same, and acquires a new property in the price or reward. Thus, if a man hires or borrows a horse for a month, he has the possession and a qualified property therein during that period; on the expiration of which his qualified property determines, and the owner becomes (in case of hiring) intitled also to the premium or price for which the horse was hired. There is one species of this reward the most useful of any, but concerning which many good and learned men have much perplexed themselves and others, by doubts about its legality *in foro conscientie*. That is, when money is lent on a contract to receive not only the principal sum again, but also an increase by way of compensation for the use, which is generally called *interest* by those who think it lawful, and *usury* by those who do not. See **INTEREST**.

BORROWSTON, a village on the coast of Caithness, in the parish of Rea. The shore has a number of small caves, and a strong natural arch, covered with green turf, on a level with the adjacent ground, and leading over a chasm, 40 feet deep, into which the tide flows.

BORROWSTOWNNESS, a town of Scotland, in the county of Linlithgow, seated on the S. side of the Forth, 2 m. N. of Linlithgow, and 16 W. from Edinburgh. It has a good harbour, and is surrounded with collieries and salt works; its chief trade consisting in salt and coals. It has a fair, Nov. 16. Lon. 3. 34. W. Lat. 56. 2. N.

BORSE HOLDER, [from *berch*, a surety, and *alder*, a chief, Sax.] among the Anglo-Saxons, one of the lowest magistrates, whose authority extended only over one free burgh, tithing or decennary, consisting of ten families. Every freeman who wished to enjoy the protection of the laws, and not to be treated as a vagabond, was under the necessity of being admitted a member of the tith-

ing: where he and his father resided; and in order to obtain this admission, it was as necessary for him to maintain a good reputation; because all the members of each tithing being mutual pledges and sureties for each other, and the whole tithing sureties to the king for the good behaviour of all its members, they were very cautious of admitting any into their society who were of bad or doubtful characters. Each tithing formed a little state or commonwealth within itself, and chose one of its most respectable members for its head, who was sometimes called the *alderman* of such a tithing or free burgh, on account of his age and experience, but most commonly *borse-holder*.—This magistrate had authority to call together the members of his tithing, to preside in their meetings, and to put their sentences in execution. The members of each tithing, with their borse-holder at their head, constituted a court of justice, in which all the disputes arising within the tithing were determined. If any dispute of great difficulty or importance happened, or if either of the parties was not willing to submit to a sentence given in the tithing court, the cause was referred or appealed to the next superior court, or court of the hundred.

BORSELLA, in the glass-works, an instrument wherewith glasses are extended or contracted at pleasure; also smoothed and levigated.

BORSET, or } a place celebrated for its baths,
BORSETT, } about half a league from Aix la Chapelle. The abbey is very magnificent. The waters are warm, and of the nature of those of Aix la Chapelle, being used as baths for the same diseases, and also in dropsical and oedematous cases. The waters are distinguished into the upper and lower springs. The former were found by Dr Simmons to raise the thermometer to 158°, the latter to only 127°. All the baths are supplied by the first. Dr Simmons found that these waters were much less sulphureous, than those of Aix-la-Chapelle, probably on account of their greater heat; and that they abounded with selenites, which incrust the pipe through which the water passes, and likewise the sides of the bath.

BORSILL, a village in Suffex, near Ticehurst.

BORSON a town of Austria, in Tirol, which was evacuated, June 2d, 1796, by its inhabitants, who fled to Saltzburg upon the approach of the French army.

BORSTY, a village in Suffex, S. W. of Ashdown Forest.

BORTAN, a small river of N. America, in Vermont, which rises in Westmore township, Orange county, and after running N. W. unites with the river Black, 3 m. S. of Lake Memphremagog.

(1.) **BORTHWICK**, a parish of Scotland, in the county of Edinburgh, about 12 m. S. E. of that metropolis, extending about 6 m. from E. to W. and 4 from N. to S. The climate is various, but generally mild and salubrious; longevity being very common. The surface is uneven and resembles waves. The soil is in general light, and agriculture is much improved. The only manufacture is that of the improved ploughs, by the celebrated James Small, who resides in the parish. The population, in 1793, as stated by the rev.

Mr Clunie, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 858, and had decreased 52, since 1755.

(2.) **BORTHWICK**, a river of Scotland, which rises in the high grounds where the counties of Dumfries and Selkirk meet, and runs through the parish of Robertson, which it nearly divides. It abounds with excellent trouts, and is visited by salmon in spawning time.

(3.) **BORTHWICK CASTLE**, a magnificent ruin originally of astonishing strength, and still very entire, situated in the above parish. (N. 1.) It was built by William, the 1st Lord Borthwick, about A. D. 1430. It measures about 74 feet by 68, without the walls, which are of hewn stone firmly cemented, 13 feet thick near the bottom and gradually contracted to about 6 near the top, and besides the sunk storey, 90 feet in height to the battlement, but including the roof, which is arched and covered with flags, 110 feet high. The great hall is 40 feet long, and had been elegantly adorned with lustres, paintings, tapestries &c. On the first floor are state rooms, formerly accessible by a draw-bridge. Notwithstanding its strength, it was taken by Oliver Cromwell in 1651. Mr Clunie has preserved a copy of his summons in Sir J. Sinclair's *Stat. Acc.* XII. 635.

(4.) **BORTHWICK PARK**, a district of 100 acres in Berwickshire, surrounded by a very remarkable wall, of moorstone, which has stood 179 years without needing repairs, though it has neither covering nor mortar of any kind.

(1.) **BORTON**, a village near Buckingham.

(2.) **BORTON ON DUNSMORE**, in Warwickshire.

70 BORWE, v. a. *obs.* To borrow. *Claudian.*

BORWICK, a village in Lancashire, between the Docker and the Lune.

BORYPTES, in natural history, a gem of black colour with red and white spots.

BORYSTHENES. See **BORISTHENES**.

(I.) **BOS**, John Baptist du, a celebrated author and member of the French academy, was born at Beauvais in 1670, and finished his studies at the Sorbonne. In 1695, he was made one of the committee for foreign affairs, and was afterwards charged with some important transactions in England, Germany, Holland, and Italy. At his return to Paris, he was made an abbé, and chosen perpetual secretary of the French academy. He was the author of several excellent works; the principal of which are, 1. Critical reflections upon poetry and painting, 3 vols 12mo. 2. The history of the Gordians, confirmed and illustrated by medals, 3 vols 12mo. 3. A critical history of the establishment of the French monarchy among the Gauls, 2 vols 4 vols 12mo. He died at Paris in 1742.

(II.) **Bos**, Lewis Janssen, an eminent painter born at Bois le Duc. Having been instructed in the art of painting, he rendered himself eminent for the truth of his colouring and the neatness of his handling. His favourite subjects were flowers and curious plants, which he represented grouped, in glasses, half filled with water; and gave them so lovely a look of nature, that it seemed scarce possible to express them with great truth or delicacy. He represented the drops of dew on the leaves which he executed with an uncommon transparency; and embellished his subjects with butterflies, bees, wasps, and other insects.

ists. He likewise painted portraits with very great success; and showed as much merit in that style as he did in his compositions of still life. He died in 1507.

(III.) *Bos*, in antiquity, was used for an ancient Greek silver coin, which was also called, *DRACHMUS*, being equivalent to two drachms. It was called *Bos* as having on it the impression of an ox, and chiefly obtained among the Athenians and Delians; being sometimes also struck of gold. From this arose the phrase *Bos in lingua*, applied to those who had taken bribes to hold their tongue.

(IV.) *Bos*, the ox, in zoology, a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of pecora. The characters of this genus are taken from the horns and teeth. The horns are hollow within, and extended in the form of crescents: There are eight teeth in the under jaw, and none in the upper, their place being supplied by a hard membrane; and there are no dog teeth in either jaw. Linnaeus enumerates six species, but Mr Robert Kerr, in his *Animal Kingdom, or Zoological System* of Sir C. Linnaeus, describes 9 species and 17 varieties. As he is one of the latest writers on the subject, and has added every thing new from Prof. Gmelin, Mr Pennant, and other eminent writers on zoology, we have adopted his classification, with the exception only of the *BONASUS* (N. iv.) and the *INDICUS*, (N^o viii.) which he ranks as varieties of the *Bos TAURUS*, but which we cannot help considering as distinct species, as indeed most other authors have ranked them: for, as Mr Kerr himself justly observes, (p. 34) "some of the kinds, considered (by him) only as *varieties*, seem fully as *specifically different* from the rest, as others which are placed as *distinct species*." Upon this account, therefore, the species we have to describe are 11 in number; viz.

i. *Bos AMERICANUS*, the AMERICAN BISON, with short black rounded horns, and a great interval between their bases. On the shoulders is a hunch, consisting of a fleshy substance, much elevated. The fore parts of the body are thick and strong; the hinder part, slender and weak.—The hunch and head are covered with a very long undulated fleece, divided into locks, of a dull red colour: this is at times so long, as to make the fore part of the animal of a shapeless appearance, and to obscure its sense of seeing. During winter, the whole body is clothed in the same manner. In summer the hind part of the body is naked, wrinkled, and dusky. The tail is about a foot long; at the end is a tuft of black hairs, the rest naked. It inhabits Mexico, the interior parts of N. America, and in the Savannas. It is found of marshy places, where it lodges amidst the tall reeds. In Louisiana they feed in herds innumerable, promiscuously with multitudes of stags and deer, retiring in the sultry heats into the shade of tall reeds, which border the rivers of America. They are exceedingly shy; and very fearful of man, unless they are wounded, when they pursue their enemy, and become very dangerous.—The chase of these animals is a favourite diversion of the Indians; and is effected in two ways. First by shooting: when the marksmen must take great care to go against the wind; for their smell is so exquisite, that the moment they get scent of him

they instantly retire with the utmost precipitation. He aims at their shoulders, that they may drop at once, and not be irritated by an ineffectual wound. If the wind does not favour them, they may be approached very near, being blinded by the hair which covers their eyes.—The other method is performed by a great number of men, who form a vast square: each band sets fire to the dry grass of the Savannah where the herds are feeding: these animals having a great dread of fire which they see approach on all sides, they retire from it to the centre of the square; when the bands close and kill them, pressed together in heaps, without the least hazard. It is said that on every expedition of this nature they kill 1500 or 2000 beesves. The hunting grounds are marked out lest the different bands should meet and interfere in the diversion. The uses of these animals are various. Powder-flasks are made of their horns. The skins are very valuable; formerly the Indians made of them the best targets. When dressed, they form an excellent buff; the Indians dress them with the hair on, and clothe themselves with them; the Europeans of Louisiana use them for blankets, and find them light, warm, and soft. The flesh is a considerable article of food, and the hunch on the back is esteemed a very great delicacy. The bulls become excessively fat, and yield great quantities of tallow; 150 pounds weight have been got from a single beast, which forms a considerable article of commerce. These over-fed animals usually become the prey of wolves; as, by their great unwieldiness, they cannot keep up with the herd. The Indians prefer the flesh of the cows, which in time will destroy the species: they complain of the rankness of that of the bulls; but Du Pratz thinks the last much more tender, and that the rankness might be prevented, by cutting off the testicles as soon as the beast is killed. The hair or wool is spun into cloth, gloves, stockings, and garters, which are very strong, and look as well as those made of the best sheeps wool; Governor Pownall assures us, that the most luxurious fabric might be made of it. The fleece of one of these animals has been found to weigh 8 pounds. Their sagacity in defending themselves against the attacks of wolves is admirable. When they scent the approach of a drove of those ravenous creatures, the herd casts itself into the form of a circle: the weakest keep in the middle; the strongest are ranged on the outside, presenting to the enemy an impenetrable front of horns: when taken by surprise, numbers are sure to perish. Attempts have been made to domesticate the wild, by catching the calves and bringing them up with the common kind, in hopes of improving the breed; but it has not yet been found to answer: notwithstanding they had the appearance for a time of having lost their savage nature, yet they always grew impatient of restraint, and would break down the strongest inclosure, and entice the tame cattle into the corn fields. They have been known to engender together. These animals, says Mr Kerr, are of a vast size, weighing from 1600 to near 3000 lb.

ii. *Bos ARNEE*, says Mr Kerr, "has long erected semilunar horns which are flattened, annularly wrinkled with smooth, round, approaching points: and

and inhabits India, N. from Bengal. This animal is of vast size, and is hitherto non descript. A skeleton of the head with the horns is in the Edinburgh College Museum; (See *Plate XLVI. fig. 1.*) and another in Mr Weir's Museum. (See *fig. 2.*) "A British officer, who met with one in the woods above Bengal, says, it is above 14 feet high, that it partakes of the form of the horse, bull, and deer, and is very bold and daring. This establishes its genus, as all the other horned animals, of the ruminant or cloven-footed tribe, are shy and timid."

iii. *BOS BARBATUS*, the BEARDED OX, or CAPE AUROCH, "has short horns; a beard on the chin, (whence the name,) and curly hair on the breast. It inhabits the country, N. of the Cape. The Namaques call it *Baas*, or the *Master Courier*, on account of its vast swiftness. It is like the common ox, but larger and of a grey colour. The head is small."

iv. *BOS BONASUS* has a long mane: its horns are bent round towards the cheek, and are not above a span long. It is about the size of a large bull, and is a native of Africa and Asia. See *BONASUS*.

v. i. *BOS BUBALUS*, the common BUFFALO, has large black horns, first extended outwards, then bent backward and inward, and plain before. The hair on the back is very hard, but thinly scattered over the body. It is a native of Asia; but they are tamed in Italy, and used for the same purposes as black cattle in other countries. They draw carriages, and are guided by a rope tied to a string thrust through their noses. This buffalo is larger than an ox, has a thicker body, and a very hard hide. His pace is slow, but he will carry a great burden. They feed in herds; the cows go 12 months with young, and yield plenty of milk, of which very good butter and cheese is made. Their flesh is pretty good, but not to be compared to beef. The wild buffalo is a very fierce and dangerous animal; he often attacks travellers, and tears them in pieces. However, they are not so much to be feared in woods as in the plains, as their horns, which are sometimes 10 feet long, are apt to be entangled in the branches of trees, which gives those who are surprised by them time to escape. They are excellent swimmers, and will cross the largest rivers without any difficulty. They run wild in great troops on the coast of Malabar. Strangers are allowed to hunt and kill them at pleasure. The following varieties are mentioned by Messrs. Pennant and Kerr:

1. *BOS BUBALUS ANOA* is a native of the island Celebes, and is not bigger than a middle sized sheep, very fierce and wild, of a dark ash colour, inhabiting the rocks. Mr Loten, when in India, put some of them into a paddock, and in one night's time they killed 14 or 15 of his deer by ripping up their bellies. No particular description has yet been given of it.

3. *BOS BUBALUS GUAVERA* has a hunch on the back, which stands up in a sharp ridge; and the lower half of the legs are white. It inhabits Ceylon.

4. *BOS BUBALUS SEMINUDUS* has small horns, compressed sideways, taper, sharp pointed, and backwards. The rump and thighs are

naked, whence the epithet *seminudus*, half-naked. It is small, of the size of a Welsh runt. The hair on the fore part of the body is bristly, and so thin that the skin appears. On the rump are two dusky perpendicular stripes, and on the thighs two transverse.

vi. *BOS CAFER*, the CAPE BUFFALO, inhabits the interior part of Africa; N. of the Cape of Good Hope, but does not extend to the N. of the Tropic. They are said to be greatly superior in size to the largest English ox; they hang their heads down, and have a most ferocious and malevolent appearance. They are excessively fierce and dangerous to travellers; will lie quietly in wait in the woods, and rush suddenly on passengers, and trample them, their horses, and oxen of draught, under their feet. They will even return to the attack, and lick the slaughtered bodies. They are prodigiously swift, and so strong, that a young one of 3 years of age, being placed with 6 tame oxen in a waggon, could not by their united force be moved from the spot. They are also found in the interior parts of Guinea; but are so fierce and dangerous, that the negroes when in chase of other animals are afraid to shoot at them. The lion, which can break the back of the strongest domestic oxen at one blow, cannot kill this species, except by leaping on its back, and suffocating it by fixing his talons about its nose and mouth. He often perishes in the attempt; but leaves the marks of his fury about the mouth and nose of the beast. They live in great herds, especially in Krake-Kamma, and other deserts of the Cape; and retire during the day into the thick forests. They are reckoned good meat by the Dutch of the Cape. They are called *Aurochs*, but differ totally from the European. The warmth of the climate has prevented the vast length and abundance of hair which distinguishes the former, and the luxuriance of herbage in this country has given it the vast superiority of size. Dr Sparrman, describing the death of one that was shot, informs us, that "immediately after the report of the gun, the buffalo fell upon its knees: that he afterwards raised himself up, and ran 700 or 800 paces into a thicket; and directly, with a most dreadful bellowing, gave us to understand, that it was all over with him. This creature, as well as most of the larger kind of game, was shot by a Hottentot. The best huntsmen among the farmers are obliged to make use of Hottentots as bush-hunters; as in their skin cloaks they do not excite the attention of the wild beasts so much as the Europeans do in their dress. They are likewise ready to go barefoot, and crawl softly upon their bellies, till they come within a proper distance of the animal. When the buffalo at length is irritated, a Hottentot can much easier escape from danger than a European. I made a draught and took the dimensions of this buffalo. The entrails perfectly resembled those of an ox; but were much larger, and indeed gave us no little trouble in clearing them away; for the diameter of this creature's body was full 3 feet: the length 8 feet, the height 5½, and the fore legs 2½ long; the larger hoofs were 5 inches over; from the tip of the muzzle to the horns was 22 inches. This animal in shape, (see *Plate XXVI.*) very much resembled

sembled the common ox; but the buffalo has much stouter limbs, in proportion to its height and length. Their fetlocks hang likewise nearer to the ground. The horns are singular, both in their form and position: the bases are 13 inches broad and only an inch distant from each other; by which there is formed between them a narrow channel, in a great measure bare of hair. Measuring them from this, the horns rise up in a spherical form, with an elevation of 3 inches at most. In this way they extend over a great part of the back, viz. from the nape of the neck to the distance of 34 inches from the eyes; so that the part from which they grow out, does not occupy a space less than 18 or 20 inches in circumference. From hence bending down on each side of the neck, and becoming more cylindrical by degrees, they form a curve, the convex part of which is directed towards the ground, and the point up in the air: which, however, at the same time is generally inclined backwards. The distance between the points of the horns is frequently above 6 feet: the colour is black; and the surface, to within about a 3d part, measured from the base, is very rough and craggy, with cavities sometimes an inch deep. Neither these cavities, nor the elevations which are formed between them, appear to be at all accidental, as there is a tolerable similarity between these excrescences, though they are very different in different buffaloes. The ears are 4 feet in length, somewhat pendant, and directed by the lower edges of the horns. The tips of the ears are notched and shrivelled up in various ways, which probably proceeds from the wounds these creatures frequently receive in their battles with each other, and from the rents they get in the briars and almost impenetrable thickets through which they pass. The hairs of the buffalo are of a dark brown colour, about an inch long; harsh; and on such males as are advanced in years, very thin, especially on the middle of the sides of the belly: hence they appear at some distance as if they were girt with a belt; and what contributes not a little to this appearance is, that the buffaloes in general are very fond of rolling in the mire. The hairs on the knees are in most buffaloes somewhat longer than those on the rest of the body, and lie as it were in whirls. The hoofs are somewhat sunk within their prominent crura. This, together with their near situation to the bases of the horns, which hang somewhat like their pendant dangling ears, and its usual method of holding its head inclined to one side, gives the buffalo a fierce and treacherous aspect. His disposition corresponds with his countenance. He hides himself among the trees, and skulks there till somebody comes very near him, when he rushes out at once and attacks him. Not content with killing the person whom he attacks, he afterwards tramples upon him with his hoofs and horns, and with his horns and teeth tears to pieces and mangles the whole body, stripping off the skin by licking it with his tongue. Notwithstanding this, the buffalo will bear to be hunted; (see HUNTING,) though sometimes he will turn and pursue his hunter, whose only dependence in that case is upon the swiftness of his steed. The surest way to escape is to ride up a hill, as the great

bulk of the buffalo's body prevents him from being able to vie with the fine limbed horse in swiftness; though, on the other hand, the buffalo, in going down hill, gets on much faster than the horse. The flesh of the buffalo is coarse and not very fat, but full of juice, and of a high and not disagreeable flavour. The hide is thick and tough, and is in great request with the farmers for thongs and harnesses; being the only halters that can be depended upon for securing horses and oxen; so that they cannot get loose by snapping them asunder, which they are otherwise apt to do when the lions and wolves make their appearance in the neighbourhood."

vii. *BOS GRUNNIENS*, or hog cow, has short, erect, sheep pointed cylindrical horns bent outwards. The body is so hairy, that the hair hangs down upon its knees like a goat. The colour of the body is black, but the front is white. It has bristles on its back, and hind-legs, and it grunts like a hog. The tail resembles that of a horse, and is covered with very long flowing silky hairs. It is an inhabitant of the N. of Asia. Mr Kerr enumerates 4 varieties of this species, viz.

1. *BOS GRUNNIENS ECORNIS*. It is a domesticated breed, and has no horns, but is furnished with an immense thickness of bone on the forehead.

2. *BOS GRUNNIENS FERUS*, the wild grunting ox, inhabits Tangut, Mongolia, Thibet, Siberia, China, Persia, and India. The size is various, but some individuals are so very large, that it is said they have tails 6 feet long, which do not reach the ground. They are of tremendous fierceness, and when wounded turn furiously on the assailant, whom they never fail to destroy, if he does not escape instantly. Their flesh, when full grown is hardly eatable.

3. *BOS GRUNNIENS CHAINOUK* is a domesticated variety of the wild breed (N. 2.) which it resembles in every thing, excepting that it is subject to great variety of colour.

4. *BOS GRUNNIENS SARLYK* is a degenerated race, not particularly described, but supposed to be a hybrid produce between the genuine breed and the cattle of the country. All the domesticated breeds retain much of their original fierceness and are easily irritated, especially at the sight of any thing red, on which account, the natives cut off the sharp points of their horns. They are employed in draughts and carriages.

viii. *BOS INDICUS*, the INDIAN ox, with all its varieties, are considered by Dr Gmelin, as varieties of the *BOS TAURUS*, (§ xi.) but, as Mr Kerr observes, "many of them have such remarkable differences as would constitute, in other genera, sufficient marks for specific distinction." They have a large fatty lump on the shoulders. They differ much in size and in the form of their horns. Some are very large, and of a reddish colour; with horns short, and bending close to the neck, others very small, with horns almost upright, bending a little forward. The following are the chief varieties:

1. *BOS INDICUS MAJOR*, with short horns bending backward, inhabits India, Africa and Madagascar. The lump is composed entirely of fat, and is esteemed a great delicacy. This breed grows to a vast size; the neck is prodigiously thick.

thick, and the legs rather short in proportion. They intermix with the common species, and in a few generations the lump disappears.

2. *BOS INDICUS MINIMUS*, is of a very diminutive size, being not larger than a great dog, but has a very fierce look. It inhabits Surat, and is used to draw children in small carts.

3. *BOS INDICUS MINOR*, the ZEBU, or LITTLE INDIAN BUFFALO, has short erect horns turned a little forwards, with a lump on the shoulders. See *Plate XXVI*. It is about the size of a calf 6 months old, and inhabits India, Persia, and China. It is the common beast of burden in India, and is also used to draw carriages and even for riding.

ix. *BOS MOSCHATUS*, the MUSK OX of Hudson's bay, is about the size of a Scotch bullock; has a thick body and short legs. The horns are large, and are united at their origin in the skull; but immediately after, they fall down on each side of the crown of the head, then taper away small, the points turning up, and out. See *Plate XXIV*. The horns of an old bull are about 2 feet in length, as well as in circumference, and weigh about 30 lb each. The hair is black, and grows to a great length; underneath which is a very fine ash-coloured wool, superior to Vigonia wool. The male only has the curious scalp; the female is covered with hair. These animals frequent the country about 100 miles inwards to the N. W. of Churchill river, in Hudson's bay, where they are very numerous. They live in herds of from 30, to 80 or 100. The bulls are very few in proportion to the cows. It is rare to see more than 2 or 3 full grown bulls with the largest herd; and from the number of males which at times are found dead, the Indians are of opinion that they kill each other in contending for the females at the rutting season. They are then so jealous of their mistresses, that they run at either man or beast who offers to approach them; and have been seen to run and bellow even at ravens, and other large birds which chanced to fly or light near them. They go to rut in August. The females bring forth their young about the end of May, or beginning of June, and have only one at a time. They delight most in the rocky and mountainous parts of the barren grounds. Though a beast of an apparently unwieldy form, yet it climbs the rocks with great ease and agility, and is nearly as sure footed as a goat. Though they seem fondest of grass, yet in winter they eat moss or any other herbage: also the tops of the willows and the brush of the pine tree. The flesh no ways resembles that of the western buffalo; but is more like that of the elk, the fat being of a clear white, slightly tinged with azure. The calves and young heifers are exceeding good eating; but the flesh of the bulls both smell and taste so strong of musk, as to render it very disagreeable. It seems to have been for want of better information, that Mr Drage asserts the heart to be the most impregnated: had he said the kidneys, he would have been much nearer the truth. The urine must contain this scent in a very great degree; for the penis is always lubricated with a brown gummy substance, so highly scented with musk, that after having been kept for several years it does

not seem to have lost any of its quality. The dung of this animal, though so large, is all in little round knobs; and so exactly like that of the varying hare, both in size and colour, that it would be easy to mistake them were it not for the quantity. The Indians kill great numbers of them. From 2000 to 4000 lb. of the flesh frozen is brought to Prince of Wales' fort annually, and is served out to the Europeans.

x. *BOS PUMILUS*, the DWARF OX, has horns almost erect, which close at the base, recede in the middle, and approach at the points. It inhabits Africa, and was seen at Cairo by Belon who says it came from Morocco. It is larger than a roe, but less than a stag; has a thick neck, elevated shoulders, and short legs: the hair is brown and shining, and the tail is terminated by long and coarse hairs.

xi. I. *BOS TAURUS*, (the DOMESTIC BULL and COW,) has cylindrical horns bent outwards and loose dewlaps. The BULL, or male, is naturally a fierce and terrible animal. When the cows are in season, he is perfectly ungovernable and often altogether furious. When chastised, he has an air of fullen majesty, and often tears up the ground with his feet and horns. The principal use of the bull is to propagate the species; though he might be trained to labour, his obedience cannot be depended on. A bull, like a stallion, should be the most handsome of his species. He should be large, well made, and in good heart; he should have a black eye, and a fierce aspect, but an open front; a short head; thick short, and blackish horns, and long shaggy ears. A short and straight nose, large and full breast and shoulders, thick and fleshy neck, firm reins, straight back, thick fleshy legs, and a long tail well covered with hair. Castration remarkably softens the nature of this animal; it destroys his fire and impetuosity, and renders him mild and tractable, without diminishing his strength; on the contrary, after this operation, his weight is increased, and he becomes fitter for the purpose of ploughing, &c. See *Ox*, § 2. The females of all those species of animals which we keep in flocks, and whose increase is the principal object, are much more useful than the males. The cow produces milk, butter, cheese, &c. which are principal articles in our food, and besides answers many useful purposes in various arts. Cows are generally in season, and receive the bull from the beginning of May to the middle of July. The time of gestation is 9 months, which nature brings the veal to our markets from the beginning of January to the end of April. See *CALF*. However luxury has fallen upon methods of interrupting this natural course, and veal may be had almost every month in the year. Cows, when properly managed, are very subject to abortion. In the time of gestation, therefore, they ought to be observed with more than ordinary care, they should leap ditches, &c. Neither should they be suffered to draw in the plough or other carriage. They should be put into the best pasture, and should not be milked for six weeks or two months before they bring forth their young. The cow comes to the age of puberty in 12 months, but the bull requires two years: but

though they are capable of propagating at these ages, it is better to restrain them till they be full 3 years. From 3 to 5 years those animals are in full vigour; but when older, they are fit for nothing but to be fed for the butcher. A milk cow, ought to be chosen young, fleshy, and with a brisk eye. The heaviest and most bulky animals neither sleep so profoundly, nor so long, as the smaller ones. The sleep of the ox is short and light; he wakes at the least noise. He lies generally on the left side, and the kidney of that side is always larger than the other. There is great variety in the colour of oxen. A reddish or black colour is most esteemed. The hair should be glossy, thick, and soft; for when otherwise, the animal is either not in health, or has a weakly constitution. The ox eats very quick, and soon fills his first stomach; after which he lies down to ruminate or chew the cud. The 1st and 2d stomachs are continuations of the same bag, and very capacious. After the grass has been chewed over again, it is reduced to a kind of mash, not unlike baked spinage; and under this form it is sent down to the 3d stomach, where it remains and digests for some time; but the digestion is not fully completed till it comes to the 4th stomach, from which it is thrown down to the guts. The contents of the 1st and 2d stomachs are a collection of grass and other vegetables roughly macerated; a fermentation, however, soon commences, which makes the grass swell. The communication between the 2d and 3d stomach is by an opening much smaller than the gullet, and not sufficient for the passage of the food in this state. Whenever then the two first stomachs are distended with food, they begin to contract, or rather perform a kind of reaction. This reaction compresses the food, and makes it endeavour to get out: now the gullet being larger than the passage between the 2d and 3d stomachs, the pressure of the stomach necessarily forces it up the gullet. The action of ruminating, however, appears to be in a great measure voluntary: as animals of this kind have a power of encreasing the reaction of their stomachs. After the food undergoes a 2d mastication, it is then reduced into a thin pulp, which easily passes from the 2d to the 3d stomach; where it is still further macerated; from thence it passes to the 4th, where it is reduced to a perfect mucilage, every way prepared for being taken up by the lacteals, and converted into nourishment. What confirms this account of chewing the cud is, that as long as these animals suck or feed upon liquid aliment, they never ruminate; and in the winter, when they are obliged to feed upon hay and other dry victuals, they ruminate more than when they feed upon fresh grass. Bulls, cows, and oxen, are fond of licking themselves, especially when lying at rest. But this practice should be prevented as much as possible; for as the hair is an indigestible substance, it lies in the stomach or guts, and is gradually coated by a glutinous substance, which in time hardens into round stones of a considerable bulk, which sometimes kills them, but always prevents their fattening, as the stomach is rendered incapable of digesting the food so well as it ought. The age of these animals may be dis-

tinguished by the teeth and horns. The first fore teeth fall out at the age of six months and are succeeded by others of a darker colour, and broader. At the end of 16 months, the next milk teeth likewise fall out; and at the beginning of the fourth year all the fore teeth are renewed, and then they are long, pretty white, and equal: However, as the animal advances in years, they become unequal and blackish. The horns of oxen, 4 years of age, are small pointed, neat, and smooth, but thickest near the head: This thick part next season is pushed further from the head by a horny cylinder, which is also terminated by another swelling part, and so on (for as long as the ox lives, the horns continue to grow;) and these swellings become so many annular knots by which the age may easily be reckoned: But from the point to the first knot must be counted three years, and every succeeding knot only one year. The bull, cow, and ox, generally live about 14 or 15 years. Ox beef is very nourishing, and yields a strong aliment; the flesh of a cow, when well fattened and young, is not much inferior. Bull beef is hard, tough, and dry; for which reason it is not much used for food. Veal is well tasted, easy of digestion, and rather keeps the body open than otherwise. For the uses of the various parts of these animals, See Ox. The northern countries of Europe produce the best cattle of this kind. In general, they bear cold better than heat; for this reason they are not so numerous in the southern countries. There are but few in Asia to the south of Armenia, or in Africa beyond Egypt and Barbary. America produced none of this species till they were carried there by the Europeans. But the largest are to be met with in Denmark, Podolia, the Ukraïna, and among the Calmuck Tartars; likewise those of Ireland, England, Holland, and Hungary, are much larger than those of Persia, Turkey, Greece, Italy, and Spain; but those of Barbary are least of all. In all mountainous countries, as Wales, the Highlands of Scotland, &c. the black cattle are small, but hardy; and when fattened make excellent beef. In Lapland, they are mostly white, and many of them want horns. The British breed of cattle, Mr Pendant observes, has in general been so much improved by foreign mixture, that it is difficult to point out the original kind of these islands. Those which may be supposed to have been originally British are far inferior in size to those on the northern part of the European continent; the cattle of the Highlands of Scotland are exceedingly small; and many of them, males as well as females, are hornless: the Welch runts are much larger: the black cattle of Cornwall are of the same size with the last. The large breeds, now cultivated through most parts of Great Britain, are either entirely of foreign extraction, or our own improved by a cross with the foreign kind. The Lincolnshire kind derive their size from the Holstein breed; and the large hornless cattle, that are bred in some parts of England, come originally from Poland. There are many varieties of this species: among which the following are mentioned by Mr Kerr and prof. Gmelin.

2. *BOS TAURUS ABYSSINICUS*, the Abyssinian
A 2 OX,

ox, has a hunch on its back, and the horns adhere to the skin only, and hang pendulous. It inhabits Abyssinia and other parts of Africa.

3. *BOS TAURUS AFRICANUS*, the LANT, is white and has elegant horns, slender legs and black hoofs. It inhabits Africa, and is swifter than most horses. The hide is said to be impenetrable by a bullet. Some reckon it a species of antelope.

4. *BOS TAURUS BISON* has horns reflected forwards, a hunched back and a long mane. It is white, and is supposed by Buffon to be the same with the *BONASUS* (§ iv.) and the *FERUS*: (N. 5.) But Gmelin ranks them as distinct. It is quite a different animal from the American Bison. (§ i.)

5. *BOS TAURUS FERUS*, the WILD OX, inhabits the marshy woods of Poland, Prussia, and Lithuania. It is supposed to be the original stock of all the European domestic breeds. It has thick short horns, reflected forward, and a curly forehead. About 250 years ago, there was found in Scotland a wild race of cattle, which were of a pure white colour, and had, if we may believe Boethius, manes like lions. Mr Pennant says, he cannot but give credit to the relation; having seen in the woods of Drumlanrig in North Britain, and in the park belonging to Chillingham castle in Northumberland, herds of cattle probably derived from the savage breed. They had lost their manes, but retained their colour and fierceness; they were of a middle size, long legged, and had black muzzels and ears; their horns fine, with a bold and elegant bend.—The keeper of those at Chillingham said, that the weight of the ox was 38 stones; of the cow, 28; that their hides were more esteemed by the tanners than those of the tame; and they would give sixpence per stone more for them. These cattle were wild as any deer; on being approached they would instantly take to flight, and gallop away at full speed; never mix with the tame species, nor come near the house, unless constrained to it by hunger in very severe weather. When it is necessary to kill any, they are always shot: if the keeper only wounds the beast, he must take care to keep behind some tree, or his life would be in danger from the furious attacks of the animal, which will never desist till a period is put to its life. Frequent mention is made of our savage cattle by historians. One relates, that K. Robert Bruce was (in chasing these animals) preserved from the rage of a wild bull, by the intrepidity of one of his courtiers, from which he and his lineage acquired the name of TURN-BULL. Fitz-Stephen names these animals *uri sylvestres*, among those that harboured in the great forest that in his time lay adjacent to London. Another enumerates, among the provisions at the great feast of Nevil Abp. of York, six wild bulls; and Sibbald assures us, that in his days a wild and white species was found in the mountains of Scotland, but agreeing in form with the common sort. These were probably the same with the *bifontes jubati* of Pliny found then in Germany, and might have been common to the continent and our

the loss of their savage vigour by confinement occasion some change in the external e, as is frequent with wild animals deliberty; and to that we may ascribe mane. The *URUS* of the Hercynian

forest described by Cæsar (lib. vi.) was of this kind; the same which is called by the modern Germans, *aurochs*, i. e. *bos sylvestris*.

6. *BOS TAURUS MADAGASCARIENSIS*, the BOURY, or Madagascar ox, is of a large size and white colour, with pendulous ears, and a hunched back. It inhabits Adel and Madagascar.

7. *BOS TAURUS TINIANENSIS*, the Tinian ox, is of a white colour, but has black ears, and inhabits the isle of Tinian.

(1.) BOSA, a river of Sardinia.

(2.) BOSA, or BOSSA, a town on the W. coast of Sardinia, seated on the mouth of the river (N. 1.) near which it has a harbour, 32 m. N. of Oristagni. Lon. 8. 30. E. Lat. 40. 15. N.

(3.) BOSA, in the Egyptian medicine, denoted a mass prepared of the flower of the lolium, hemp seed, and water; of the same inebriating virtue with the assis, or opium.

BOSBURY, a village in Herefordshire, near Ledbury.

(1.) BOSC, John du, Lord of Esmendreville, president of the Court of Aids at Roan, was one of the many martyrs to the protestant religion in France, during the bloody reign of Charles IX. Mr Bayle gives him an excellent character. He was made counsellor and commissary of requests in 1554; and was promoted to the 2d presidency, 26 Jan. 1562, but was beheaded the 1st of Nov. following, as one of the authors of the resistance of Roan to the arms of the king. Le Laboureur says, "he was worthy of a better fate, having all the great qualities that are to be desired in an accomplished magistrate." He wrote, 1. *Joannis Boscæi Neustriæque Duxburgiensis, De legitimis negotiis*: 2. A treatise of the Number Seven: 3. *De Numa Pompilii Sacris*, a work which gave great offence to the catholics.

(2.) BOSC, N. du, a Franciscan of the 17th century, author of several works: particularly, 1. *The Honest Woman*; to which his friend D'Ablancourt wrote a preface: 2. *The Heroic Woman*: and 3. several pieces against the Jansenists, which were little esteemed.

(3.) BOSC, Peter du, the greatest protestant preacher of his age, was the son of W. Du Bois, advocate in Rouen, and born at Bayeux, in 1623. He studied at Montauban and Saumur, and made such rapid progress, that, in 1645, he was chosen minister at Caen. He was soon considered as a perfect orator, and was repeatedly pressed to accept of the church of Charenton, but he and the people of Caen were so fond of each other, that nothing but persecution could part them. This began in 1664, when he was confined to Chalons by a *lettre de cachet*, but he was liberated soon after, and the joy of the people of all persuasions was so great, upon his return to Caen, that even the Catholics rejoiced; and one gentleman made two Franciscan friars so drunk upon the occasion, that one of them died on the spot. The Bp. of Chalons was particularly kind to him. In 1665, he began to signalize his prudence, as well as his eloquence in defending the protestant churches against persecutions. 1666, the king having published a declaration against them, all the churches sent deputies to Paris; but the drawing up their memorials was committed by the rest to M. Du Bois,

Bosc, who was deputed from those of Normandy. In 1668, he alone had an audience of the king, wherein he succeeded so well, that some melioration was obtained. And Mr Bayle observes, if it had been possible to save the reformed churches by association, he would have done it. But in 1681, he himself was interdicted; whereupon he went to Rotterdam, where he was minister till his death, in 1692. He published several volumes of sermons; and after his death, his son-in-law M. Le Gendre published a valuable collection of his memoirs, requests, petitions, &c. relating to the churches, with his speeches, letters, and poems in Greek, Latin and French.

(1.) * BOSCAGE. *n. f.* [*boscage*, Fr.] 1. Wood, or woodlands.—We bent our course thither, when we saw the appearance of land; and, the next day, we might plainly discern that it was a led flat to our sight, and full of *boscage*, which made it shew the more dark. *Bacon*. 2. The presentation of woods.—Cheerful paintings in feasting and banqueting rooms; graver stories in galleries; landscapes and *boscage*, and such wild works, in open terraces, or summer-houses. *Watson*.

(2.) BOSCAGE, among painters, a landscape representing much wood and trees.

(3.) BOSCAGE, or } in law, 1. food which trees
BOSCAGIUM, } yield to cattle; as mast,
&c. Manhood says, to be quit of Boscage is to be discharged of paying any duty for windfall wood in the forest. 2. A tax on wood.

BOSCAN, John, a Spanish poet of the 16th century, born at Barcelona. He was the friend of Garcilasso de la Vigo, another Spanish poet. These two were the first who made any great improvement in the poetry of their nation, and their pieces were printed together. Boscan, who died about A. D. 1542, principally succeeded in sonnets.

BOSCASTLE, formerly called BOTEREAUX CASTLE, a town in Cornwall, seated on the Bristol channel, 230 m. from London.

BOSCAWEN, Edward, a brave British admiral, was the second son of Hugh, lord viscount Falkland. Having early entered into the navy, he was, in 1740, captain of the *Shoreham*; and behaved with great intrepidity as a volunteer under admiral Vernon, at the taking of Porto Bello. At the siege of Carthagena, in March 1740-1, he had the command of a party of seamen, who readily attacked and took a battery of 15 twenty four pounders, though exposed to the fire of another fort of 5 guns, and was appointed to the command of the prince Frederic of 70 guns. In May 1742, he returned to England, and married Frances, daughter of William Glanville, Esq; and the same year was elected representative for Truro in Cornwall. In 1744, he was made captain of the *Dreadnought* of 60 guns; and soon after took the *Media*, a French man of war, the first king's ship taken in that war. May 3, 1747, he engaged himself under admirals Anson and Warren, in an engagement with the French fleet off Cape Finisterre, and was wounded in the shoulder with a musket ball; the whole ten French ships of war were taken. On the 15th July, he was made rear admiral of the blue, and commander in chief of the land and sea forces employed on an

expedition to the East Indies; and, on the 4th Nov. sailed from St Helen's, with 6 ships of the line, 5 frigates, and 2000 soldiers. On the 29th July, 1748, he arrived at St David's, and soon after laid siege to Pondicherry; but the men growing sickly, and the monsoons expected, the siege was raised, and he showed himself as much the general as the admiral in his retreat. Soon after he had the news of the peace, and Madras was delivered up to him by the French. In April 1750, he arrived at St Helen's in the *Exeter*, and found that in his absence he had been appointed rear admiral of the white. He was next year appointed one of the lords commissioners of the admiralty, and chosen an elder brother of the Trinity-house. In February 1755, he was appointed vice-admiral of the blue. On the 19th April, he fell in with, and took the *Alcide* and *Leys* of 64 guns each. In 1756, he was appointed vice admiral of the white; and in 1758, admiral of the blue, and commander in chief of the expedition to Cape Breton; when, in conjunction with general Amherst, and a body of troops from New England, the important fortress of Louisbourg and the whole island of Cape Breton were taken, for which he afterwards received the thanks of the House of Commons. In 1759, being appointed to the command in the Mediterranean, he arrived at Gibraltar, where hearing that the Toulon fleet, under M. de la Clue, had passed the Straits, to join that at Brest, he got under sail, and on the 18th Aug. engaged the enemy. His ship, the *Namur* of 90 guns, losing her main mast, he shifted his flag to the *Newark*; and, after a sharp engagement, took 3 large ships, and burnt two in Lagos bay, and the same year arrived at Spithead with his prizes and 2000 prisoners. On December 8, 1760, he was appointed general of the marines with a salary of L. 3000 per annum, and was also sworn one of the privy council. He died in 1761.

BOSCAW-WOAN, a village in Cornwall at the Land's-End.

BOSCH, Jacob Vanden, a painter of still life, was born at Amsterdam in 1636, and painted summer fruits of various kinds, with such natural and transparent colour, that they appeared delicious and almost real. He died in 1676.

BOSCHAERTS, Thomas Willeborts, a celebrated painter, was born at Bergen-op-zoom; and began to draw, when very young, in the books that were intended for other studies. He drew his own picture from a looking-glass, so like, that those who saw it were astonished. This he did before he had the least instruction, when he was only 12 years of age. Upon this his parents sent him to a master, that he might follow the bent of his genius; but his first master being an indifferent painter, he engaged himself with Gerard Segers; under whom he proved a most accomplished artist. Antwerp being at that time the seat of arts, he there executed such a number of noble pieces as added greatly to the splendour of that wealthy city. In 1642, Henry Frederick prince of Orange, and his son prince William, employed him in their service; and he painted portraits for most of the persons of quality then living. He died in 1670.

BOSCHAS, a species of anas. See **ANAS**, N. 6.
BOSCHI, or } a town of Italy, in the Mila-
 (1.) **BOSCO**, } nese, seated on the river Orbe.
 Lon. 9. 44. E. Lat. 44. 5. N.

(2.) **Bosco**. See **ATTACHIAMENTA**, N. 2.

BOSCOBEL, a grove in Shropshire, near White-Ladies in the parish of Tonge, noted for the oak in which Charles II. was hid, and saw the soldiers pass by in quest of him, after the battle of Worcester.

BOSCOI, or **Bosci**, [Gr. *βοσκoi*, grazers,] in ecclesiastical history, a species of monks in Palestine, who fed on grass like the beasts. The **Boscoi** are ranked among the number of Adamites, not so much on account of their habit, as food. They took no care about provision; but when any of them was hungry, he went into the fields with a knife, and gathered and eat what he could find.

BOSCOMB, a village in Wiltshire, 3 m. S. E. of Salisbury, and 9 from Sarum.

BOSCUS, [from *bosco*, to feed,] in ancient law writings, signifies a wood of any kind. It is also written **BUSCUS**, *buscaria*, and *buscale*. *Boscus* is divided into high wood, or timber, called also *saltus*, and *haut bois*; and coppice, or underwood, *sub-boscus*, or *sub-bois*.

BOSEA, **GOLDEN-ROD TREE**: A genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 53d order, Scabridæ. The calyx is pentaphyllous; there is no corolla, and the berry is monospermous. Of this genus there is but one species, viz.

BOSEA YERVAMORA. It is a native of the Canary and Caribbee islands. It has been long an inhabitant of the British botanic gardens, but has never been observed to flower in this country. It is a pretty strong woody shrub, growing with a stem as large as a man's leg; the branches come out very irregular, and make considerable shoots every summer, which should be shortened in spring. These branches retain their leaves till spring, when they fall away, and new leaves are produced in their place. It may be propagated by cuttings planted in spring; and the plants must be housed in winter, for they are too tender to bear the open air at that season.

BOSEHAM, a village in Suffex, between Chichester and Thorney Isle.

BOSGRAVE, in Suffex, N. E. of Chichester.

BOSHIES-MEN, a species of Hottentots, so called, according to Dr Sparrman, from their dwelling in woody or mountainous places. They are sworn enemies to a pastoral life; live on hunting and plunder, and never keep any animal alive for the space of one night. By this means they render themselves odious to the rest of the inhabitants of the Cape; and are pursued and exterminated like the wild beasts, whose manners they have assumed. Others are kept alive, and made slaves of. Their weapons are poisoned arrows, which, shot out of a small bow, will fly 200 paces, and will hit a mark with a tolerable degree of certainty at the distance of 50 or even 100 paces. From this distance they can convey death to the game they hunt for food, as well as to their foes, and even to so large and tremendous a beast as the lion. The Hottentot, in the mean time, safe

in his ambush, is certain of the operation of poison, which is always of the most virulent kind, and it is said he has only to wait a few minutes see the wild beast languish and die. The dwellings of these foes to a pastoral life are generally not more agreeable than their manners. Like wild beasts, bushes and cliffs in rocks serve them for houses; and some of them are said to be far worse than beasts, that their soil has been found close by their habitations. A great number of them are entirely naked; but such as have been able to procure the skin of any sort of animal great or small, cover their bodies with it from shoulders downwards as far as it will reach, weaving it till it falls off their backs in rags. Ignorant of agriculture, they wander over hills and dales, and wild roots, berries, and plants, which they eat raw, to sustain a life that this miserable food would soon extinguish, were they used to better food. Their table, however, is sometimes composed of several other dishes; such as the larvae of insects, caterpillars, white ants (the *termes*), grasshoppers, snakes, and some sorts of spiders. The **Boshies** man is nevertheless frequently in want, and famished to such a degree as to waste almost to a shadow. "It was with no small astonishment (said Dr Sparrman,) that I for the first time saw Lange Kloof a lad belonging to this race of men with his face, arms, legs, and body, so most distressingly small and withered, that I could not but have been induced to suppose but that he had been brought to that state by the fever that was epidemic in those parts, had I not seen him at the same time run like a lapwing. It required but a few weeks to bring one of those starvelings to a thriving state, and even to make him fat; their stomachs being strong enough to digest the greatest quantity of food with which they are crammed as they may rather be said to bolt than eat." The capture of slaves from among this race of men is by no means difficult; and is effected (Dr Sparrman informs us) in the following manner. "Several farmers join together and take a journey to that part of the country where the **Boshies** men live. They, as well as their **Lego-Hottentots**, unless such **Boshies**-men as have been caught some time before, and have been trained up to fidelity in their service, endeavour to spy out where the wild **Boshies**-men have their haunts. This is best discovered by the smoke of their fires. They are found in societies from 10 to 100, reckoning great and small. Notwithstanding this, the farmers will venture in a dark night to set upon them with 6 or 8 people, which they contrive to do by previously stationing themselves at some distance round about the kraal. They then give the alarm by firing a gun or two. By this means there is such consternation spread among these savages, that it is only the most bold among them that have the courage to break through the circle and steal off. These the captors are glad enough to get rid of at so easy a rate; being better pleased with those that are stupid, timorous, and struck with amazement, and who consequently allow themselves to be taken and carried into bondage. They are however, at first treated by gentle methods; that is, the victors intermix the fairest promises with their threats, and endeavour, if possible, to show

[illegible][illegible]

Turks; but they were on the point of being expelled from it by the Christians, when the Spaniards invaded Sicily, and obliged the emperor to conclude the peace of Passarowitz in 1718, by which he gave up Bosnia to the Turks. It is 200 miles long and 75 broad. It is a barren country, and but little cultivated: the principal revenue arising from the silver mines. The falcons of Bosnia are held in great esteem.

(1.) * BOSOM. *n. f.* [*bosome, bosom, Sax.*] 1. The embrace of the arms holding any thing to the breast. 2. The breast; the heart.—

Our good old friend,

Lay comforts to your *bosom*; and bestow

Your needful counsel to our businesses. *Shak.*

3. The folds of the dress that cover the breast.—

Put now thy hand into thy *bosom*; and he put his hand into his *bosom*: and when he took it out behold his hand was leprous as snow. *Exodus iv.*

6. 4. Inclosure; compass; embrace.—Unto laws thus received by a whole church, they which live within the *bosom* of that church, must not think it a matter indifferent, either to yield or not to yield, obedience. *Hooker.* 5. The breast, as the seat of the passions.—Anger resteth in the *bosoms* of fools. *Eccles.*—

From jealousy's tormenting strife

For ever be thy *bosom* freed. *Prior.*

Unfortunate Fallard! O, who can name

The pangs of rage, of sorrow, and of shame;

That with mix'd tumult in thy *bosom* swell'd,
When first thou saw'st thy bravest troops repell'd!

Addison.

Here acting *bosoms* wear a visage gay,

And stifled groans frequent the ball and play.

Young.

6. The breast, as the seat of tenderness.—Their soul was poured out into their mother's *bosom*, *Lam.*—

No further seek his virtues to disclose,

Or draw his frailties from their dread abode;

There they alike in trembling hope repose,

The *bosom* of his father and his God. *Gray.*

7. The breast, as the receptacle of secrets.—If I covered my transgression as Adam, by hiding my iniquity in my *bosom*. *Job.* 8. Any receptacle, close or secret; as, the *bosom* of the earth; the *bosom* of the deep. 9. The tender affections; kindness; favour.—

Whose age has charms in it, whose title more,

To pluck the common *bosoms* on his side.

Shakespeare.

To whom the great Creator thus reply'd:

O Son, in whom my soul hath chief delight;

Son of my *bosom*, Son who art alone

My word, my wisdom, and effectual might!

Paradise Lost.

10. Inclination; desire. Not used.—

If you can pace your wisdom

In that good path that I could wish it go,

You shall have your *bosom* on this wretch.

Shakespeare.

(2.) * Bosom, in composition, implies intimacy; confidence; fondness †.—

††† Bosom, in these senses, is very properly styled by Dr Ash, an adjective, signifying "intimate, firm, faithful." The hyphen is therefore quite unnecessary, as it makes a compound where there ought to be none. The English language is of late rendered quite anomalous by the useless multitude of such compounds. See HYPHEN.

No more that thane of Cawdor shall deceive
Our *bosom* interest; go, pronounce his death

Shakespeare

This Antonia,

Being the *bosom-lover* † of my lord,

Must needs be like my lord. *Shakespeare*

Those domestick traitors, *bosom-thieves*

Whom custom hath call'd wives; the ready helps

To betray the heady husbands, rob the easy.

Ben Jonson

—He sent for his *bosom-friends*, † with whom he most confidently consulted, and shewed the paper to them; the contents whereof he could not conceive. *Clarendon.*—The fourth privilege of friendship is that which is here specified in the text, communication of secrets. A *bosom-secret*, and *bosom-friend*, are usually put together. *South.*—She who was a *bosom-friend* of her royal mistress he calls an insolent woman, the worst of her sex. *Addison.*

* To Bosom. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To incline close in the bosom.—

Bosom up my counsel;

You'll find it wholesome.

Shakespeare

I do not think my sister so to seek,

Or so unprincipled in virtue's book,

And the sweet peace that *bosoms* goodness ever

Milton

2. To conceal in privacy.—

The groves, the fountains, and the flow'rs

That open now their choicest *bosom'd* smells,

Reserv'd for night, and kept for thee in store.

Par. Lost.

Towers and battlements it sees,

Bosom'd high in tufted trees,

Where perhaps some beauty lies,

The synosure of neighbouring eyes.

Milton.

To happy convents, *bosom'd* deep in vines,

Where slumber abbots, purple as their wines.

Pope.

* BOSON. *n. f.* [corrupted from *boatswain*.]

The barks upon the billows ride,

The master will not stay;

The merry *boson* from his side

His whistle takes, to check and chide

The ling'ring lad's delay.

Dryden.

BOSPHORICUM MARMOR, a name given by the ancients to a species of marble, of a yellowish white colour, with beautiful veins of a somewhat darker hue; called also, from its transparency, PHENGITES.

BOSPHORUS, or BOSPORUS, [from *βας*, a bullock, and *πορος*, passage,] in ancient geography, a long and narrow sea, which it is supposed a bullock may swim over. In a more general sense, it is a long narrow sea running in between two lands, or separating two continents, and by which two seas, or a gulph and a sea, are made to communicate with each other: In which sense it amounts to the same with an arm of the sea, channel, or strait; called by the Italians, *faro*; the Latins, *fretum*; and the French, *pas*, *manche*. The name is

is chiefly confined to two straits in the Mediterranean sea, viz.

1. **BOSPHORUS CIMMERIUS**, or the **SCYTHIAN BOSPHORUS**, so named from its resemblance to the Thracian; (N. 2.) now more commonly called the straits of **KAPHA**, or **KIDERLERI**, from two cities standing on it.

2. **BOSPHORUS THRACIUS**, the **THRACIAN BOSPHORUS**, now commonly called the **STRAITS OF CONSTANTINOPLE**, or the *Channel of the Black Sea*, the strait through which the Black Sea pours its waters into the Propontis. It divides Europe from Asia, and is about a mile broad, between Constantinople on the European side, and Scutari on the Asiatic. Various reasons have been assigned, why the name *Bosphorus* was first given to this strait. Nymphius tell us, on the authority of Accaron, that the Phrygians, desiring to pass the Thracian strait, built a vessel, on whose prow was the figure of a bullock; and which was hence called *bos*, and served them for a ferry-boat. Dionysius, Valerius Flaccus, Callimachus, Apollodorus, Marcellinus, &c. say that Io, being transformed into a cow by Juno, passed this strait swimming, which hence was called *bosphorus*.—Arrian tells us, that the Phrygians were enjoined by the oracle, to follow the rout which a bullock should mark out to them; and that, upon stirring her up, it jumped into the sea to avoid their pursuit, and swam over this strait. Others say, that an ox, tormented by a gad-fly, threw itself in, and swam over: and others, that anciently the inhabitants of these coasts, when they would pass over, joined little boats together, and had them drawn over by bullocks, &c. Tournefort supposes the name to have arisen from the ox market being held near this strait.

(1.) **BOSQUET**, Francis, one of the most learned prelates of France in the 17th century, was born at Marbonne, and studied at Toulouse.—Before he took orders he had been intendant of Guienne and Languedoc, Attorney general of Normandy, and Counsellor of state. In 1648, his friend John de Plantavit resigned his bishopric of Lodeve to him. In 1655, he was made Bp. of Montpellier, and continued so till his death, in the 64th year, A. D. 1676. His first publication was a translation into Latin, of Plessius's Poetical abridgment of the civil law, with Notes. His principal works were, 1. A History of the Gallican Church: 2. History of the 8 popes who resided at Avignon: from 1300, to 1394: 3. The Liberties of the Gallican Church: and 4. Notes on the Canon Law.

(2.) **BOSQUET**, George, advocate in the parliament of Toulouse, under the bloody Charles IX. was author of several works; particularly a Latin treatise “on the Edict of Henry II. concerning marriages contracted by children of a good family, without the consent of their parents;” printed at Toulouse, in 8vo, 1358: and *Hugonorum Hereticorum Tolose conjuratorum profligatio*, 4to, 1563. This last work had the honour of being condemned to be burnt.

BOSQUETS, in gardening, [from *boschetto*, Ital. a little wood,] groves or compartments in gardens formed by branches of trees disposed either regularly in rows, or wildly and irregularly,

according to the fancy of the owner. A *bosquet* is either a plot of ground inclosed with palisades of horn-beam, the middle of it being filled with tall trees, as elm or the like, the tops of which make a tuft or plume; or it consists of only high trees, as horse-chestnut, elm, &c. The ground should be kept very smooth and rolled, or else covered with grass, after the manner of green plots. In planting bosquets, care should be taken to mix the trees which produce their leaves of different shapes, and various shades of green, and hoary or mealy leaves, so as to afford an agreeable prospect. Bosquets are only proper for spacious gardens, and require a great expence to keep them up.

* **BOSS**. *n. f.* [*bossé*, Fr.] 1. A stud; an ornament raised above the rest of the work; a shining prominence.—What signifies beauty, strength, youth, fortune, embroidered furniture, or gaudy *bosses*? *L'Esfrange*.—This ivory, intended for the *bosses* of a bridle, was laid up for a prince, and a woman of Caria or Mæonia dyed it. *Pope*. 2. The part rising in the midst of any thing.—He runneth upon him, even on his neck, upon the thick *bosses* of his bucklers. *Job* xv. 26. 3. A thick body of any kind.—A *boss* made of wood, with an iron hook, to hang on the laths, or on a ladder, in which the labourer puts the mortar at the britches of the tiles. *Moxon*.—If a close appulse be made by the lips, then is framed *M*; if by the *boss* of the tongue to the palate, near the throat, then *K*. *Holder*.

BOSSA. See **BOSA**, N. 2.

* **BOSSAGE**. *n. f.* [in architecture.] 1. Any stone that has a projecture, and is laid in a place in a building to be afterwards carved. 2. Rustic work, which consists of stones, which seem to advance beyond the naked of a building, by reason of indentures or channels left in the joinings: these are chiefly in the corners of edifices, and called rustick quoins. *Builder's Dict*.

(1.) **BOSSE**, Abraham, an able engraver, born at Tours, well skilled in perspective and architecture. He wrote two treatises, which are esteemed; the one on the manner of designing, and the other upon engraving.

(2.) **BOSSE**, a conduit in the form of a tun-bellied figure. *A/b*.

(3.) **BOSSE**, in sculpture, the same with **RELIEVO**.

BOSSINEY, a town of Cornwall, on the coast, near K. Arthur's Castle, 3 m. N. W. of Camelford, 17 of Launceston, and 333 from London. It has fairs Aug. 3, and Nov. 21, and sends two members to parliament. Lon. 5. o. W. Lat. 50. 40. N.

BOSSINGSALE, a village in Devonshire, N. W. of Dartmouth.

BOSSINGTON, a village in Hampshire, near the 3 Wallops.

BOSSORA. See **BASSORA**.

BOSSU, Rene le, born at Paris in 1631, was admitted a canon regular in the abbey of St Germevieve, in 1649; and, after a year's probation, took the habit. He taught literature with great success in several religious houses for 12 years. He then published a parallel betwixt the principles of

of Aristotle's natural philosophy and those of Des Cartes, with a view to reconcile them; which was but indifferently received. His next treatise was on epic poetry; which Boileau declared one of the best compositions on that subject in the French language, and which produced a great friendship between them. He died in 1680, and left a great number of MSS.

BOSSUET, James Benigne, bishop of Meux, was born at Dijon, in 1727. He distinguished himself by his preaching, and his zeal in endeavouring to bring over the Protestants of France to the Romish church; by his opposition to Quietism; and by his numerous writings in French and Latin, which have been collected, and printed at Paris in 17 vols 4to. He died at Paris, in 1704, aged 77.

BOSSUPT, a town of France, in one of the new departments, into which the ci-devant Austrian Netherlands are now divided. It is 8 m. S. of Louvain. Lon. 4. 30. E. Lat. 50. 52. N.

BOSSUS, Matthew, distinguished by his virtue and learning, was born in 1427. In 1451, he commenced divine at Lateran, and afterwards taught divinity at Padua. His orations, sermons, and letters, have been often printed. He also wrote an apology for Phalaris, and other works. He died at Padua, in 1502, aged 75.

BOST, a very strong town of Persia, and capital of Zablestan. Lon. 64. 15. E. Lat. 31. 50. N.

BOSTALL, a village in Buckinghamshire, N. of Bernwood Forest.

BOSTANCE, *n. f. obs.* a boasting. *Chauc.*

BOSTANGI BASCHI, or chief gardener, in the Turkish affairs, an officer who has the superintendence of all the gardens, water-works, and houses of pleasure, with the workmen employed therein. This post is one of the most considerable in the Turkish court. He has the emperor's ear, and, on that account, is much courted by all who have business depending at the Port; he holds the rudder when he goes on the water; he is governor of all the villages on the channel of the Black Sea, and has the command of above 10,000 **BOSTANGIS**, in the seraglio, and other places about Constantinople.

BOSTANGIS are persons employed in the garden of the seraglio, out of whose number are collected those that row in the Grand Signior's brigantines, when he goes a fishing, or takes the air upon the canal. Those who row on the left hand are only capable of mean employments in the gardens; but those who row on the right may be promoted to the charge of **BOSTANGI BASCHI**.

BOSTOCK, or **BOTESTOCK**, a town in Cheshire, N. W. of Middlewich.

(1.) **BOSTON**, a corporation town of Lincolnshire, which sends two members to parliament. It is commodiously seated on both sides of the Witham, over which it has a high wooden bridge; and, being near the sea, enjoys a good trade. It is 27 m. S. E. of Lincoln. It has fairs, May 4, and July 11, and from the 11th to the 20th of Dec. It has a spacious market place, and the largest parish church without cross isles in Europe. The steeple serves for a land-mark. It is 27 m.

E. of Lincoln, and 115 N. E. of London. Lon. 1. 15. E. Lat. 53. 1. N.

(2.) **BOSTON**, a village in Middlesex, W. of Little Ealing.

(3.) **BOSTON**, the metropolis of Massachusetts and the most flourishing town of the Eastern State of N. America. It was founded in 1630, and is situated in Suffolk county, in a peninsula of about 4 miles in circumference, at the head of Massachusetts bay. The isthmus which connects the peninsula to the main land is at the S. S. W. end of the town, which is 2 m. long, and 9 furlongs broad. It is not quite regularly built, but lies in the form of an amphitheatre on a rising ground around the head of the bay, which gives it an agreeable appearance in sailing up the harbour. It consists of 79 streets, most of them paved and enlightened with lamps; 38 lanes, and 21 alleys besides several courts and squares. On these are erected about 2000 houses, which are mostly of wood, and cover about 900 acres of land. The public buildings are, a state-house, a court-house, a work-house, a bridewell, a council chamber, a treasurer and secretary's office, and a powder magazine: besides 6 public schools, and 17 churches viz. 9 for Congregationalists, 3 for Episcopalians, 2 for Baptists, 1 for Quakers, 1 for Universalists and 1 for Roman Catholics. There are 3 banks in the Massachusetts, incorporated in 1784, and consisting of 800 shares at 500 dollars each; the National; and the Union bank, incorporated in 1790, and consisting of 100,000 shares, at 8 dollars each. Several humane and literary societies are also incorporated, for benevolent purposes, and promoting useful knowledge. On the W. side of the town, lies the Mall, a handsome public walk, ornamented with several rows of trees; and Baco hill, on which an elegant monument is erected in commemoration of some of the most important events in the revolution. On the E. side lies the harbour, which, though large enough to contain 500 ships at anchor, has so narrow an entrance as hardly to admit two ships abreast. About 10 wharfs are erected along the harbour, in front of the town. One of these extends about 600 yards into the sea; and on the N. side of it a large range of storehouses is built. A light-house is erected on a rock, on the N. side of the harbour, which contains about 40 small islands, that produce corn, hay, and pasturage. No town in the United States has been more retarded in its progress than Boston. In 1676, a fire consumed 45 houses, 1 church, and several storehouses: In 1697, another fire destroyed 80 houses, 70 warehouses, and several ships. In 1727, it was much damaged by an earthquake. In 1747, the court-house and public records were burnt: In 1760, houses and property to the amount of 444,000 dollars, were destroyed by fire, which also did much damage in 1761 and 1762. During the siege of 1775, upwards of 400 houses were destroyed, by the British troops: In 1778, above 100 houses were burnt; and, July 30, 1780, 40 houses, 7 rope works, and several storehouses were entirely consumed, to the amount of 200,000 dollars. Notwithstanding these misfortunes, the towns in America are increasing more rapidly in commerce, population, and manufactures. Among the latter are rum, beer, cordage, sail cloth, tallow, and spermaceti candles, cards, glass, and paper hangings; of which last 24,000 pieces are annually

annually made. There are 30 distilleries, 11 roperies, 8 sugar-houses, 2 breweries, and 1 glass-house, in Boston; which carries on an extensive commerce with all the principal commercial countries in Europe, as well as with China and the E. Indies. The exports in 1794, amounted to 2,781,703 dollars; and the arrivals from foreign ports alone were 464 vessels. The population, in 1793, was 18,338. Boston is governed by 7 select men, a town clerk, treasurer, and 12 overseers, chosen annually along with 48 inferior officers. It is 253 m. from New York; 348 N. E. of Philadelphia; 430 of Baltimore; 626 from Richmond; 873 from Fayetteville; 1038 from Columbia, S. Carolina; 1168 from Augusta in Georgia; and 1300 from Frankfort, Kentucky. Lon. 70. 33. W. Lat. 42. 25. N.

(4.) **BOSTON, Thomas**, a learned and pious divine, of the Church of Scotland, who flourished about the end of the last and beginning of the present century. He wrote many books on divinity, which were long extremely popular, being, according to the strict Calvinistic principles of the Church of Scotland, perfectly orthodox. Among these, his illustration of the *Assembly's Catechism*, his *Treatise on the Covenant*, his *Human Nature in its four-fold State*, and his *Crook in the Lot*, have gone through a vast number of editions. It is astonishing, that no account of this eminent and popular divine is to be found in the *Biographia Britannica*, or any *Encyclopædia* hitherto published, that we have met with; although authors of much less eminence are carefully taken notice of in all of them.

(5.) **BOSTON, Thomas**, the son of the preceding, No. 4.) was also a popular clergyman of the church of Scotland, but left it, and joined the presbytery of Relief, upon the deposition of Mr Thomas Gillespie. He was likewise the author of several treatises on different subjects in divinity. He was minister of the parish of Oxnam, when he was invited to Jedburgh, in 1755, by a great majority of the inhabitants, who, having applied for presentation to him, and been disappointed; built a large meeting house for him, upon the principle of RELIEF from patronage. He accepted of their call, and joining with Mr Gillespie, gave rise to a sect now very numerous in Scotland. Perhaps, before the conclusion of this work, we may be able to procure a particular account of the lives and writings of both these authors.

BOSTRYCHITES, [from *βόσχυς*, to fold the hair in braids,] in natural history, 1. a name given to a stone supposed to contain women's hair included in it: some have understood by it, those pieces of crystal which have accidental foulnesses in them, resembling hair; others call by this name, those German agates, which contain either the coniferæ or other capillary water-plants. The first of these very frequently have the conservæ of a great length, and variously undulated and turned about, so as very elegantly to represent a loosely flowing lock of hair. 2. A species of pyrites, whose irradiations were supposed to imitate hair.

* **BOSVEL**. *n. f.* A species of *croaufoot*.

BOSWELL, James, Esq. of Auchinleck, the son of the Hon. Alexander Boswell, late Lord Auchinleck, was born at Auchinleck, in 1740, and admitted a member of the Faculty of Advo-

cates, Edin. in 1766. He was afterwards elected Chamberlain of Carlisle. He was a gentleman of an excellent disposition; and of uncommon spirit as well as genius. His journey to Corfica, when a mere youth, to see the celebrated General Paoli, then in the zenith of his glory, and his intimacy and travels with the late learned Dr Johnson are well known. He was author of 1. *An Account of Corfica*: 2. *The Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides with Samuel Johnson, LL. D.* 3. *The Life of Dr Johnson*: and several other works. He died at London, May 19th, 1795, aged 55.

BOSWELL'S GREEN, ST, a place in the parish of St Boswells, where one of the largest fairs in Scotland is annually held on the 18th of July. From L. 8000 to L. 10,000 is estimated to be drawn at it, in the course of the day. The principal articles are linen cloth, sheep, horses; black cattle, hardwares, haberdasheries, &c.

BOSWELL'S, ST, or **LESSUDDEN**, a parish of Scotland, in Roxburghshire, situated on the banks of the Tweed, within 10 m. of Kelso, 5 of Melrose, and 7 of Jedburgh; and extending about 3 m. in length and 2 in breadth. The soil is good, and has lately been much improved. About 500 bolls of wheat are raised annually on ground formerly deemed incapable of producing that grain; besides oats, barley, pease, grass, turnips, &c. Dalkeith and Peebles are the principal markets. Salmon is sold so low as 2d. and 3d. per lb. The population; in 1793, by the rev. Mr Scade's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 500, and had increased 191 since 1755. There were then 102 horses, and 279 black cattle in the parish.

BOSWORTH, a town of Leicestershire, situated on a high hill, and memorable for the decisive battle fought near it between Richard III. and the earl of Richmond, afterwards Henry VII. It has a market on Wed. and fairs May 8, and June 10. It is 13 m. N. E. of Leicester, and 106 N. W. of London. Lon. 1. 18. W. Lat. 52. 40. N.

BOT, *conj. obs.* But. *Chauc.*

BOTA, in old records, 1. a boot, such as the monks wore: 2. a butt of wine.

BOTABOTA, in natural history, a name given by some writers to that species of sea-swallow, whose nests are so famous for soups in China. See **BIRDS NESTS**, § 4.

BOTADON, a village in Cornwall, S. W. of Launceston.

BOTAGIUM, in middle age writers, a fee paid for wine, sold in butts.

BOTAL. See **BOTALLUS**.

BOTALE FORAMEN, in anatomy, an aperture in the heart of a foetus, whereby the blood circulates, without going into the lungs, or the left ventricle of the heart.

BOTALLECK, a village of Cornwall, on the Irish sea, 10 m. W. of St Ives.

BOTALLUS, Leonard, physician to the duke of Alencon, and to Henry III. was born at Asti in Piedmont. He introduced at Paris the practice of blood-letting, which was condemned by the faculty; though soon after his death it came into rather too general practice. He published several books on physic and surgery. The best edition of his works is that of Leyden in 8vo. 1660.

BOTANICALLY, *adv.* After the manner of botanists.

* **BOTANICAL**. } *adj.* [from *botan*, an herb.]

* **BOTANICK**. } Relating to herbs; skilled in herbs.—Some *botanical* critick tells us, the poets have not rightly followed the traditions of antiquity, in metamorphosing the sisters of Phaeton into poplars. *Addison*.

BOTANICS, *n. s.* A treatise on plants.

* **BOTANIST**, *n. s.* [from *botany*.] One skilled in plants; one who studies the various species of plants.—The uliginous lacteous matter, taken notice of by that diligent *botanist*, was only a collection of corals. *Woodward*.—

Then spring the living herbs, beyond the power

Of *botanist* to number up their tribes. *Thomson*.

* **BOTANOLOGY**, *n. s.* [*Botanologia*.] A discourse upon plants. *Diſt.*

BOTANOMANCY, *n. s.* [from *botan*, an herb, and *mantia*, magic.] an ancient species of divination by means of plants; especially sage and fig leaves. The manner of performing it was this: the persons who consulted wrote the letters of their own names and their questions on leaves, which they exposed to the wind; and as many of the letters as remained in their own places were taken up, and being joined together, contained an answer to the question.

BOTANOPHILI, writers who have treated of plants, not as botanists, but in regard to different operations, as gardeners, physicians, &c.

BOTANOSOPHIST, *n. s.* one skilled in herbs.

B O T A N Y.

INTRODUCTION.

SECT. I. DEFINITION and UTILITY of BOTANY.

(1.) * **BOTANY**, *n. s.* [from *botan*, an herb.] The science of plants; that part of natural history which relates to vegetables.

(2.) **BOTANY** in the utmost extent of the word, signifies a knowledge of plants, and of the uses to which they may be applied, in medicine, chemistry, or the arts in general. But as the medical virtues of plants fall properly under the province of the physician, their chemical properties under that of the chemist, &c. botany is commonly restricted to a bare knowledge of the different plants themselves, and of the distinguishing marks whereby each individual species may be known from another.

(3.) This knowledge is indispensably necessary for those who propose to apply plants to any useful purpose. Thus let a physician be ever so well acquainted with the virtues of opium, or a chemist with the method of preparing it, yet if both be entirely ignorant of botany, and unable to distinguish the particular species of poppy which produces opium, from others of the same genus, their medicinal and chemical skill could be of little use.

(4.) The utility of this science may be farther illustrated from the following considerations, respecting the use of vegetables, as food and medicine.

(5.) Many animals are endowed with an instinctive faculty of distinguishing with certainty whether the food presented to them be salutary or noxious. Mankind have no such instinct. They must have recourse to experience and observation. But they are not sufficient guides in every case. The traveller is often allured by the agreeableness of smell and taste to eat poisonous fruits. A general caution, not to eat any thing but what we know from experience to be salutary, will not answer in every emergency. A ship's company, in want of provisions, may be thrown upon an uninhabited coast, or a desert island. Totally ignorant of the nature of the plants they meet with,

diseases, or scarcity of animals, may make it absolutely necessary to use vegetable food. The consequence is dreadful: they must first eat before they can form any certain conclusion.

(6.) Such dangers are not merely imaginary. Before the vegetables that grow in America, the East and West Indies, &c. became familiar to our sailors, many lives were lost by trials of this kind: neither has all the information received from experience been sufficient to prevent individuals from still falling a prey to ignorance or rashness.

(7.) If the whole science of botany were as complete as some of its branches, very little skill in it would be sufficient to guard us infallibly from committing such fatal mistakes. There are certain orders and classes which are called *natural*, (See Part II.) because every genus and species comprehended under them are not only distinguished by the same characteristic marks, but likewise possess the same qualities, though not in an equal degree. For example:

(8.) Show a botanist the flower of a plant whose calyx is a double valved glume, with three stamina, two pistils, and one naked seed; he can pronounce with absolute certainty, that the plant from which the flower was taken, bears seeds of a farinaceous quality, and that they may be safely used as food. In like manner, show him a flower with 12 or more stamina all inserted into the internal side of the calyx, though it belonged to a plant growing in Japan, he can pronounce without hesitation, that the fruit of it may be eat with safety. On the other hand, show him a plant whose flower has 5 stamina, one pistil, one petal, and whose fruit is of the berry kind, he will tell you to abstain from it, because it is poisonous. Facts of this kind render botany a most interesting science.

(9.) With respect to medicine, it is found by experience, that plants, which are distinguished by the same characters in the flower and fruit, have the same qualities, though not always in an equal degree as to strength; so that, upon inspecting the flower and fruit, a botanist can determine the

Erne

* BOTANOLOGY, *as a Department*, in
course upon plants. *Dis.*

BOTANOMANCY. *A. J. Wilson* has been
and garden, drag it as a sacred herb
tion by means of plants, flowers, and
leaves. The manner of performing it
the persons who consulted write to
their own names and their questions
which they exposed to the wind, and
the letters as remained in their sorps
taken up, and being joined together, and
an answer to the questions.

BUTANOPHILL, writers who treat plants, not as botanists, but in respect to operations, as ga demers, physicians, &c.

BOTANOSOPHIST, a false philosopher.

A N Y.

difficulties, or scarcity of animals, may be
absolutely necessary to use vegetable food.
consequence is dreadful, they must fit as
they can form any certain conclusion.

(6.) Such dangers are not merely theoretical. Before the vegetables that grow in Israel, East and West Indies, &c., became familiar to California, many diseases lost by trial of it were here has all the information needed to prevent infection been sufficient to prevent infestation from falling a prey to ignorance or mismanagement.

(4) If the whole science were to be made as safe as some of its branches, why not make it as safe as medicine? Medicine would be sufficient to guard against committing such fatal mistakes. There are no orders and classes of men in medicine (See Part II.) because every man is a physician, and every man is a patient. The same comprehensive character is not to be found in the same sciences, though as a

(6) Show a tulip and the flower of a plant called x is a double valued glume, with two petals, two pistils, and one naked feeler; pronounce with absolute certainty, the name from which the flower was taken, leave food for magicians quality, and the they are all good. In like manner, show how to

[illegible]

With respect to that plants, which are characterized in the literature as "mimetic" characters, though not as "mimetic" characters.

BOTANY.

SACT. II. **B O T**
the effects that will result when taken into the
stomach.

10. To determine therefore the medical virtues of all the plants belonging to a natural class, the physician has nothing to do but to ascertain by a set of clear and unquestionable experiments, the virtues of any one of them. This greatly abridges the labour of investigation. Supposing the number of known species to be 20000; if ascertaining the virtues of one genus, at a median, you determine the number of 25 species. But by ascertaining the virtues of one genus belonging to a natural order, the virtues of perhaps 100 or 200 species are ascertained.

LECT. II. HISTORY of BOTANY.

[37.] It is highly probable, that some degree of botanical knowledge has existed in every age of the world. The first botanical writings, of which we have any account, are those of SOCRATES, who wrote a treatise upon this subject; which is totally lost. Among the Greeks, ANAXAGORAS, PYTHAGORAS, and other ancient philosophers, wrote treatises on plants, but their works are also lost, and from the quotations that yet remain, in the works of THEOPHRASTUS, LUCOPHON, and PHILO, we learn, that their first botanical writings could convey but a feeble knowledge.

12. The historical era of botany commences with THEOPHRASTUS the disciple of Aristotle, who lived about A. A. C. 300, being about 500 years before Hippocrates. His work is entitled *The History of Plants*, and treats of their origin, propagation, anatomy, and construction; of vegetables, and vegetable life. It consisted originally of 30 books, but only 9 are now extant. In respect to vegetables are distributed into 7 classes, which regulate the generation of plants, their place of growth, their size, as trees, and Shrubs, their use for herbs and esculent grains, and their medicinal use, or the liquor, that flows from plants, &c. In his work, about 500 different plants are described.

13. Dioscorides, a Grecian who flourished 50 years after Theophrastus, is the next author of any note. He described about 200 plants, and arranged them, for their uses medicinal and domestic, into 4 classes, viz. aromatic, alimentary, medicinal, and poisonous plants.

(14) *Antoniae Mula*, Cato, Varro, Virgil, and Columella, were nearly contemporary with Dioscorides. The first was author of a treatise still extant on the plant *betony*; the others are celebrated for their useful treatises on agriculture and animal husbandry.

(4.) **PUITSY**, the Elder, in his *Histroy of the Forest*, has a botanical part in 25 books; wherein he treats the plants of Theophrastus and Dioscorides, he has described several new species. He has given any mode of arrangement, except the common dichotomous into trees, shrubs and herbs. In fact, however, extends not only to botanical differences, but to gardening, agriculture, and whatever is connected with the knowledge of the plants. He describes above 1000 different species; but from the want of a proper systematic arrangement, it is often difficult, and perhaps impossible, to determine what plants he and the

ther ancient botanists describe. This want of precision in arranging their plants was the reason why the botany of the ancients was always very limited, and after the time of Pliny declined so rapidly.

any. On the destruction of the well-known empire of the Goths and other barbarous nations, it was not to be thought that botany could survive any more than the other sciences. It was not till the close of the 8th century, that the ancient botany began again to appear in *Araba*. *Saadiya*, well known in medicine, stands first in the Arabian catalogue of botanists, to him succeeded *Rhazi*, *Avicenna*, *Averroes*, *Aduariz*, &c. *PLAZI* *APULICUS*, or *Apuleius*, of whose *H. American* very old *M. Scapula* are preserved in some libraries, is supposed to have lived near the close of this period. The works of these botanists, however, were only translations and compilations from the Greek writers; but, for want of a purer systematic arrangement, the science sank a second time into total oblivion.

(17.) For nearly 400 years after Abengue, an Arabian physician who flourished in the end of the eighth century, scarcely any attempts were made in the botanical way. Some obscure writers on botany, indeed appeared in several parts of Europe; as Arnoulds de Villa Nova; Pitearius; Matthæus Sylvaticus; and Bartholomæus Glanvili, an Englishman; but they were for totally deficient of method, so that their works remain one great chaos, from whence it is impossible to extract anything intelligible.

(12.) In the beginning of the 16th century, the botany of the ancients was restored a second time. The Greek writings were translated into Latin, the common language of Europe. Oza, a Greek refugee at Rome, made elegant translations of Aristotle and Theophrastus, which became the standard. Theophrastus's commentaries upon Dioscorides was also translated, and continued upon by Hieronymus Barbotus, Paeffius, Ruellius, Cordus, Gesner, and Mathiasius. The most distinguished commentary on Pliny are those of Dalechamp in 1564, Samartius in 1689, Harduin and Gundamus. Meuricus and Urinius have written commentaries upon Cato, Campanius and Plinius. Avicenna's *Canon* has been translated into Latin by Alpago, Colucius, and Pemptius, and into Hebrew, by Amalutus.

(9) The first modern, who gave a methodical arrangement of plants, was Hieronymus Bock, or *Hieronymus*, a German generally known by the name of *Hieronymus*. In 1531, he published a History of Plants, in which he classifies 500 species, and there he divides into a hierarchy, founded on the qualities of vegetables, their figure, habit, and size. The same method of arrangement was followed by Lamerius, Dioscorides, L'obé, Clusius, Brunfelsius, Moenaces, Corneus, and some other botanists of this period. It was not till 1760, that COMARANUS first proposed to the world a new arrangement of vegetables from the parts of the flower and fruit. He did not establish any plan founded upon this principle; but, having suggested the idea, left the application to others.

(30.) In 1582, Dr ANDREW CAESALPINUS, phy-

fician at Pisa, and afterwards professor of botany at Padua, availing himself of the ingenuity of his predecessor, proposed a method of arrangement which has the fruit for its basis; and thus gave rise to SYSTEMATIC BOTANY, the 2d grand æra of that science. Even this improved method of Cæsalpinus was not without very great inconveniences. But as it was greatly superior to every thing that had appeared before, it might have been expected that the learned would have immediately adopted it, and that all the former equivocal and insufficient characters would have been laid aside. The fact, however, was otherwise. Cæsalpinus's method of arrangement died with him; and it was not till near a century after, that Dr ROBERT MORISON of Aberdeen, attaching himself to the principles of Gesner and Cæsalpinus, re-established scientific arrangement upon a solid foundation; so that, being only the restorer of system, he has been generally celebrated as its founder.

(21.) In the long interval between Cæsalpinus and Morison flourished some eminent botanists. The most noted are; Dalechamp, author of *A general History of Plants*; Theodore, surnamed *Tabernaemontanus*, and Thallus, two German writers; Porta, an Italian, famous for an arrangement of plants from their relations to the stars, to men, and other animals; Prosper Alpinus, author of a Catalogue of the plants of Egypt; Fabius Columna, inventor of many of the botanical terms now used; the two Bauhins; Gerard, and Parkinson; Zaituzianski, a Pole, author of an arrangement from the qualities and habit of plants; Marcgrave and Piso, celebrated for their *Natural History of Brazil*; Hernandez, equally celebrated for his *History of Mexico*; Passæus, or Du Pas, author of an arrangement of plants from the time of flowering, of all characters the most uncertain and insufficient; Johnston; Bontius, a Dutchman, author of a *Natural History of the East Indies*; Aldrovandus, the celebrated naturalist; and Rheede, governor of Malabar, and author of the well known *Hortus Malabaricus*.

(22.) MORISON's method has the fruit for its basis, as well as that of Cæsalpinus; to which, however, it is greatly inferior both in the plan and execution. Of all methods it is indeed the most difficult in practice; and has therefore not been adopted by any, except Robart, who, in 1699, completed Morison's Universal History of Plants, and an anonymous author whose work appeared in 1720.

(23.) Imperfect, however, as Morison's method was, it furnished many useful hints, which succeeding botanists have improved. Ray and Tournefort owe him much, and are not ashamed to own the obligation. The same has been done even by LINNÆUS; who has established the science of botany on the most solid foundation, by introducing a method of arrangement, if not absolutely perfect, at least as nearly approaching to perfection as can be expected; and therefore it has been deservedly followed, in preference to every other, by almost all botanists, since its first publication.

(24.) To give a particular account, therefore, of all the different botanical systems, with the advantages and disadvantages of each,

now that they are exploded, would be to little purpose. Yet it may not be improper to give a brief view of the most celebrated systems, which have been invented within these two centuries.

SECT. III. Of the most celebrated BOTANICAL SYSTEMS, from the time of CÆSALPINUS to that of LINNÆUS.

(25.) CÆSALPINUS sets out with an ancient distinction of vegetables from their duration, into trees and herbs. With the former he combines shrubs; with the latter, under shrubs; and distributes his plants into the 15 following classes. 1. Trees with the germ (radicle or principle of life in the seed) on the point of the seed. 2. Trees with the germ on the base of the seed. 3. Herbs having one seed only. 4. Herbs having two seeds. 5. Herbs having four seeds. 6. Herbs having many seeds. 7. Herbs having one grain or kernel. 8. Herbs having one capsule. 9. Herbs having two capsules. 10. Herbs having fibrous roots. 11. Herbs having bulbous roots. 12. Herbs having succory or endive-like flowers. 13. Herbs having common flowers. 14. Herbs having several follicles or seed bags. 15. Herbs having neither flower nor seed. The inconveniences of this method will appear upon attempting to refer any common plant to one of these 15 classes. His sections, or orders, are 47, and depend upon a variety of circumstances: viz. the disposition, situation, and figure of the flowers; the nature of the seed vessel; the situation of the radicle in the seed; the number of seminal leaves; the disposition of the leaves, the colour of the flowers; and the lactescence.

(26.) The chief object MORISON had in view was to investigate the order of nature, not to form an easy method of arrangement. Hence his system is void of uniformity, and clogged with a multiplicity of characters; his classes are frequently not sufficiently distinguished, and the key of arrangement seems totally lost. He sets out with a division of plants, from their consistence, into ligneous and herbaceous. He founds his system on the fruit, the blossoms, and the habit of the plants. His classes are, 1. Trees. 2. Shrubs. 3. Under shrubs. 4. Herbs climbing: 5. Leguminous or papilionaceous: 6. Podded: 7. Tricapsular: 8. with 4 or 5 capsules: 9. Corymbiferous: 10. Having a milky juice, or downy tops: 11. Culmiferous: 12. Umbelliferous: 13. Having 3 kernels: 14. Having helmet-shaped flowers: 15. Having many capsules: 16. Berry-bearing: 17. Capillary: 18. Anomalous. Of the classes, the 4th and 8th possess no genuine distinctive character; nor are the 9th and 10th sufficiently distinguished; the 15th is not sufficiently distinguished from the 8th, nor the 16th from the 4th. His secondary divisions are 108, and arise from the figure and substance of the fruit; the number of seeds, leaves, and petals; the figure of the root; the direction of the stem; the colour of the flowers; the place of growth; and, in one class, from the medicinal virtues of some plants that compose it.

(27.) Mr RAY proposed his system to the world, in 1682, two years after the publication of Morison's. It consisted originally of 25 classes: but he carefully corrected it at different times; so that the plan

plan of arrangement which now bears his name, and was first published in 1700, is entirely different from what had appeared in 1682. It consists of 33 classes. Their distinguishing marks are taken from the habit of the plants; their degree of perfection; their place of growth; the number of seed-lobes, pericarpia, capsules, and seeds; the situation and disposition of the flowers, flower-cup, and leaves; the presence of the buds, flower-cup, and petals; the substance of the leaves and fruit; and the difficulty of classing certain plants. They are, 1. Sea plants. 2. Fungi. 3. Mosses. 4. Capillary plants. 5. Plants without petals: 6. With compound flower-, semiflorescous: 7. With compound flowers radiated: 8. With compound flowers florescous: 9. With one seed: 10. Umbellated: 11. Star-shaped: 12. Rough leaved: 13. Verticillate: 14. With many seeds. 15. Herbs apple-bearing: 16. Berry-bearing: 17. With many pods: 18. Monopetalous: 19. With 2 and 3 petals: 20. With great and small, or long and short, pods. 21. Leguminous plants: 22. Pentapetalous. 23. Bulbs, and bulbous-like plants: 24. Staminate: 25. Anomalous. 26. Palms. 27. Trees without petals: 28. With an umbilicated fruit: 29. With fruit not umbilicated: 30. With a dry fruit: 31. With podded fruit: 32. Anomalous.

(30.) RAY's distinction into herbs and trees is a different, but not more certain, principle, than that of Cæsalpinus and Morison. The former, in making this distinction, had an eye to the duration of the stem; the latter, to its consistence. Ray called in the buds as an auxiliary; and denominates trees, "all such plants as bear buds;" herbs, "such as bear none." But against this, there lies an unanswerable objection; viz. that though all herbaceous plants rise without buds, all trees are not furnished with them; many of the largest trees in warm countries, and some shrubby plants in every country, being totally destitute of them. It seems to have been Ray's great object, to collect as many natural classes as possible; and these being separately investigated, a multiplicity of characters was required to connect them; and hence the intricacy which must always take place, where the classes give rise to the connecting characters, and not the characters to the classes. The characters of the orders, in Ray's method, are no less multifarious than those of the classes. They respect the place of growth of plants; their qualities; the figure of the stem; the number, situation, substance, and division, of the leaves; the situation and disposition of the flowers and calyx; the number and regularity of the petals; with the number and figure of the fruit.

(31.) In his improved method, Ray has adopted Tournefort's character of the genera, wherever his plan would permit. His *General History of Plants* contains 18,655 species and varieties. The 3d volume, published in 1704, contains the plants discovered by Tournefort in the Levant, and by Cancelli at Luzon. Ray's method was followed by Sir Hans Sloane, in his *Natural History of Jamaica*; by Petiver, in his *British Herbal*; by Dilkes, in his *Synopsis of British plants*; and by Martin, in his *Catalogue of plants that grow near Cambridge*.

(30.) To Ray's original method succeeded that of Christopher Knaut, a German; which acknowledges the same principle. In his enumeration of the plants that grow round Hall in Saxony, published in 1687, he divides vegetables into 17 classes, and 62 subdivisions.

(31.) In 1695, a new method proposed by Dr HERMAN, professor of botany at Leyden, was published by Zumbac, who arranged according to it the plants contained in the public gardens at Leyden. Rudbeckius jun. in a dissertation on the fundamental knowledge of plants, adopted Herman's method with a few variations. The classes in Dr Herman's system are 25, and the orders 82.

(32.) To Dr Herman's method succeeded that of Dr BOERHAAVE, which is that of Herman, blended with a part of those of Tournefort and Ray; and contains the following classes. 1. Sea plants. 2. Imperfect land plants. 3. Capillary plants: 4. Many naked seeds: 5. Four naked seeds, and verticillated: 6. Four naked seeds, and rough leaves: 7. Four naked seeds, and 4 petals: 8. One seed vessel: 9. Two seed vessels: 10. Three seed-vessels: 11. Four seed-vessels: 12. Five seed-vessels: 13. Many seed vessels: 14. Two naked seeds, and umbelliferous: 15. Two naked seeds, and star-shaped: 16. One naked seed, and a simple flower: 17. One naked seed, and compound flowers, semiflorescous: 18. Ditto radiated: 19. Ditto corymbiferous: 20. Ditto florescous. 21. Berry-bearing herbs: 22. Apple-bearing: 23. Without petals: 24. With petals, and one cotyledon: 25. One cotyledon, without petals. 26. Trees having one cotyledon. 27. Many podded. 28. Podded. 29. Tetrapetalous and cruciform. 30. Leguminous. 31. Having no petals. 32. Bearing catkins. 33. Monopetalous flowers. 34. Rosaceous flowers.

(33.) Dr BOERHAAVE's 34 classes are subdivided into 104 sections, which have for their characters, the figure of the leaves, stem, calyx, petals, and seeds; the number of petals, seeds, and capsules; the substance of the leaves; the situation of the flowers, and their difference in point of sex. By this method, Dr Boerhaave arranged near 6000 plants, the produce of the botanical garden at Leyden, which he carefully superintended for near 20 years, and left to his successor, Dr Adrian Royen, in a much more flourishing state than he himself had received it. His catalogue of the Leyden plants was published in 8vo, in 1710; and with great additions, in 4to, in 1720. This last edition contains descriptions of 5650 plants; of which upwards of two thirds had been introduced into the garden by Boerhaave. His characters are derived from the habit of plants combined with all the parts of fructification; so that he was the first who employed the calyx, stamina, and style, in determining the genus. He established about 17 new genera; among others, the very splendid family of the protea or silver tree, which, although partly described by Morison, had remained generally unknown. His method was adopted by Emting, a German, in a treatise intitled *The first principles of Botany*, published in 8vo at Wolfenbuttel, in 1748.

(34.) All botanists had hitherto been more intent upon investigating the order of nature, than facilitating

facilitating the arrangement of plants. Their methods were therefore very intricate and perplexed. In 1690, however, Augustus Quirinus Rivinus, professor of botany at Leipzig, convinced of the insufficiency of characteristic marks drawn only from the fruit, attached himself to the flower, which, he was sensible, would furnish characters no less numerous, permanent, and conspicuous, than those drawn from the fruit. The calyx, petals, stamina, and style, are sufficiently diversified in point of number, figure, proportion, and situation, to serve as the basis of a mode of arrangement; yet all are not equally proper for this purpose. Rivinus made use of the petals as the largest and most beautiful part, and that from which the flower itself is commonly characterized.

(35.) RIVINUS's method consists of 18 classes, which have for their basis the perfection and disposition of the flowers, and regularity and number of the petals: viz. 1. *Regular monopetalous*: 2. *Dipetalous*: 3. *Tripetalous*: 4. *Tetrapetalous*: 5. *Pentapetalous*: 6. *Hexapetalous*: 7. *Polypetalous*. 8. *Irregular monopetalous*: 9. *Dipetalous*: 10. *Tripetalous*: 11. *Tetrapetalous*: 12. *Pentapetalous*: 13. *Hexapetalous*: 14. *Polypetalous*. 15. *Compound flowers* of regular florets: 17. *Of irregular florets only*. 18. *Incomplete, or imperfect plants*.

(36.) Having set out with the design of imparting facility to botany, Rivinus judged very properly, in divesting his method of all extraneous matter, and rendering it as simple and uniform, as the nature of the science would admit. The distinction into herbs and trees had been adopted by every writer on plants since the time of Aristotle; and maintained a kind of importance from its antiquity, to which it was by no means intitled. Rivinus was the first who, in this matter, dared to think for himself. Sensible of the inconveniences of employing it as a primary division, he resolved to get rid of a distinction, that is often uncertain, always destructive to uniformity, and in its nature repugnant to the spirit of system, because totally unconnected with the parts of fructification. In the uniformity of its orders, which are 91 in number, and are founded on the fruit, Rivinus's method equals, perhaps exceeds, all that went before or succeeded it. Only 3 classes of his method were published by Rivinus himself. These are the 11th, 14th, and 15th, which were offered to the public at different times, illustrated with very splendid figures. The method was completed and published entire by HEUCHER, in a work intitled *Hortus Wittenbergenfis*, printed in 4to at Wittemberg, in 1711.

(37.) Several German authors have followed Rivinus's method, either wholly or in part: viz. Koenig, in a work on vegetables, published at Basil in 1696; Welsch, in his *Basis Botanica*, Leipzig, 8vo, 1697; Gemeinhart, in a catalogue of plants, 1725; Kramer, in his *Tentamen Botanicum*, Dresden, 1728, and Vienna, 1744; Hecker in a dissertation on botany, published at Hall in Saxony, in 1734; and Hebenstreit, an ingenious botanist, who, in a treatise on plants, published at Leipzig, in 1731, established generic characters, which had hitherto been wanting in Rivinus's method. And Bernard Rupprius, Christopher Lud-

wig, and Christian Knaut, have also attempted to improve upon Rivinus's method.

(38.) RUPPIUS, in his *Flora Fenenfis*, published at Francfort in 1718, has arranged the 1200 plants there described by a method partly Rivinus's and partly his own. It consists of 17 classes, and sets out with the same divisions and subdivisions that of Rivinus; with this difference, that whereas in Rivinus's method all perfect flowers are divided into simple and compound, in Rupprius's division of regular and irregular flowers precedes that just mentioned, and simple and compound flowers are made subdivisions of the regular flowers only.

(39) LUDWIG's method, which was published in 1737, and consists of 20 classes, differs but little from that of Rivinus. The author accompanied Hebenstreit in his expedition into Africa and seems to have made plants his favourite study. His improvement, however, on Rivinus's plan consists chiefly in having enriched it with many genera collected from the works of Tournefort, Ray, Boerhaave, Dillenius, and other eminent botanists, whose generic characters he has also adopted. His plan of arrangement has been followed by M. Wedel, in a botanical essay published in 1747; and by M. Boehmer, in his catalogue of the plants which grow in the garden of Leipzig in 1750.

(40.) CHRISTIAN KNAUT's method is much more properly his own, and departs in a much greater degree from that of Rivinus than either of the two former. The regularity and number of the petals furnished the classical divisions in Rivinus's method; in that of Knaut, number takes the place of regularity; so that it is very properly termed by Linnæus, "The system of Rivinus inverted." This method was published in 1711 and sets out with a division into flowers which have one petal, and such as have more than one. It consists of 17 classes, and 121 sections. His divisions are singular, and his definitions whimsical. Every kind of fruit, whether pulpy or membranaceous, he terms a *capsule*. This term he extends also to *naked seeds*, the existence of which Knaut absolutely denies. In numbering the cells or internal divisions of the pulpy fruits, he had adopted a method equally singular. Some fruits of the apple kind inclose a capsule that is divided into 5 membranaceous cells. It might then be expected to find such fruits arranged with compound capsules of 5 cells; but, instead of this, he whimsically combines in their arrangement the idea of both of a simple and compound capsule. The pulpy part is undivided; in other words, it is a simple capsule furnished with one cell; the compound capsule inclosed contains 5 cells, which added to that of the pulp makes the number six, and thus these kinds of fruit are arranged with those having capsules of six cells! This method of calculation is not the only singularity for which Knaut is remarkable. The essence of the flower is made by Ray, Tournefort, Rivinus, and many other botanists, to consist in the stamina and style. This position Knaut absolutely denies; and has established for principles, 1. That there can be no flowers without petals; and, 2. That the regularity or irregularity of the flower can never be

pend on the stamina and style, which are only occasionally present, and nowise essential to its existence; both of which are known to be false by every botanist.

(41.) No leading method in botany has appeared since the time of Rivinus, except those of Tournefort and Linnæus. Tournefort sets out with reversing the distinction of plants into herbs and trees, which had been exploded by Rivinus. His system is founded on the regularity and figure of the petals, together with the two-fold situation of the receptacle of the flowers; his orders, on the pistil or calyx. The classes are, 1. *Herbs with single flowers* monopetalous, and bell-shaped: 2. *monopetalous*, tunnel and wheel-shaped: 3. *monopetalous*, labiated: 4. *monopetalous*, anomalous: 5. *monopetalous*, cruciform: 6. *polypetalous* and *rosaceous*: 7. *polypetalous*, umbellated: 8. *polypetalous*, *caryophyllaceous*, clove-form: 9. *polypetalous*, *liliaceous*: 10. *polypetalous*, and *monadelphous*: 11. *polypetalous*, anomalous. 12. *Compound flowers*, *flosculous*: 13. *femiflosculous*: 14. *radiated*. 15. *Apetalous*. 16. *Without flower*, but bearing seed. 17. *No flower nor seed*, in vulgar estimation. 18. *Trees* with no petals, but bare stamina: 19. *with no petals*, bearing catkins: 20. *monopetalous*: 21. *rosaceous*: 22. *palmaraceous*. His sections are 122, and are founded principally upon the fruit.

(42.) TOURNEFORT has had a vast number of followers, among whom the most considerable was W. Sherard, who, in 1689, published the first sketch of Tournefort's method, under the title of *Atlas Botanicæ*. Five years after, the *Elementa Botanica*, was published by Tournefort himself. After Plumier published, in 1703, at Paris, a description of American plants, which he has arranged according to Tournefort's system. In this work he accurately characterized 95 new genera. Fabricius, an Italian, has described in Latin verse all Tournefort's genera, in his *Prosopopæia Botanica*, printed at Florence, 1705. Several celebrated French academicians, particularly Marchant, Dombey, Nissole, Jussieu, and Vaillant, have also occasionally paid their acknowledgements to this author, from 1700 to 1740.

(43.) The other authors of note who have followed Tournefort's method, are, M. Petit, an ingenious French botanist; Jöhren, a German, author of a treatise published at Colberg in 1710, intitled *Vade mecum Botanicum, seu Odeus Botanici*: Fucille in his description of the plants of Chili and Peru, Paris, 4to. 1714: Christopher Vahl, a German, author of a book entitled *Tournefortius Contrastus*; Francfort, fol. 1715: Ripa, an Italian, in his *Historia Universalis Plantarum Concipiendi Propositum*; Padua, 1718: Michael Vuentin, a German in his *Viridarium Reformatum*; fol. Francfort, 1719: the celebrated Dillenius, professor of botany at Oxford, and author of several much esteemed publications on botany, particularly the *Hortus Elthamensis*, and History of Mosses, in his *Flora Giffensis*; Francfort, 1719: Pontedera, an Italian, author of the delineation of a method which combines those of Tournefort and Rivinus, published at Padua, in his *Botanical Dissertations*, in 1720: Monti, an Italian, in his *Indices Plantarum Faris*; Bologna, 1724: Lindem,

a German, in his *Tournefortius Alsaticus*, 1728: Sig. Micheli, author of several curious discoveries respecting mosses and mushrooms, in his *Nova Genera Plantarum*; fol. Florence, 1729: Elvebemes, a Swede, in a work published in the Swedish language; Upsal, 1730: Fabricius, a German, in his *Primitiæ Floræ Butisbæensis, seu sex Decades Plantarum Rariorum*; 1743: Sabbati, an Italian, in his catalogue of the plants that grow near Rome; 1745: and the ingenious Dr Alston, late professor of botany at Edinburgh, in his *Tyrocium Botanicum*; Edinburgh, 1753.

(44.) Among all these authors, Plumier and Pontedera alone ventured to quit Tournefort's tract. The former relinquished the distinction into herbs and trees; but the latter attempted greater variations; and published a method, consisting of 26 classes, formed chiefly on the forms of the flowers and buds.

(45.) Other two methods have been invented, founded upon the calyx: The one by Peter Magnol, professor of botany at Montpellier, published in 1720, 5 years after the author's death: The other by Linnæus, published in his *Classes Plantarum*, in 1738, 3 years after the publication of the sexual system. Magnol distinguishes two kinds of calyx; one external, which is the flower cup that envelopes and sustains the flower; the other internal, which is the seed vessel or fruit. According to this idea, all plants are furnished with either the external calyx only, or with both. His classes are, 1. *Herbs with the calyx external*, including a flower unknown: 2. *a flower staminous*: 3. *monopetalous*: 4. *polypetalous*: 5. *compound*. 6. *Calyx external, supporting a flower* monopetalous: 7. *polypetalous*. 8. *Calyx internal only*. 9. *Calyx external and internal, flower* monopetalous: 10. *with 2 and 3 petals*: 11. *tetrapetalous*: 12. *polypetalous*. 13. *Trees, with the calyx external only*: 14. *internal only*: 15. *both external and internal*. His characters of the orders are derived chiefly from the figure of the calyx, petals, and seeds; from the disposition of the flowers, the number of petals, and substance of the fruit. From the combination of these characters with those of the classes arise 55 orders; which are subdivided into genera, possessing this singularity, that, in place of distinctive characters hitherto employed, they exhibit complete descriptions of all the parts of fructification of one or two species of each genus. From this improvement, Linnæus borrowed the hint of his generical characters.

(46.) Sir JOHN HILL, in his *Vegetable System*, endeavours to class plants according to their internal structure. "On the different inner structure, (says he) of the vegetable body, under certain courses of its vessels, evidently depend the differences which characterize the 7 first families, to the distinction of which all classes are subordinate; and as these original distinctions are truly natural, we may here begin very safely. The 7 families are these, 1. Mushrooms. 2. Algæ. 3. Mosses. 4. Ferns. 5. Grasses. 6. Palma. 7. The common race of Plants." Sir John thus distinguishes these: "1. The mushrooms are fleshy; and destitute of leaves and visible flowers. 2. The algæ are merely foliaceous, the entire plant consisting of a leafy matter without other visible parts."

3. The

3. The mosses have processes of the inner rhind for leaves. 4. The ferns consist of a single leaf raised on a stalk; and bear their flowers upon its back. 5. The grasses have jointed stalks and undivided leaves, and husks to hold the seeds. 6. The palms have a simple trunk, with leaves only on the top, and the flowers and fruit in divided ears." 7. The common race of plants, have their roots, leaves, stalks, flowers, and fruits, distinct and obvious; and have not the characters of any of the other six. To this natural method his artificial one, consisting of 43 classes, is designed only as an index; but his system is universally allowed to be inferior to Linnæus's, though he pretends to improve it.

(47.) Thus we have given a brief view of the most celebrated systems, that have prevailed amongst botanists, previous to the perfection of the science by LINNÆUS's introduction of the SEXUAL SYSTEM. That great botanist, so eminent for classification, divides all the former systems of botany into two classes, which he styles HETERO-DOX and ORTHODOX. The former are founded on an alphabetical arrangement, the structure of the root, the habits of plants, their time of flowering, their native climate, their medicinal uses, &c. The latter are either universal or partial; such as belong to the plants in general, or such as are accommodated to the nomenclature and arrangement of particular kinds. The universal systems are 4, though, by various modifications, this number has been considerably augmented. Linnæus also distinguishes the several patrons of them by the appellations of FRUCTISTÆ, COROLLISTÆ, CALYCISTÆ, and SEXUALISTÆ. The Fructists, are such as form the several classes of vegetables from the *pericarpium*, the *seed* and the *receptacle*; of this number are Cæsalpinus, Morison, Ray, Herman, Boerhaave, &c. The Corollists, those who distinguish the several classes by the *corolla* and *petals*; such as Rivinus, Tournefort, &c. The Calycists distributed them from the calyx, as Magnol; and the Sexualists found their system on the different sexes of plants.

(48.) LINNÆUS, besides his sexual system, which is now almost universally followed, formed another, which, like that of Magnol, had the calyx for its basis; but greatly superior both in the idea and execution, being indeed singularly serviceable to the novice in botany, by familiarizing to him various appearances of an organ so important in its nature, and so diversified in its form, as the calyx is. The classes are, 1. Spathaceous. 2. Glumose. 3. Amentaceous. 4. Umbellated. 5. Common calyx. 6. Double calyx. 7. Flowering; the petals and stamina inserted into the flower cup. 8. Crowned with a radius. 9. Irregular. 10. Diffuse. 11. Caducous. 12. Not caducous, uniform and monopetalous. 13. Not caducous, uniform and polypetalous. 14. Not caducous, diffuse and monopetalous. 15. Not caducous, diffuse and polypetalous. 16. Incomplete calyx. 17. Apetalous. 18. Naked.

PART I.

THE SEXUAL SYSTEM OF BOTANY.

ACT. I. HISTORY of the SEXUAL SYSTEM.

1.) The SEXUAL SYSTEM, as its title imports,

is founded on a discovery that there is in vegetables, as well as in animals, a *distinction of sexes*. This was not wholly unknown to the ancients; but their knowledge of it was very imperfect. The flowers of the generality of vegetables are now known to be *Hermaphrodite*, containing in themselves the characters of both sexes; but in the classes *Monœcia* and *Dicœcia*, the sexes are parted, and allotted to different flowers; and in the class *Dicœcia* in particular, the sexes are even on different plants, the male flowers growing all upon one plant, and the female upon another. Now this last circumstance the ancients had observed: indeed it could hardly escape their notice; for the palm tree whose fruit was in esteem, being of the class *Dicœcia*, a very little observation was requisite to discover, that in these trees the flowers of the male were necessary to ripen the fruit of the female. Accordingly we find, in the account given by Herodotus of the country about Babylon, (*Lib. I.*) where these trees are in plenty, that it was a custom with the natives, in their culture of this plant, to assist the operations of nature, by gathering the flowers of the male trees, and carrying them to the female. Thus they secured the ripening of the fruit; which might otherwise, from unfavourable seasons, or the want of a proper intermixture of the trees of each sex, have been precarious, or at least not very productive.

(50.) It might have been expected, that this discovery should have led the ancients to detect the whole process of nature in the propagation of the various species of vegetables; and yet it does not appear, by their writings, that they went farther than this obvious remark upon the palm tree, and some similar notions concerning the fig, and a few others. They had indeed, from what they saw in these plants, formed a notion that all others were male and female likewise; but this notion was false, the far greater part having hermaphrodite flowers; and serves to convince us, that what they discovered of the palm and fig, was not founded on any knowledge of the anatomy of flowers, either in those trees, or any other plants.

(51.) Linnæus is indeed at great pains to trace the notion of sexes in plants to the remotest periods of antiquity. He informs us, that Empedocles, Anaxagoras, and other ancient philosophers, not only attributed the distinction of sexes to plants, but maintained that they were capable of perceiving pleasure and pain. He next introduces Hippocrates and Theophrastus, as distinguishing the conyza, the abies, the filix, &c. into male and female; and tells us, that Dioscorides takes notice of a male and female mandragon, mercurialis, cistus, &c.

(52.) Pliny does not confine his views of sex to animals and vegetables, but exclaims that every thing this earth produces is characterized by the distinction of sex. From the days of Pliny to those of Cæsalpinus, the analogy between the vegetable and animal seems to have been entirely neglected. Cæsalpinus tells us, that the males of the oxycedrus, taxus, mercurialis, urtica, and cannabis, are barren; and that the females of these plants only bear fruit.

(53.) In this dark state the doctrine of the sexes of plants remained, not only through all the ages

of antiquity, but almost to the end of the last century, the moderns discovering no more of this doctrine than the ancients; and hence we have still in use, the false distinctions of *male* and *female* species of *Cornus*, *Pæony*, *Cistus*, and many other plants, which have all hermaphrodite flowers; the distinction being grounded, in these instances, on nothing more than some difference in the habit of the two species, with which the sexes are no ways concerned.

(54.) The honour of having first suggested the true sexual distinctions in plants is due to our countryman, Sir THOMAS MILLINGTON, who first started it, in a conversation with Dr GREW, concerning the utility of the stamina and styli of plants. The result of this conversation was the mutual agreement of these two eminent naturalists, that the stamina and styli of vegetables were analogous to the organs of generation in animals, and that they were adapted by nature to answer the same purposes. Dr Grew, in his *Anatomy of plants*, after enumerating the analogies between plants and animals, concludes that the pollen probably emits certain *vivific* effluvia, which may serve for the impregnation of the seeds.

(55.) Mr Ray gave a further sanction to the doctrine of sexes, by concurring with Grew, and adding some further illustrations from analogy.—In 1695, Camerarius attempted to prove the sexes of plants. But, as he trusted solely to the palm tree, and withal seemed to be doubtful as to the authenticity of the fact, he cannot be considered as having done any thing in confirmation of the sexual hypothesis.

(56.) Mr MORELAND, in 1703, adopted the same hypothesis; but gave it a new modification, by supposing that the pollen contained the seminal plant in miniature, and consequently that it be- loved one pollen, at least, to be conveyed into every separate seed, before it could be properly impregnated. Analogy and the structure of the parts are the only arguments he employs.

(57.) After this, Geoffroy, Vaillant, Blair, Jussieu, Bradley, &c. pursued their enquiries and experiments so far as to remove all doubts concerning these discoveries; and at last the great LINNÆUS founded thereon the system of Botany, of which it is now our object to treat particularly.

SECT. II. EVIDENCES of the TRUTH of the SEXUAL SYSTEM.

(58.) The Sexual Hypothesis, on its first appearance, was received with all that caution that becomes an enlightened age; and nature was traced experimentally through all her variations, before it was universally assented to. Tournefort refused to give it any place in his system; and Ponteder, though he had examined it, treated it as chimerical; but the proofs which Dr Linnæus exhibited amongst the aphorisms of his *Fundamenta Botanica*, and farther illustrated in his *Philippia Botanica*, are so clear, that the birth of animals is not more evidently the consequence of an intercourse between the sexes, than that of vegetables; and it would be now as ridiculous for any one, who has investigated the subject, to doubt of the one as of the other.

(59.) Our room will not permit us to lay all

these proofs before our readers; our business is to explain, not demonstrate: but as it may be satisfactory to see some facts established, that carry conviction with them, we shall insert a few extracts from Linnæus and others, in proof of the Sexual hypothesis.

(60.) LINNÆUS, after showing that vegetables are endued with a certain degree of life, and that they propagate their species in a manner somewhat similar to animals, their *antheræ* being analogous to the *testes*, and their seeds to the *ova* or eggs of animals, and requiring, like them, *impregnation* by the *pollen* of the *antheræ*, which is analogous to the *seminal fluid*, mentions the following, among numberless other proofs of his theory.

(61.) “When the flowers of the male herm. are pulled off before those of the female are fully expanded, the females do not produce fertile seeds. But as a male flower is sometimes found upon a female plant, this may be the reason why fertile seeds are sometimes produced even after this precaution has been observed. The tulip affords another experiment to the same purpose.—Cut off all the antheræ of a red tulip before the pollen is emitted; then take the ripe antheræ of a white tulip, and throw the pollen of the white one upon the stigma of the red; the seeds of the red tulip being thus impregnated by one of a different complexion, will next season produce some red, some white, but most variegated flowers.

(62.) “In the month of January 1760, the *antholyza cunonia* flowered in a pot in my parlour, but produced no fruit, the air of the room not being sufficiently agitated to waft the pollen to the stigma. One day, about noon, seeing the stigma very moist. I plucked off one of the antheræ, by means of a fine pair of forceps, and gently rubbed it on one of the expanded stigmata. The spike of flowers remained 8 or 10 days longer; when I observed, in gathering the branch for my herbarium, that the fruit of that flower only, on which the experiment had been made, had swelled to the size of a bean. I then dissected this fruit, and discovered that one of the 3 cells contained seeds in considerable number, the other two being entirely withered.

(63.) “In the month of April I sowed the seeds of hemp (*cannabis*) in two different pots. The young plants came up so plentifully, that each pot contained 35 or 40. I placed each by the light of a window, but in different and remote apartments. The hemp grew extremely well in both pots. In one of them I permitted the male and female plants to remain together, to flower and bear fruit, which ripened in July; and being macerated in water and committed to the earth, sprung up in 12 days: From the other, however, I removed all the male plants, as soon as they were old enough for me to distinguish them from the females. The remaining females grew very well, and presented their long pistilla in great abundance, these flowers continuing a very long time, as if in expectation of their mates; while the plants in the other pot had already ripened their fruit, their pistilla having, quite in a different manner, faded as soon as the males had discharged all their pollen. It was certainly a beautiful and truly admirable spectacle, to see the unimpregnated females pre-

serve their pistilla so long green and flourishing, not permitting them to begin to fade, till they had been for a considerable time exposed, in vain, to the access of the male pollen. Afterwards when these virgin plants began to decay through age, I examined all their calyxes in the presence of several botanists, and found them large and flourishing, although every one of the seed-buds was brown, compressed, membranaceous, and dry, not exhibiting any appearance of cotyledons or pulp. Hence I am perfectly convinced, that the circumstance which authors have recorded, of the female hemp having produced seeds, although deprived of the male, could only have happened by means of pollen brought by the wind from some distant place. No experiment can be more easily performed than the above; none more satisfactory in demonstrating the generation of plants.

(64.) "The *Chutia tenella* was in like manner kept growing in my window through the months of June and July. The male plant was in one pot, the female in another. The latter abounded with fruit, not one of its flowers proving abortive. I removed the two pots into different windows of the same apartment: still all the female flowers continued to become fruitful. At length I took away the male entirely, leaving the female alone, and cutting off all the flowers which it had already born. Every day new ones appeared from the axilla of every leaf; each remained 8 or 10 days; after which their footstalks turning yellow, they fell barren to the ground. A botanical friend, who had amused himself with observing this phenomenon with me, persuaded me to bring from the stove in the garden a single male flower, which he placed over one of the female ones then in perfection, tying a piece of red silk round its pistillum. The next day the male flower was taken away, and this single seed-bud remained and bore fruit. Afterwards I took another male flower out of the same stove, and with a pair of slender forceps pinched off one of its antheræ, which I afterwards gently scratched with a feather, so that a very small portion of its pollen was discharged upon one of the three stigmata of a female flower, the two other stigmata being covered with paper.—This fruit likewise attained its due size; and on being cut transversely, exhibited one cell filled with a large seed, and the other two empty.—The rest of the flowers being unimpregnated, faded and fell off. This experiment may be performed with as little trouble as the former.

(65.) "The *Datisca cannabina* came up in my garden from seed, ten years ago, and has every year been plentifully increased by means of its perennial root. Flowers in great number have been produced by it; but being all female, they proved abortive. Being desirous of procuring male plants, I obtained more seeds from Paris. Some more plants were raised; but these likewise, to my great mortification, all proved females, and bore flowers but no fruit. In 1757, I received another parcel of seeds. From these I obtained a few male plants, which flowered in 1758. These were planted at a great distance from the females; and when their flowers were just ready to emit their pollen, holding a paper under them, I gently shook the spike or panicle with my finger,

till the paper was almost covered with the yellow powder. I carried this to the females which were flowering in another part of the garden, and placed it over them. The cold nights of the year in which this experiment was made, destroyed the *Datiscas*, with many other plants, much earlier than usual. Nevertheless, when I examined flowers of those plants which I had sprinkled with the fertilizing powder, I found the seeds of the due magnitude; while in the more remote *Datiscas* which had not been impregnated with pollen no traces of seeds were visible.

(66.) "Several species of *Momordica*, cultivated with us, like other Indian vegetables, in clofves, have frequently born female flowers which, although at first very vigorous, after a short time have constantly faded and turned yellow without perfecting any seed, till I instructed a gardener, as soon as he observed a female flower to gather a male one and place it above the female. By this contrivance we are so certain of obtaining fruit, that we dare pledge ourselves to make all female flowers fertile that shall be fixed on.

(67.) "The *Jatropha urens* has flowered every year in my hot-house; but the female flowers coming before the males, in a week's time drop their petals, and faded before the latter were opened; from which cause no fruit has been produced, but the germina themselves have fallen. We have therefore never had any fruit of the *Jatropha* till 1752, when the male flowers were in vigour on a tall tree at the same time that the males began to appear on a small *Jatropha* which was growing in a garden pot. I placed this under the other tree, by which means the female flowers bore seeds, which grew on being sown. I have frequently since amused myself with taking the male flowers from one plant, and scattering them over the female flowers of another, and have always found the seeds of the latter impregnated by it.

(68.) "Two years ago I placed a piece of paper under some of these male flowers, and afterwards folded up the pollen which had fallen upon it, preserving it so folded up, 4 or 6 weeks, at the end of which time another branch of the same *Jatropha* was in flower. I then took the pollen which I had so long preserved in paper, and spread it over three female flowers, the only ones at that time expanded. These 3 females proved fruitful, while all the rest which grew in the same bunch fell off abortive.

(69.) "The interior petals of the *Ornithogalum* commonly, but improperly, called *Canadense*, come here so closely together, that they only just admit the air to the germen, and will scarcely permit the pollen of another flower to pass: the plant produced every day new flowers and fruit, the fructification never failing in any instance; therefore, with the utmost care, extracted the antheræ from one of the flowers with a hooked needle; and, as I hoped, this single flower proved barren. This experiment was repeated about a week after with the same success.

(70.) "I removed all the antheræ out of a flower of *Chilodonium corniculatum* (scarlet horned poppy) which was growing in a remote part of the garden, upon the first opening of its petals, and strip-

ped off all the rest of the flowers; another day I treated another flower of the same plant in a similar manner, but sprinkled the pistillum of this with the pollen borrowed from another plant of the same species: the result was, that the first flower produced no fruit, but the second afforded very perfect seed. My design in this experiment was to prove, that the mere removal of the anther from a flower is not in itself sufficient to render the germen abortive.

(71.) "Having the *Nicotiana fruticosa* growing in a garden pot, and producing plenty of flowers and seed, I extracted the antheræ from a newly expanded flower before they had burst, at the same time cutting away all the other flowers; this germen produced no fruit, nor did it even swell.

(72.) "I removed an urn, in which the *Asphodelus fistulosus* was growing, to one corner of the garden, and from one of the flowers which had lately opened I extracted its antheræ; this caused the impregnation to fail. Another day I treated another flower in the same manner: but bringing a flower from a plant in a different part of the garden, with which I sprinkled the pistillum of the mutilated one, its germen became by that means fruitful.

(73.) " *Ixia chinensis*, flowering in my stove, the windows of which were shut, all its flowers proved abortive. I therefore took some of its antheræ in a pair of pincers, and with them sprinkled the stigmata of two flowers, and the next day one stigma only of a third flower; the seed-buds of these flowers remained, grew to a large size, and bore seed; the fruit of the third, however, contained ripe seed only in one of its cells."

(74.) Dr HASSELQUIST, in one of his letters to LINNÆUS, dated Alexandria, May 28th, 1750, gives the following account of the fecundation of the palm tree. "The first thing I did after my arrival was to see the date tree, the ornament and a great part of the riches of this country. It had already blossomed; but I had, nevertheless, the pleasure of seeing how the Arabs assist its fecundation, and by that means secure to themselves a plentiful harvest of a vegetable, which was so important to them, and known to them many centuries before any botanist dreamed of the difference of sexes in vegetables. The gardener informed me of this before I had time to inquire; and would show me, as a very curious thing, the male and female of the date or palm trees: nor could he conceive how I, a Frank, lately arrived, could know it before; for (says he) all who have yet come from Europe to see this country, have regarded this relation either as a fable or miracle. The Arab seeing me inclined to be further informed, accompanied me and my French interpreter to a palm tree, which was very full of young fruit, and had by him been wedded, or fecundated with the male, when both were in blossom. Thus the Arabs do in the following manner: When the spadix has female flowers, that come out of its spatha, they search on a tree that has male flowers, which they know by experience, for a spadix which has not yet burst out of its spatha: this they open, take out the spadix, and cut it lengthwise in several pieces, but take care not to hurt the flowers. A piece of this spadix

with male flowers they put lengthwise between the small branches of the spadix which hath female flowers, and then lay the leaf of a palm over the branches. In this situation I saw the greatest part of the spadices which bore their young fruit; but the male flowers which were put between were withered. The Arab besides gave me the following anecdotes: First, unless they, in this manner, wed and fecundate the date tree, it bears no fruit. 2dly, They always take the precaution to preserve some unopened spathæ with male flowers from one year to another, to be applied for this purpose, in case the male flowers should miscarry or suffer damage. 3dly, If they permit the spadix of the male flowers to burst or come out, it becomes useless for fecundation: it must have its *maidenhead*, (these were the words of the Arab,) which is lost in the same moment the blossoms burst out of their case. Therefore the person who cultivates date trees must be careful to hit the right time of assisting their fecundation, which is almost the only article in their cultivation. 4thly, On opening the spatha, he finds all the male flowers full of a liquid which resembles the finest dew; it is of a sweet and pleasant taste, resembling much the taste of fresh dates, but much more refined and aromatic: this was likewise confirmed by my interpreter, who hath lived 32 years in Egypt, and therefore had opportunities enough, of tasting both the nectar of the blossoms and the fresh dates."

(75.) Mr MILNE, author of the Botanical Dictionary, relates an experiment nearly akin to the above. "In the garden of M. de la Serre, of the Rue S. Jacques at Paris, was a female turpentine tree, which flowered every year, without furnishing any fruit capable of vegetation. This was a sensible mortification to the owner, who greatly desired to have the tree increased. Messieurs Dubamel and Jussieu very properly judged that they might procure him that pleasure by the assistance of a male pistachio tree. They sent him one very much loaded with flowers. It was planted in the garden of M. de la Serre, very near the male turpentine tree, which the same year produced a great quantity of fruits, that were well conditioned, and rose with facility. The male plant was then removed; the consequence was, that the turpentine tree in none of the succeeding years bore any fruit that, upon examination, was found to germinate."

(76.) We shall conclude this section, with an account, given by Mr Mylius of Berlin, to Dr Watson, of a remarkable experiment made on the palm tree. "The sex of plants (says he) is very well confirmed, by an experiment that has been made here on the *palma major foliis flabelliformibus*. There is a great tree of this kind in the garden of the royal academy. It has flowered and borne fruit these 30 years, but the fruit never ripened, and when planted it did not vegetate. The palm tree, as you know, is *Planta Diacia*, that is, one of those, in which the male and female parts of generation are upon different plants. We having therefore no male plants, the flowers of our female were never impregnated with the farina of the male. There is a plant of this kind in a garden at Leipzig, 20 German miles from Berlin. We procured from thence, in April 1749, a branch

a branch of male flowers, and suspended it over our female ones; and our experiment succeeded so well, that our palm tree produced more than 100 perfectly ripe fruit, from which we have already 11 young palm trees. This experiment was repeated last year, and our palm tree bore above 2000 ripe fruit." *Phil. Trans. Vol. XVII. p. 169.*

SECT. III. OF the PARTS of PLANTS.

(77.) The principal outlines of a plant are thus delineated by Linnæus, in his *Principia Botanica*.

(78.) A plant consists of Root, Trunk, Leaves, Props, Fructification, and Inflorescence; to which may be added the Habit.

(79.) I. The ROOT consists of two parts, *viz.* the caudex and the radiculâ, distinguished according to shape, direction, duration, &c.

1. CAUDEX, the stump, is the body or knob of the root, from which the trunk and branches ascend, and the fibrous roots descend; and in different plants is either solid, bulbous, or tuberous. Solid, as in trees, shrubs, and many of the herbs. Bulbous is explained under HYBERNACULUM. (§ 108.) Tuberous knobs are also solid and hard; containing one or more embryos or eyes. They are either only one knob, as turnip, carrot, &c. containing only one eye at the top; or consist of many knobs connected together by slender fibres, as in potatoes, Jerusalem artichokes, &c. each containing many eyes dispersed over the surface: and are either pitted, when the eyes lie inward, as in potatoes, &c. or tuberculated, containing the eyes outward, as in Jerusalem artichokes, &c. In tuberous knobs, the fibres or stringy parts issue from every part of the surface; which is an essential difference from bulbous knobs, where they are confined to the caudex of the bulb only, and are the true and genuine roots, the bulb itself being only a large bud under ground. Those tuberous knobs with only one eye, differ as to duration, but are in general biennial; those with many eyes are perennial; both seem to be produced by the nutriment of the stem like buds, and not by the fibrous roots, for the stem is first formed and becomes strong, and as it grows to maturity, the tuberous knobs increase.

2. RADICULA, a little root, is the string or fibrous part of the root, descending from the caudex: it is really the principal and essential part of every root, and by which the nourishment is drawn from the earth for the support of the plant.

(80.) II. The TRUNK rises immediately from the caudex, and produces the leaves, flowers, and fruit. It is either herbaceous, shrubby, or arborescent; and is distinguished according to its shape, substance, surface, &c. as follows:

1. CAULIS, a stalk or stem, is the main trunk which elevates the leaves and fructification, and is applied to trees, shrubs, and herbs: It is denominated *simple* when it does not divide, and *compound* when it is divided into branches.

2. CULMUS, a straw or haulm, is the proper trunk of grasses; and also elevates both the leaves and fructification: It is sometimes jointed, and sometimes not, it is also sometimes round and sometimes angular.

3. SCAPUS, a stalk, is an herbaceous trunk, which elevates the fructification, but not the

leaves; that is, it is a stalk proceeding immediately from the root, and terminated by the flowers, as in narcissus, hyacinth, &c.

4. STIPES, a trunk, used by Linnæus for the trunk of mushrooms; as also for that slender thread or foot-stalk which elevates the feathery or hairy down with which some seeds are furnished, and connects it with the seed.

(81.) III. The LEAVES are said by Linnæus to be the muscles or organs of motion of a plant; by others, the organs by which perspiration and inspiration are performed. They are defined as proceeding from the expansion of the vessels of the stalk, forming several ramifications like net-work, extended in length and breadth in a determinate manner, having the interstices filled up with a tender pulpy substance; and the external covering is supposed to be a continuation of the scarf skin of the stalk. They are either simple or compound; and are distinguished by their figure, situation, insertion, number, divisions, &c.

1. A SIMPLE LEAF is such as adheres to the branch singly, or whose footstalk is terminated by a single simple expansion, not parted to the middle rib; and is determined by its shape, surface, and divisions.

2. A COMPOUND LEAF is such whose footstalk is furnished with several separate simple expansions; or, whose divisions extend to the middle rib, now called a *common petiole* or footstalk, supporting several lobes or little simple leaves, of which the compound leaf consists: they are distinguished by shape, &c. and the form by which they are attached to the common footstalk, as palmated, winged, feathered, &c. Sometimes leaves are twice or more compounded; which divisions admit of many modifications, and give rise to as great variety of terms. It may sometimes be difficult, at first sight, to know a common footstalk to a compound leaf, from a branch: but a common footstalk, where it issues from the branch, is either flat or hollow on one side, and convex on the other; whereas branches are alike on both sides, whether round, flat, or angular: again, buds are never found at the angles formed by the lobes of a compound leaf with the footstalk, but at the angles formed by the footstalk of the whole compound leaf and the stem: and it may always be certainly distinguished by its falling off with the little leaves which it supports. The manner or place in which leaves are attached to the plant, is called the *determination of leaves*; and is distinguished by several terms, according to number, disposition, insertion, figure, &c.

(82.) IV. The PROPS, *fulcra*, a term used to express those external parts which strengthen, support, or defend the plants on which they are found, or serve to facilitate some necessary recreation, are as follow.

1. PETIOLUS, the footstalk or support of a leaf.

2. PEDUNCULUS, the footstalk or support of a flower.

3. STIPULA, haulm, or husk, a sort of scale or small leaf, stationed on most plants, (when present) on each side the base of the footstalk of leaves and flowers, at their first appearance, for the purpose of support: They are placed either single or double; and sometimes on the inside, as

in the fig and mulberry; or on the outside, as in the birch, lime, and papilionaceous flowers. They are also either sitting, extended downwards, or sheathing along the stem, as in the plane tree. As to duration, they sometimes fall before the leaves, and sometimes are equally persistent. They often afford a good distinction for the species.

4. **CLASPERS**, a clasper or tendril, is the fine spiral string or fibre by which plants fasten themselves to some other body for support; They are sometimes placed opposite to the leaves; sometimes at the side of the footstalks of the leaves; sometimes they issue from the leaves themselves; and sometimes they put out roots, as in ivy, &c.

5. **PUBES**, a term applied to the hair, down, and beard, bristles, glands, and several other appearances on different parts of plants, serving the same purpose of defence and vessels of secretion.

6. **ARMS**, the defensive weapons of plants; as thorns, prickles, &c.

7. **BRACTEÆ**, the floral leaves, mean not only the leaves situated on the stalk nearest to the lower parts of the flower, but those which sometimes terminate the flower stalk; being composed of bractæ, resembling a bush of hair. They are also called *bractæ comosæ*, as in crown-impe-riodender, and some species of sage.

8. V. The **FRUCTIFICATION**, or mode of bearing, consists of the calyx, corolla, stamens, pistillum, pericarpium, semina, and receptaculum; which are explained in SECT. VI.

9. VI. The **INFLORESCENCE**, or mode by which flowers are joined to their several peduncles, whether common or partial.

10. A **FLOWER**, in the Sexual system, has a very different signification from the same term of former botanists; for if the antheræ and stigma be present, though the calyx, corolla, filaments of the stamens, and style of the pistillum be wanting, it is still a flower; and if all the parts are present, it is a complete flower. The seed also constitutes a fruit, whether there be a pericarpium or not.

11. **COMPLETE FLOWERS** are either simple or aggregate; **SIMPLE**, when no part of the fructification is common to many flowers or florets, but is confined to one only: **AGGREGATE**, when the flower consists of many florets collected into a head, by means of some part of the fructification common to them all, as by a common receptacle, or common calyx; as in *dipsacus*, *scabiosa*, &c. From the different structure, disposition, and other circumstances of the receptacle or calyx, being the only part common to aggregate flowers, are 7 subdivisions.

12. I. **AGGREGATE FLOWERS**, properly so called, are formed by the union of several lesser flowers, placed on partial peduncles, on a common dilated receptacle, and within a common perianthium; and in those flowers where each floret has its proper calyx, that is also a perianthium. A flower is said to be *radiate*, when the florets in the radius or circumference differ from those in the disk; in which case they are generally larger, and are called *semi-florets*, from their difference in form, and in distinction from those of the disk, which are called *proper florets*: and they also differ as to sex, which gives rise to several of the or-

ders in the class syngenesia, which contains the compound flowers.

2. **COMPOUND AGGREGATE FLOWERS** consist also of several florets, placed sitting (or without partial peduncles) on a common dilated receptacle, and within a common perianthium; and where each floret hath its proper calyx, it is also a perianthium. Compound flowers also admit of a further description, viz. each floret consists of a single petal, with generally five divisions, and having five stamens distinct at the base, but united at the top by the antheræ into a cylinder, through which passes the style of the pistillum, longer than the stamens, and crowned by a stigma with two divisions that are rolled backwards, and having a single seed placed upon the receptacle under each floret. This is the general character of a compound flower, to which there are a few exceptions; it also differs when the flower is radiate: but the essential character of a regular floret consists in the antheræ being united so as to form a cylinder, and having a single seed placed upon the receptacle under each floret.

3. **UMBELLATE AGGREGATE** are when the flower consists of many florets placed on fastigate peduncles proceeding from the same stem or receptacle; and which, though of different lengths, rise to such a height as to form a regular head or umbel, whether flat, convex, or concave. Both the common and partial calyx Linnæus calls an *involution*. It is called a *simple umbel*, when it hath no lesser divisions; a *compound umbel*, when each peduncle is subdivided at its extremity into many lesser peduncles for supporting the flowers, so as to form several little umbellas, uniting in one head; the whole together is called an *universal umbel*, and the little umbellas are called *partial umbels*. In some genera, that have radiated umbels, the florets of the centre and those of the circumference, differ both as to sex and size; but in general each have 5 petals, 5 stamens, and two styles; or one that is bifid, with a germen placed beneath, and two naked seeds, which when ripe, separate below, but remain connected at the top.

4. **CYMOUS AGGREGATE**, (from *cyma*, a sprout,) called by Linnæus a *receptacle*, is when several fastigate peduncles proceed from the same centre like the umbel, and rise to nearly an even height; but unlike the umbel, the secondary or partial peduncles proceed without any regular order, as in *sambucus*, *viburnum*, &c.

5. **AMENTACEOUS AGGREGATE** are such flowers as have a long common receptacle, along which are disposed squamæ or scales, which form that sort of calyx called *amentum* or *catkin*, as in *corylus*, *pinus*, *juglans*, &c. Amentaceous flowers generally want the petals, and all of them are of the classes monœcia and diœcia.

6. **GLUMOSE AGGREGATE** are such flowers as proceed from a common husky calyx belonging to grasses, called *gluma*; many of which are placed on a common receptacle called *rachis*, collecting the florets into the spike, as *triticum*, *hordeum*, *secale*, *lolium*, &c.

7. **SPADICEOUS AGGREGATE** are also such flowers as have a common receptacle, protruded from within a common calyx, called *spatha*, along which

which are disposed several florets. Such a receptacle is called a *spadix*: and is either branched, as in phoenix; or simple, as in narcissus, &c. In this last case the florets may be disposed, either all around it, as in calla, dracontium, pothos, &c. on the lower side of it, as in arum, &c. or in two sides, as in zostera, &c. These flowers have generally no partial calyx.

(86.) Under the head of *Inflorescence* might also be mentioned the SEXES of plants; but as the whole SEXUAL SYSTEM is founded upon these, they belong more properly to SECT. IV. There are, besides the above, several other modes of flowering, properly so called, that come under the general term INFLORESCENCE, and often afford the best marks to discriminate the species. They are chiefly expressed as follows:

(87.) VERTICILLUS, a *whorl*, when the flowers are placed in whorls at each joint, round the common stalk: they have very short partial peduncles; are all of the labiated kind; and have either 2 or 4 stamina, and 4 naked seeds, as in salvia, marubium, mentha, &c. A verticil hath several distinctions, as naked, bracted, &c. and all those genera with 4 stamina are of the class didynamia.

(88.) CAPITULUM, a *little head*, is when many flowers are connected into nearly a globular form or head, on the summit of the common stalk, sometimes with and sometimes without partial peduncles, as in gomphrena, &c. and is distinguished by its shape and other circumstances.— Under *capitulum* is now introduced the term *sacculus*, (a little bundle,) which was formerly considered as distinct. It means when the peduncles are erect, parallel, approaching each other, and raised to the same height as in sweet William, where they generally proceed from different parts of the common stalk, opposite to each other.

(89.) SPICA, a *spike*, is when the flowers, having no partial peduncles, are arranged alternately around a common simple peduncle. It is called *spica secunda*, (a single-row'd spike,) when the flowers are all turned one way, following each other; and *spica disticha*, (a double-row'd spike,) when the flowers stand pointing two ways, as in solium, &c. And it is distinguished by shape and other circumstances.

(90.) CORYMBUS, (a *cluster of ivy berries*,) when the lesser peduncles of the flowers proceed from different parts of the common peduncle or stalk; and though of unequal lengths, and sometimes simple, sometimes branched, yet form a regular surface at the top; as in the siliquose plants. The corymbus may be supposed to be formed from a spike, by adding partial peduncles to the flowers; and seems to be the mean between racemus and umbella, the peduncles rising gradually from different parts of the common stalk, like those of the raceme, and proceeding to a proportionable height like those of the umbel.

(91.) THYRSUS, (a *young stalk*,) a mode of flowering resembling the cone of a pine: Linnaeus defines it a panicle contracted into an ovate or egg-shaped form; the lower peduncles, which are longer, horizontally; and the upper, which are shorter, mount vertically, as syringa, &c.

(92.) RACEMUS, (a *bunch of grapes*,) is when

the flowers are placed on short partial peduncles proceeding as little lateral branches, from and along the common peduncle. It resembles a spike in having the flowers placed along a common peduncle, but differs from it in having partial peduncles: it also differs from a corymbus in the shortness and equal length of its peduncles, not forming a regular surface at the top; as in ribes rubrum, vitis, &c.

(93.) PANICULA, (the *tuft upon reeds*,) is when the flowers are dispersed upon peduncles variously subdivided; or it is a sort of branching spike composed of several smaller spikes, attached along a common peduncle, as in avena, panicum, and several other grasses, and many other plants. When the partial peduncles diverge and hang loose, it is called a *diffuse*, and when they converge, it is called a *close*, panicle.

(94.) AXILLARES, such flowers as proceed from the angle formed by the leaf and the stem, as most common.

(95.) TERMINALES, such flowers as terminate the stalk or branch. Every other mode of flowering is called the *Inflorescence*, whether opposite the leaves, lateral, single, double, erect, bending, &c.

(96.) LUXURIANT, OR DOUBLE FLOWERS, are considered only as varieties. A luxuriant flower is supposed generally to be owing to superabundant nourishment; the luxuriant part is generally the corolla, but sometimes the calyx also. There are 3 degrees of luxuriant flowers: viz. 1. *multiplicatus*; 2. *plenus*; and 3. *prolifer*.

1. FLOS MULTIPLICATUS is when the petals of the corolla are only so far multiplied as to exclude part of the stamina; and is called *duplicata*, *triplicate*, *quadruplicate*, &c. according to the number of rows of petals.

2. FLOS PLENUS is when the corolla is so multiplied, as to exclude all the stamina; which is occasioned by the stamina turning petals, and the flower is often so crowded as to exclude the pistillum also. Therefore, as the essential parts of generation are thus wholly, or in part destroyed, the plants become barren and infertile, and no seed, or very little, can be expected from them. Flowers with one petal are not so subject to fullness; when they are, it generally rises from an increase of the divisions of the petals. It is most usual in flowers of many petals, which it arises various ways; sometimes by multiplication of the petals only, sometimes of the calyx, nectarium, and sometimes of all. Compound flowers are also subject to luxuriance, arising several ways.

3. FLOS PROLIFER is when one flower grows out of another; this generally happens in compound flowers, from their greater luxuriance. In simple flowers, it rises from the centre, and proceeds from the pistillum shooting up into another flower, standing on a single footstalk. In aggregate flowers (properly so called) many footstalked flowers are produced out of one common calyx. In umbellate flowers, a second umbel proceeds from the centre of the first umbel, producing little umbels; which by a greater exertion of luxuriance may produce others with little umbels, and so on, may produce several heads of flowers, each growing

ing out of that immediately below it, furnished with little umbels variously compounded. A prolific flower is also called *leafy* (*frondosus*,) when it produces branches with flowers and leaves, which though rare, sometimes happens in rosa, geranium, monarda, and others. As in luxuriant flowers many parts of the natural character are deficient in the whole, or in any part, they can only be distinguished by the general habit, and by such parts as remain in the natural state; as very often by the calyx, and in the polypetalous flowers, the lowest series or rows of petals remain the same, as in rosa, papaver, nigella, &c.

(107.) FLOS MUTILATUS is the opposite imperfection, being such a flower as occasionally is deprived of all, or the greatest part of the petals, or bears seeds, as in some species of tulilago, campanula, &c. This term is opposed to luxuriant, and is supposed by Linnæus to be caused by a defect of heat, though it may also happen by other causes.

98. VII. The HABIT of plants, by which ancient botanists meant the whole external appearance of every part thereof, whereby they were arranged in their several systems, is by Linnæus applied to the agreement of plants of the same genus, or natural order; chiefly in the following circumstances:

(99.) GEMINATION. The structure and disposition of the bulb, as solid, coated, scaly, stem. Also of the bud; its origin petioled, stipuled, cortical; its contents leafy, floral, common.

(100.) VERNATION. The complication of the leaves within the bud, as conduplicate or doubled together; convolute or rolled together; involute or rolled in; revolute or rolled back; imbricated or tiled; equitant or riding; obvolute or rolled against each other; plaited or folded over; spirally or coiled like a watch-spring, one end in the centre.

(101.) ÆSTIVATION. The state of the bud in summer, as convolute, imbricated, conduplicate, valved, unequally valved.

(102.) TORTION. The twisting or bending of the parts, as uniform, dissimilar, from the right, from the left, reciprocal, resupine, spiral.

(103.) NUPTIALS. Male, female, androgynous, hermaphrodite.

(104.) SEMINATION. The shape and other circumstances of the seed, as tail, wing, tuft, awn, hook, gluten, curvature. Also of the pericarpium; as berrying, inflation, viscosity, elasticity, &c.

(105.) PLACENTATION. The number and disposition of the cotyledons; or if wanting.

(106.) VARIATION. Of colour, size, pubescence, &c. 1. *External*: plaited, bundled, broad-leaved, cased, awnless. 2. *Internal*: mutilated, great-flowered, luxuriant, crested, viviparous, bulb-bearing. By variation or variety are meant such differences as are only incidental to vegetables, and are not fixed and constant and unchangeable; that is, where plants raised from the same seed, by some accidental cause differ in their form and appearance, from the true character of the species to which they belong; which cause being removed, the plant is restored to its true specific character: and these incidental varieties chiefly arise by dif-

ference of soil or culture, in some of the above circumstances. And though it is as necessary to collect varieties under their proper species, as the species under their proper genera; yet it is often more difficult; first, from the difficulty of ascertaining the genus, and, secondly, from the variety of confounding the species; and sometimes some parts of the specific character itself are also subject to variety, particularly the leaves; though in general the true specific character is constant and unchangeable, arising only from circumstances wherein plants of the same genus are found to disagree, which distinctions are commonly taken with most certainty from the parts explained in this section.

(107.) The HYBERNACULUM, (*winter lodgement*,) is that part of a plant which defends the embryo or future shoot from external injuries during the winter; and is either a bulb or a bud.

(108.) L. A BULB, (*bulbus*,) is a large sort of bud produced under ground, placed upon the caudex of certain herbaceous plants, hence called *bulbous* plants; all of which are perennial, that is, perpetuated by their bulbs or ground buds, as well as by seeds: they are therefore improperly called roots, being only the hybernacle of the future shoot. Bulbs are of the following sorts:

1. Squamous; consisting of scales laid over each other like tiles, as in the lily.

2. Solid; consisting of a close substance, as in tulips.

3. Coated; consisting of many coats infolding each other, as in onions.

4. Cauline; produced not only from the sides of the principal bulb, called a *fucker* or *offset*, but from other parts of the stem; as in crow or wild garlic, and in some species of onion (hence called *bulbiferous*;) where they are produced at the origin of the umbel of flowers.

(109.) A BUD (*gemma*,) is the embryo of the plant, seated upon the stem of the branches, covered with scales. In general there are three sorts of buds: That containing the flower only, as in poplar, ash, &c. where the leaf buds and flower buds are distinct: That containing the leaves only, as in birch, &c.: and, That containing both flower and leaves, as in the generality of plants; and these last sometimes contain leaves and male flowers, sometimes leaves and female flowers, sometimes leaves and hermaphrodite flowers. Annual plants are only renewed from seeds; and several other plants, both trees and shrubs, have no winter buds: It is also observed in hot countries, that few plants have buds; or at least they are without that scaly covering which seems essential to a bud, and constitutes the hybernacle; instead whereof are protruded small feather-like branches from the wings of the leaves, (defence and protection from cold not being necessary;) whereas in cold countries most plants have buds, which are wrapped up all the winter, in readiness to greet the approaching spring.

(110.) Analogous to the protection afforded by the buds, is the SLEEP of plants, which according to Linnæus, happens various ways; as by converging, including, surrounding, fortifying, conduplicating, involving, diverging, depending, inverting, imbricating. This disposition in plants is very remarkable in chick-weed, pimpernell, dandelion,

delion, goats-beard, &c. which expand their flowers only at certain times of the day, and shut them up at the approach of night or a storm; from which may be prognosticated a change of weather. In many plants, not only the flowers, but the young shoots, are defended from external injuries, by the nearest leaves converging and inclosing the tender rudiments.—Thus we have delineated the principal outlines of plants; but a more particular description of those parts, which serve chiefly to characterise the different classes, orders, genera, and species will be given in the following sections, particularly SECT. VI.

SECT. IV. Of the CLASSES of PLANTS:

(111.) The FLOWERS of plants being, beyond all controversy, their parts of generation, Linnæus very properly made them the sole foundation of his beautiful system of botany. Being the same in all parts of the globe capable of producing plants, the classification founded upon them affords a kind of *universal language* (so to speak) to botanists, whereby they can no longer mistake each others meaning, as has unfortunately been the case, less or more, with almost all former botanical systems.

(112.) FLOWERS, in respect of SEX, are distinguished into male, female, hermaphrodite, and neuter. MALE flowers are such as have only the stamina, as in the classes monœcia, diœcia, and polygamia. FEMALE flowers are such as have only the pistilla, as in the same classes. HERMAPHRODITE flowers are such as have both the sta-

mina and pistilla in the same flower, as in almost all the other classes: hermaphrodites are also distinguished into *male* hermaphrodites, when the female is ineffectual; and *female* hermaphrodites, when the male is ineffectual. NEUTER flowers are such as have neither stamina nor pistilla perfect.

(113.) The PLANTS themselves also take a denomination from the sex of their flowers; male plants are such as bear male flowers only; female plants bear female flowers only; hermaphrodite plants bear hermaphrodite flowers only. ANDROGYNOUS plants are such as bear male and female flowers, distinct upon the same root, as in the class monœcia. POLYGAMOUS plants are such as bear hermaphrodite flowers, and male or female flowers, or both distinct, on the same or on different roots.

(114.) When on the same root, the flowers are either male hermaphrodites and female hermaphrodites; or hermaphrodites and male; or hermaphrodites and female, distinct: if on different roots, the flowers are either hermaphrodites and male; hermaphrodites and female; hermaphrodites and both male and female; or are androgynous and male; and sometimes androgynous and male and female on 3 distinct plants. Upon these differences in the flowers of plants, Linnæus has the merit of founding the SEXUAL SYSTEM, which, in beauty, uniformity, regularity, comprehensiveness, and utility, infinitely excels all that have gone before it.

(115.) TABLE OF THE CLASSES.

Either PUBLICLY, *i. e.* have visible flowers:

MONOCLINIA, males and females in the same bed:—*i. e.* The flowers are all hermaphrodite

DIFFINITAS, the males or stamina unconnected with each other:

Indifferentissima, *i. e.* the males having no fixed proportion as to length:

1. MONANDRIA, *i. e.* one male or stamen in a hermaphrodite flower.
2. DIANDRIA, — two males or stamina.
3. TRIANDRIA, — three males.
4. TETRANDRIA, — four males.
5. PENTANDRIA, — five males.
6. HEXANDRIA, — six males.
7. HEPTANDRIA, — seven males.
8. OCTANDRIA, — eight males.
9. ENNEANDRIA, — nine males.
10. DECANDRIA, — ten males.
11. DODECANDRIA, — twelve males.
12. ICOSANDRIA, — twenty, or more males inserted into the calyx.
13. POLYANDRIA, — all above 20 males inserted into the receptacle.

Or *Subordinata*, two of the males are uniformly shorter than the rest.

14. DIDYNAMIA, — four males, two long and two short.
15. TETRADYNAMIA, — six males, four long and two short.

Or AFFINITAS, the stamina either connected to each other, or to the pistillum.

16. MONADELPHIA, the stamina united into one body by the filaments.
17. DIADELPHIA, the stamina united into two bodies by the filaments.
18. POLYADELPHIA, the stamina united into 3 or more bodies by the filaments.
19. SYNGENESIA, the stamina united in a cylindrical form by the antheræ.
20. GYNANDRIA, the stamina inserted into the pistillum.

Or DICLINIA, males and females in separate beds; *i. e.* plants that have stamina and pistilla in different flowers in the same species.

21. MONOECIA, male and female flowers distinct, in the same plant.
22. DIOECIA, males and females in different plants, of the same species.
23. POLYGAMIA, male, female, and hermaphrodite flowers in the same or different plants.

Or CLANDESTINELY, *i. e.* have their parts of fructification either invisible, or not distinct.

24. CRYPTOGAMIA, the flowers invisible, so that they cannot be ranked according to the parts of fructification, or distinctly described.

Plants celebrate their nuptials

Plants, which have visible flowers are either

Among the Monoclinia, there is either

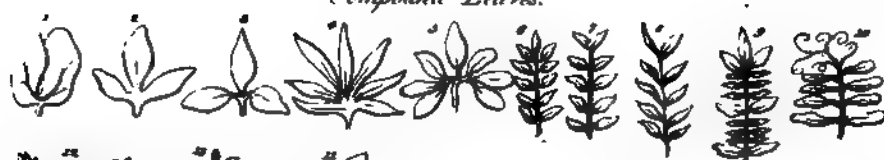
In these the stamina are either



BOTANY.

Pl. XXV.

Compound Leaves.



Determinate Leaves.



Foliation.



Radians not Flown.

ART. V. Of the Orders of Plants

(121.) The Orders are inferior divisions, which end in a step nearer the genus. In the first 23 classes, they are taken from the female parts, in the same manner as the classes from the male: and named monogynia, digynia, trigynia, tetragynia, &c. i. e. one, two, three, four, &c. pistilla, or female parts. When the pistilla have no stalk or filament like the stamens, they are numbered by the stigma or tops of the pistilla, which in that case adhere to the capsule in the form of small protuberances, as may be observed in the flowers of the poppy, &c.

(122.) In the 24th class the orders are derived from a different source. The plants belonging to it have their seeds either inclosed in a capsule, or altogether uncovered. Hence they are divided into *gymnosperms*, comprehending such as have naked seeds; and *angiosperms*, comprehending such as have their seeds covered, or inclosed in a capsule. Mr. Loe, in his *Introduction to Botany*, adds a 3d order, viz. *Polypetala*; but he mentions only one genus under it, viz. the *medusaea*, and the distinction seems hardly necessary, as it comes properly enough under *Angiosperms*.

(123.) The 25th class is divided into two Orders, viz. the *Stichosia*, or those which have a short pod, and the *Stigmaia*, or those which have a longer one.

(124.) The Orders of the 26th, 27th, 28th, and 29th classes, are taken from the number of Stamens; e. g. monadelphus *pentandria*, *decandria*, *polyandria*, &c.

(125.) The Orders of the 30th class are, 1. *Polygama aquatica*, those whose florettes are all furnished with stamina and pistils. *Polygama furcata* comprehends plants that have hermaphrodite florettes in the disk, and female florettes in the margin; which is made the foundation of the 3 next orders, viz. 2. *Polygama superflua*, those whose hermaphrodite flowers in the disk are furnished with stigma, and bear seed; and whose female flowers in the radius likewise produce seeds. 3. *Polygama fruticosa*, such as have hermaphrodite seed-bearing florettes in the disk; but whose florettes in the radius, having no stigma, are barren. 4. *Polygama necessaria* is the reverse of the former: the hermaphrodite flowers in the disk want stigma, and are barren; but the female florettes in the radius are furnished with stigma, and produce seeds. 5. *Polygama frugosa*, many florettes inclosed in one common calyx, and each of the florettes likewise furnished with a perianthium proper to itself. 6. *Monogama*. These orders consist only of 2 genera, none of which have properly compound flowers, but are ranked under this class merely from having their stamina united by the anthers.

(126.) The Orders of the 31st class are partly taken from the number of stamina, and partly from the names and characters peculiar to some of the other classes, e. g. *monocla triandria*, *monocla trigynia*, *monocla grandis*.

(127.) The Orders of the 32d class are founded upon the number, union, and situation of the stamina in the male flowers. The Orders of the 33d are all taken from classical characters; e. g. *polygama*

gamia *monœcia*, polygamia *diœcia*, and polygamia *triœcia*.

(130.) The 24th class is divided into 4 Orders: 1. *Filices*, comprehending all plants that bear their seeds in the back or edges of the leaf, and those that are called *capillary plants*. 2. *Musci*, which comprehends all the moss kind. 3. *Algæ*, including the lichens, fuci, and many others whose parts of fructification are either altogether invis-

ble or exceedingly obscure. 4. *Fungi*, comprehending all the mushroom tribe.

(131.) In the following table the classes are repeated, for the more readily understanding the orders into which each class is subdivided. *Plate XLIII.* exhibits a view of the distinctive characters of each order; and in *Plate XXVI.* the classes are all expressed, along with one of the orders.

(132.) TABLE OF THE ORDERS.

CLASSES.	NUMBER and NAMES of the ORDERS.
1. MONANDRIA	2 <i>Monogynia</i> , <i>Digynia</i> .
2. DIANDRIA	3 <i>Monogynia</i> , <i>Digynia</i> , <i>Trigynia</i> .
3. TRIANDRIA	3 <i>Monogynia</i> , <i>Digynia</i> , <i>Trigynia</i> .
4. TETRANDRIA	3 <i>Monogynia</i> , <i>Digynia</i> , <i>Tetragynia</i> .
5. PENTANDRIA	6 <i>Monogynia</i> , <i>Digynia</i> , <i>Trigynia</i> , <i>Tetragynia</i> , <i>Pentagynia</i> , <i>Polygynia</i> .
6. HEXANDRIA	5 <i>Monogynia</i> , <i>Digynia</i> , <i>Trigynia</i> , <i>Tetragynia</i> , <i>Polygynia</i> .
7. HEPTANDRIA	4 <i>Monogynia</i> , <i>Digynia</i> , <i>Tetragynia</i> , <i>Heptagynia</i> .
8. OCTANDRIA	4 <i>Monogynia</i> , <i>Digynia</i> , <i>Trigynia</i> , <i>Tetragynia</i> .
9. ENNEANDRIA	3 <i>Monogynia</i> , <i>Trigynia</i> , <i>Hexagynia</i> .
10. DECANDRIA	5 <i>Monogynia</i> , <i>Digynia</i> , <i>Trigynia</i> , <i>Pentagynia</i> , <i>Decagynia</i> .
11. DODECANDRIA	5 <i>Monogynia</i> , <i>Digynia</i> , <i>Trigynia</i> , <i>Pentagynia</i> , <i>Dodecagynia</i> .
12. ICOSANDRIA	5 <i>Monogynia</i> , <i>Digynia</i> , <i>Trigynia</i> , <i>Pentagynia</i> , <i>Polygynia</i> .
13. POLYANDRIA	7 { <i>Monogynia</i> , <i>Digynia</i> , <i>Trigynia</i> , <i>Tetragynia</i> , <i>Pentagynia</i> , <i>Hexagynia</i> , <i>Polygynia</i> .
14. DIDYNAMIA	2 <i>Gymnospermia</i> , <i>Angiospermia</i> .
15. TETRADYNAMIA	2 <i>Siliculosa</i> , <i>Siliquosa</i> .
16. MONADELPHIA	8 { <i>Triandria</i> , <i>Pentandria</i> , <i>Octandria</i> , <i>Enneandria</i> , <i>Decandria</i> , <i>Endecandria</i> , <i>Dodecandria</i> , <i>Polyandria</i> .
17. DIADELPHIA	4 <i>Pentandria</i> , <i>Hexandria</i> , <i>Octandria</i> , <i>Decandria</i> .
18. POLYADELPHIA	4 <i>Pentandria</i> , <i>Dodecandria</i> , <i>Icosandria</i> , <i>Polyandria</i> .
19. SYNGENESIA	6 { <i>Polygamia æqualis</i> , <i>Polygamia superflua</i> , <i>Polygamia frustranea</i> , <i>Polygamia necessaria</i> , <i>Polygamia segregata</i> , <i>Monogamia</i> .
20. GYNANDRIA	9 { <i>Diandria</i> , <i>Triandria</i> , <i>Tetrandria</i> , <i>Pentandria</i> , <i>Hexandria</i> , <i>Octandria</i> , <i>Decandria</i> , <i>Dodecandria</i> , <i>Polyandria</i> .
21. MONOECIA	11 { <i>Monandria</i> , <i>Diandria</i> , <i>Triandria</i> , <i>Tetrandria</i> , <i>Pentandria</i> , <i>Hexandria</i> , <i>Heptandria</i> , <i>Polyandria</i> , <i>Monadelphica</i> , <i>Syngenesia</i> , <i>Gynandria</i> .
22. DIOECIA	15 { <i>Monandria</i> , <i>Diandria</i> , <i>Triandria</i> , <i>Tetrandria</i> , <i>Pentandria</i> , <i>Hexandria</i> , <i>Octandria</i> , <i>Enneandria</i> , <i>Decandria</i> , <i>Dodecandria</i> , <i>Icosandria</i> , <i>Polyandria</i> , <i>Monadelphica</i> , <i>Syngenesia</i> , <i>Gynandria</i> .
23. POLYGAMIA	3 <i>Monœcia</i> , <i>Diœcia</i> , <i>Triœcia</i> .
24. CRYPTOGRAMIA	4 <i>Filices</i> , <i>Musci</i> , <i>Algæ</i> , <i>Fungi</i> .
APPENDIX	1 <i>Palmeæ</i> .

(133.) Some botanists rank these last as a 25th class; but this is improper, as they are all capable of being arranged in the preceding classes of the system, although on account of their singular structure, Linnæus placed them in an appendix. They contain such genera as have a spadix and spathe, *i. e.* whose flowers and fruit are produced on that particular receptacle called a *spadix*, protruded from a common calyx in form of a sheath, called *spathe*. This order consists of trees and shrubs only. These have always a simple stem, not branched, bearing leaves at the top, resembling those of fern, being a composition of a leaf and a branch, called *frondes*; and the corolla hath always 3 petals.

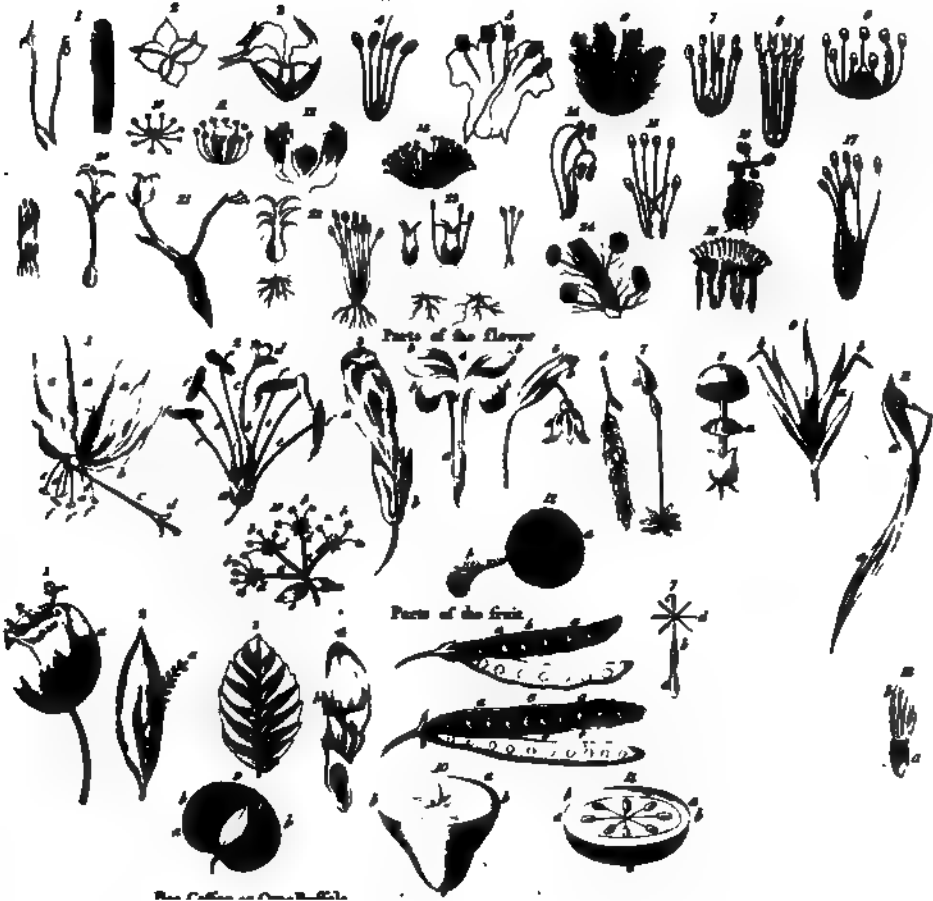
(134.) EXPLANATION of the BOTANICAL FIGURES in PLATE XXVI.—CLASSES and ORDERS. *Fig. 1.* Illustrates the class *Monandria*, and order *Monogynia*; one stamen and one pistil. *Fig. 2.* *Diandria Monogynia*, two stamens, one pistil. *Fig. 3.* *Triandria Digynia*, three stamens, two stigmata. *Fig. 4.* *Tetrandria Monogynia*, four stamens, one pistil.

Fig. 5. *Pentandria Monogynia*, five stamens, one pistil. *Fig. 6.* *Hexandria Monogynia*, six stamens, one pistil. *Fig. 7.* *Heptandria Monogynia*, seven stamens, one pistil. *Fig. 8.* *Octandria Monogynia*, eight stamens, one pistil. *Fig. 9.* *Enneandria Monogynia*, nine stamens, one pistil. *Fig. 10.* *Decandria Pentagynia*, ten stamens, five pistils. *Fig. 11.* *Dodecandria Monogynia*, 12 stamens, one pistil. *Fig. 12.* *Icosandria Polygynia*, 20 stamens arising from the substance of the calyx or corolla, with many stigmata. *Fig. 13.* *Polyandria Monogynia*, many stamens, one pistil. *Fig. 14.* *Didynamia*, two stamens longer than the other two. *Fig. 15.* *Tetradynamia*, six stamens, 4 long and 2 short. *Fig. 16.* *Monadelphica Pentagynia*, many stamens united at the base, and forming a cylinder with five stigmata. *Fig. 17.* *Dia- delphica*, the stamens in two parcels. *Fig. 18.* *Polyadel- phica*, many sets of stamens in one flower. *Fig. 19.* *Syn- genesia*, antheræ united. *Fig. 20.* *Gynandria*, stamens connected to the pistil. *Fig. 21.* *Monœcia*, male and female flowers separate, but on the same plant. *Fig. 22.* *Diœcia*, male and female flowers on distinct plants, bearing from a separate root. *Fig. 23.* *Poly- gamia*,

BOTANY.

Plate XXVI.

Classes and Orders



See Column on Opposite Page.

See Indians, or Little Indian Buffalo.

Buffalo, or Common Buffalo.

The Milk Bull and Cow.



Reproduced for Encyclopedia Britannica.

Linnean System.



Monandria.



Diandria.



Triandria.



Tetrandria.



Pentandria.



Hexandria.



Heptandria.



Octandria.



Enneandria.



Decandria.



Dodecandria.



Polycandria.



Polycandria.



Dichynamia.



Tetradynamia.



Monadelphua.



Diadelphua.



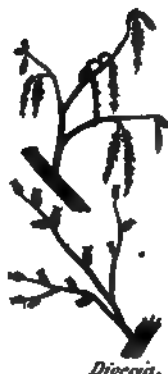
Polyadelphua.



Syngenesia.



Monocera.



Dioecia.

Cryptogamia.

Polygamia.

BOTANY

Plate XLIII.

LINNEAN SYSTEM.



Monogamia



Diogamia



Triogamia



Tetragamia



Pentagamia



Hexagamia



Heptagamia



Decagamia



Dodecagamia



Polygamia



Gymnospermia



Anisogamia



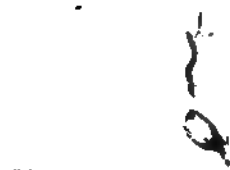
Strobilacea



Strobilacea



Equatio



Poligamia Superflua



Poligamia Fructuosa



Poligamia Necessaria



Poligamia Scrogata



Triocrea



Poligamia Monogamia



Filices



Musci

Libera ad se recipiuntur in natura



Algae



Fungi

gamia, male, female, and hermaphrodite flowers.

14. *Cryptogamia*, concealed fructification.

PARTS of the FLOWER, Fig. 1. A flower with its corolla, pistillum, and stamina; *a*, the petals of the corolla; *b*, the germen; *c*, the style; *d*, the stigma; *e*, the filaments; *f*, the antheræ. 2. The calyx, pistillum, and stamina, separate from the corolla; *a*, the perianthium; *b*, the germen; *c*, the style; *d*, the stigma; *e*, the filaments; *f*, the antheræ bursting and discharging the pollen; *g*, an anthera before it has burst. 3. A flower whose corolla is monopetalous; *a*, the corolla; *b*, the perianthium. 4. A polypetalous corolla; *a*, the ungues; *b*, the laminæ. 5. A *Narcissus* issuing from its spatha: *a*, the flower; *b*, the spatha. 6. An amentum. 7. The fructification of a *Moss*; *a*, the calyptra. 8. A *Fungus*; *a*, the volva. 9. A *Grass*; *a*, the gluma, *b*, the arista. 10. A compound umbel: *a*, the universal umbel; *b*, partial umbels; *c*, universal involucre; *d*, partial involucre. 11. A bractæa accompanying the flowers of the *Tilia*: *a*, the bractæa. 12. *a*, the pollen seen with a microscope; *b*, an elastic vapour discharged from it.—**PARTS of the FRUIT, Fig. 1.** A capsule; *a*, the valves. 2. *a*, A receptacle of seeds. 3. A strobilus. 4. A winged seed; *a*, the seed; *b*, the wing. 5. A legumen; *a*, the upper suture, along which runs the receptacle of the seeds. 6. A siliqua: *a*, *b*, the two sutures to which the seeds are fastened alternately. 7. A seed crowned with a pappus; *a*, the seed; *b*, the styles which supports the pappus; *c*, a hairy pappus; *d*, a feathery pappus. 8. The seed of a *Bean* split in two; *a*, the cotyledons; *b*, the corculum; *c*, the rostellum; *d*, the plumula; *e*, the hilum. 9. A drupa; *a*, the nucleus, or stone; *b*, the pulp. 10. A pomum; *a*, the capsule; *b*, the pulp. 11. A berry; *a*, the seeds; *b*, the pulp. 12. A seed crowned with a calyculus; *a*, the seed; *b*, the calyculus.

SECT. VI. Of the PARTS that distinguish the GENERA of PLANTS.

(135.) In investigating the genus of a plant, we first consider its essence. The essence of every vegetable, says Linnæus, consists in the fructification; the essence of the fructification in the flower and fruit; the essence of the flower consists in the antheræ and stigma, and the essence of the fruit in the seed. Hence he makes the flower and fruit the foundation of his generic distinctions, in his sexual theory.

(136.) These are generally composed of 7 parts; the CALYX, the COROLLA, the STAMINA, the PISTILLUM, the PERICARPIUM, the SEMINA, and the RECEPTACULUM; and the presence or absence, the number, figure, proportion, and situation of the several parts, constitute the genus. But as there are few genera wherein all the parts of the *natural* character are constant in every one of the species, it is necessary to fix upon such circumstances as are constant in both genus and species, and call those the *essential* or ruling character; both to distinguish one genus from another, and to fix the several species and their varieties to their respective genera; for which purpose, in some cases, Linnæus was obliged to have recourse to the *reçarium*. The first 4 parts of the fructifica-

tion are properly parts of the flower, and the last 3 of the fruit.

(137.) I. The CALYX, or cup, is the termination of the outer bark of a plant. Its chief use is to inclose, support, and protect the other parts of the fructification. When present, it is seated on the receptacle: and is distinguished by its figure: by the number, division, and shape of its leaves, or segments; and by the following names, according to the circumstances with which it is attended.

(138.) PERIANTHIUM, when its station is close to, and surrounds the other parts of the fructification, is called the *perianthium of the fructification*: If it includes many floscules, as in *scabiosa*, and other aggregate and compound flowers, it is called a *common perianthium*: if it includes only one floscule, it is called a *proper perianthium*: if it includes the stamina, and not the germen, it is the perianthium of the *flower*, and is said to be *above*, as in *lonicera*, *ribes*, *campanula*, &c.: if it includes the germen, but not the stamina, it is the perianthium of the *fruit*, and is said to be *below*, as in *linnea* and *morina*, each of which have two calyxes and two receptacles above each other, one of the flower and the other of the fruit.

(139.) INVOLUCRUM, when stationed at the foot of an umbel, below the common receptacle, and at a distance from the flower, is called *universal*, if placed under the universal umbel; and *partial*, if placed under a partial umbel.

(140.) AMENTUM consists of a great number of chaffy scales, disposed along a slender axis or common receptacle, which, from its resemblance to a cat's tail, has obtained the name of *catkin*; and these flowers have generally no petals: Sometimes the same amentum supports both male and female flowers, distinct, on the same plant, as in *carpinus*, &c. sometimes the male and female flowers are removed from each other on the same plant, and the amentum supports only the male flowers, and the female flowers are inclosed by a perianthium, as in *corylus*, *fagus*, &c. and sometimes an amentum only supports male flowers on one plant, and female flowers on another plant, as in *salix*, *populus*, &c.

(141.) SPATHA, a sort of calyx growing from the stalk, bursting lengthways, and protruding a spadix, supporting one or more flowers, which have often no perianthium. It consists either of one leaf, with a valve on one side only, as in the greater number of spathaceous plants; or of two leaves, with two valves, as in *stratiotes*, &c. or is imbricated, as in *musa*, &c. with one or two valves.

(142.) GLUMA, a husk, chiefly belongs to corn and grasses, consisting of 1, 2, 3, or more valves, folding over each other like scales, and frequently terminated by a long, stiff, pointed prickle, called the *arista*.

(143.) CALYPTRA, the proper calyx of mosses, is placed over the antheræ of the stamina, resembling an extinguisher, a hood, or monk's cowl.

(144.) VOLVA, so named from its *infolding*, is the proper calyx of fungusses, being membranaceous, and surrounding the stalk, before their expansion.

(145.) It is often difficult to distinguish the

calyx from the *bractææ*, which are found on many plants, situated on the flower stalks; and are often so near to the lower parts of the fructification as to be mistaken for the calyx, as in *tilia*, *passiflora*, &c. but they may be best distinguished by this rule; the *bractææ* differ in shape and colour from the other leaves of the plant, but are commonly of the same duration; whereas the calyx always withers when the fruit is ripe, if not before.

(146.) II. The **COROLLA** is the termination of the inner bark of the plant; which accompanies the fructification in the form of leaves variously coloured. It is generally seated on the receptacle, sometimes on the calyx; serving as an inner work of defence to the part it incloses; as the calyx, which is usually of stronger texture, does for an outer. The leaves of the corolla are called *petals*, by the number, division, and shape of which it is distinguished. It is said to be *below*, when it includes the germen, and is attached to the part immediately below it, as in *borago*, &c. and it is said to be *above*, when it is placed above the germen, as in *cratægus*, &c. In respect to duration, the corolla either continues till the fruit is ripe, as in *nymphæa*; or falls off at the first opening of the flower, as in *actæa*; or with the stamina and other parts of the flower, as in most plants; or does not fall, but withers, as in *campanula*, &c.

(147.) The **NECTARIUM**, Linnæus says, principally belongs to the corolla, as an appendage to the petals: and contains the honey, which is the principal food of bees and other insects. But though, in plants where it is found, it may be attached to the corolla, and be then most evident; yet it is almost as often attached to other parts of the fructification: Linnæus therefore chiefly makes use of it as an essential character in many of the genera, as being less variable than others, and observes, that when it is not united with the substance of the petals, those plants are generally poisonous; The tube or lower part of monopetalous flowers, he considers as a true nectarium, because it contains a sweet liquor. But as it affords very singular varieties in other instances, it has the following distinctions.

1. **CALYCINE NECTARIA** such as are situated upon, and make a part of, the calyx; as in *tropæolum*, *monotropa*, &c.

2. **COROLLACEOUS NECTARIA** are attached to the corolla, and are called *calcariate* when they resemble a spur. They are either on flowers of one petal, as in *valeriana*, &c. or on flowers of many petals, as in *viola*, &c. or within the substance of the petals, as in *lilium*, *iris*, &c.

3. **STAMINEOUS NECTARIA** attend the stamina, and are either seated upon the antheræ, as in *adenanthera*; or upon the filaments, as in *laurea*, &c.

4. **PISTILLACEOUS NECTARIA** accompany the pistillum, and are placed upon the germen, as in *hyacinthus*, *butomus*, &c.

5. **RECEPTACULACEOUS NECTARIA** join the receptacle, as in *polygonum*, *sedum*, &c.

NECTARIA, that crown the corolla, are placed row within the petals, though entirely joined with their substance, as in *filene*,

&c. and in this situation often resemble a cup, as in *narcissus*, &c.

7. **NECTARIA** of singular construction, are such as cannot properly be placed under any of the foregoing distinctions, as in *amomum*, *curcuma*, *saliva*, *urtica*, &c. The proper use of the nectarium, is not yet discovered.

(148.) III. The **STAMINA**, or chives, are the males of the flower, proceeding from the wood of the plant. Each stamen consists of two parts, viz. the filament and the antheræ. In most flowers they are placed upon the receptacle, within the corolla, and round the germen; and are chiefly distinguished by number.

(149.) 1. The **FILAMENT** is the thread-shaped part of the stamen, serving as a footstalk to elevate the antheræ, and sometimes has jags or divisions; which are either two, as in *salvia*; 3 as in *fumaria*; or 9, as in the class *diadelphia*. They are also distinguished by their form or figure, as awl-shaped, thread-shaped, hair-like, spiral, revolute, &c. by their proportion, as equal, unequal, irregular, long, or short; and by their situation, being generally opposite to the leaves or divisions of the calyx, and alternate with the petals; that is, when the divisions of the calyx are equal in number to the petals, and to the stamina. In monopetalous flowers they are generally inserted into the corolla; but scarcely ever in flowers of more than one petal, but into the receptacle: Yet in the class *icosandria* they are inserted into the calyx or corolla (though the flowers have many petals,) as also in a few other plants. But in the class *polyandria*, and most other polypetalous plants, they are inserted into the receptacle, like the calyx and corolla. The class *gynandria*, however, is an exception to the above rules, where the stamina are sometimes without filaments.

(150.) 2. The **ANTHERA**, from *ἀνθήρα*, a flower, emphatically so called from its great utility in the fructification, is the top of the filament, containing the impregnating pollen; and is either one to each filament, as in most plants; or one common to three filaments, as in *cucurbita*, &c. or one common to 5 filaments, as in the class *syngenesia*: or sometimes there are two antheræ to each filament, as in *ranunculus* and *mercurialis*: 3 to each filament, as in *fumaria*; 5 to 3 filaments, as in *bryonia*; or 5 to each, as in *theobroma*. The anthera is also distinguished by its form or figure, as oblong, round, angular, &c. It consists of one or more cells, which burst differently in different parts; either in the side, as in most plants; on the top; or from the top to the base. It is also fastened to the top of the filament, either by its base, as in most plants, or horizontally by its middle, to the top of the filament, so poised as to turn like a vane; or it is fixed by its side, leaning to the top of the filament, then called *incumbent*. Sometimes it grows to the nectarium, as in *coltus*; to the receptacle, as in *arum*; or to the pistillum, in the class *gynandria*.

(151.) IV. The **PISTILLUM**, or the female of the flower, proceeding from the pith of the plant, is that erect column which is generally placed in the centre of the flower, amidst the stamina; and consists of 3 parts, the germen, the style, and the stigma.

(152.) 1. The **GERMEN** is the base of the pistillum, supporting the style. After some time, it becomes a seed-vessel, and may therefore be considered as the rudiment of the pericarpium. It is distinguished by its shape, number, and situation; and is said to be *above* or *below*, according to its position above or below the attachment of the corolla.

(153.) 2. The **STYLE** elevates the stigma from the germen, to receive the influence of the stamens, and to convey it down to the germen as through a tube. It is distinguished either by its number, which, when present (or when absent, the number of stigmata,) gives rise to most of the orders, and are called so many females; or by its divisions, being double, treble, or quadruple, &c. they are joined at the base; or by its length, being longer, shorter, or equal with the stamina; or by its proportion, being thicker or thinner than the stamina; or by its figure, being regular, cylindrical, and shaped, bent, &c. or by its situation, being generally on the top of the germen, though in some instances supposed to be both above and below, as in capparid and euphorbia; unless the lower part in these genera be considered as the extension of the receptacle. It is often placed on the side of the germen, as in hirtella, suriana; also in rosa, rubus, and the rest of the plants in the class icostandria and order polygynia. With respect to duration, it generally falls with the other parts of the flower; but in some plants it is permanent, and attends the fruit to its maturity, as in the class tetradynamia. In flowers which have no style, the stigma adheres to the germen.

(154.) 3. The **STIGMA**, when single, is generally placed like a head on the summit of the style; when several, they are placed on the top, or regularly disposed along the side; and covered with moisture, to retain the pollen of the antheræ. It is distinguished either by its number, being single in most plants; or by its divisions, figure, length, thickness, or duration; as in most plants it withers when the germen is become a seed-vessel; in some it is permanent, as in papayer.

(155.) 4. The **PERICARPIUM**, is the germen grown to maturity, and become a matrix. All plants, however, are not furnished with a seed-vessel, as corylus, &c. In many, it is supplied chiefly by the calyx, which converging incloses the seeds till they arrive at maturity; as is the case with the rough-leaved plants, and the labial and compound flowers of the classes, pentandria, didynamia, and syngenesia. Sometimes the receptacle supplies the office of seed-vessel, as in gundelia; and sometimes the nectarium, as in cress. The pericarpium is situated at the receptacle of the flower, either above or below, or both, as in saxifraga and lobelia; and is distinguished by the following appellations, according to its different structure.

(156.) 1. **CAPSULA** is frequently succulent whilst green; but when ripe, it is a dry husky seed-vessel, that parts to discharge its contents; and by some elastic motion, the seeds are often darted forth with considerable velocity, as in dictamnus, &c. It opens either at the top, as in most plants; at the bottom; at the side, horizontally; across the middle; or longitudinally; and if

it is articulated or jointed, it opens at each of the joints, which contains a single seed. It is distinguished externally, by its number of valves; and internally, by the number of its cells, wherein the seed is inclosed; as well as by its shape and substance.

(157.) 2. **SILIQUA**, a pod, is a pericarpium of two valves; but as some are long, others round or broad, Linnæus distinguishes them by their form into *siliqua* and *silicula* which give name to the 2 orders in the class tetradynamia. The *siliqua* is a long pod, being much longer than broad, as in brassica, sinapis, &c. the *silicula*, a little pod, is a roundish pod, either flat or spherical, and the length and breadth nearly equal, as in lunaria, draba, &c. In both, the apex, which had been the style, is often so long beyond the valves, as to be of equal length with the pod; and the seeds in both are fastened alternately by a slender thread, to both the sutures or joinings of the valves.

(158.) 3. **LEGUMEN**, pulse, is also a pod, and is likewise a pericarpium of two valves, wherein the seeds are fastened to short receptacles along the upper suture only, on each side, alternate: this chiefly belongs to the papilionaceous flowers of the class diadelphia.

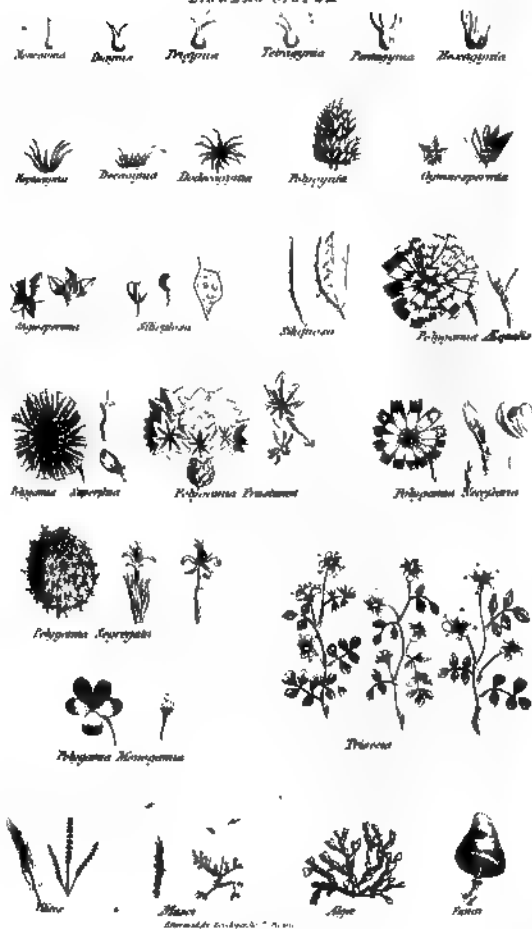
(159.) 4. **POLLICULUS**, or **CONCEPTACULUM**, is a pericarpium of one valve only, opening lengthways on one side, and the seeds not fastened to the suture, but to a receptacle within the fruit, as in asclepias, &c.

(160.) 5. **DRUPA** is a pericarpium that is pulpy, having no valve. It contains within its substance a nut, or seed inclosed with a hard ligneous crust, as olea, cornus, &c. and when the drupa is seated below the calyx, it is furnished with an umbilicus like the pomum.

(161.) 6. **POMUM**, an apple, is also a pulpy pericarpium without valve; but containing in the middle a membranous capsule, with several cells containing the seeds; and at the end opposite to the footstalk there is generally a small cavity, called *umbilicus* from its resemblance to the navel in animals; and which was formerly the calyx, seated above the fruit, and persistent, as in pyrus, cucumis, &c.

(162.) 7. **BACCA**, a berry, is also a pulpy pericarpium without valve, inclosing one or more seeds, which have no membranous capsule or covering, but are disposed promiscuously through the pulp, as in solanum, &c. and are generally placed on footstalks attached to receptacles within the pulp, as in ribes, &c. The berry also admits of the following distinction: It is said to be *proper*, when it is a true pericarpium formed of a germen; and *improper*, when it is formed from other parts of the fructification; as in rosa, juniperus, &c. A large succulent calyx becomes a berry; and in juniperus, the 3 petals become the umbilicus; in poterium the berry is formed of the tube of the corolla; in fragaria, &c. it is formed of the top of the receptacle; in rubus, &c. it is formed from a seed, which is the receptacle of the berry; in ruscus, &c. it is inclosed within and is a part of the nectary. The berry is commonly either round or oval, and is frequently furnished with an umbilicus, as in ribes, &c. it does not naturally

1946-1947



Sideroxylum, *Rhamnus*, *Arduina*, *Ellisia*, *Phyllica*, *Bladhia*, and *Fragræa*. 6. Polypetalous, viz. *Ceanothus*, *Byttneria*, *Myrsine*, *Celastrus*, *Eunymus*, *Diosma*, *Brunia*, *Itea*, *Galax*, *Cedrela*, *Mangifera*, *Hirtella*, *Ribes*, *Gronovia*, *Hedera*, *Vitis*, *Lagoetia*, *Sauvagesia*, *Claytonia*, *Achyranthes*, *Roridula*, *Kunhia*, *Plectronia*, *Cyrilla*, *Aquilicia*, *Heliconia*, *Carissa*, *Celosia*, *Calodendrum*, *Chenolea*, and *Corynocarpus*. 7. Incomplete flowers, viz. *Illecebrum*, *Glaux*, and *Thesium*. 8. Such as have lobes of the corollæ bent obliquely to the right, viz. *Rauvolfia*, *Cerbera*, *Vinca*, *Gardenia*, *Nerium*, *Plumeria*, *Echites*, *Camera-ria*, and *Tabernæmontana*. II. DIGYNIA contains, 75 genera, distinguished into, 1. Such as have the lobes of the corollæ bent obliquely to the right, viz. *Periplocæ*, *Cynanchum*, *Apocynum*, *Asclepias*, *Linconia*, and *Stapelia*. 2. Monospermous, viz. *Herniaria*, *Chenopodium*, *Beta*, *Salsola*, *Anabasis*, *Cressa*, *Gomphrena*, *Steris*, *Bosca*, and *Ulmus*. 3. Polyspermous, viz. *Nama*, *Hydrolea*, *Heuchera*, *Swertia*, *Schrebera*, *Velezia*, *Gentiana*, *Bumalda*, *Coprosma*, *Cussonia*, *Melondinus*, *Rufscia*, and *Vahlia*. 4. Gymnodispermous, with a simple umbel, viz. *Phyllis*, *Eryngium*, and *Hydrocotyle*. 5. Gymnodispermous with an universal umbel and partial involucre, viz. *Sanicula*, *Astrantia*, *Bupleurum*, *Echinophora*, *Tordylium*, *Caucalis*, *Artemisia*, *Daucus*, *Ammi*, *Bunium*, *Conium*, *Selinum*, *Athamanta*, *Peucedanum*, *Crithmum*, *Hasselquistia*, *Cachrys*, *Ferula*, *Laserpitium*, *Heraclæum*, *Ligusticum*, *Angelica*, *Sium*, *Sison*, *Bubon*, *Cuminum*, and *Oenanthe*. 6. Gymnodispermous, with only one partial umbel, viz. *Phellandrium*, *Cicuta*, *Æthusa*, *Coriandrum*, *Scaudix*, *Chærophylloides*, *Imperatoria*, and *Seseli*. 7. Gymnodispermous without any involucre, viz. *Thapsia*, *Pastinaca*, *Smyrnum*, *Anethum*, *Carum*, *Pimpinella*, *Apium*, and *Ægopodium*. III. TRIGYNIA, 17 genera, viz. *Rhus*, *Viburnum*, *Cassia*, *Sambucus*, *Spathelia*, *Staphylea*, *Tamarix*, *Turnera*, *Telephium*, *Corrigiola*, *Pharnaceum*, *Alcine*, *Drypis*, *Basella*, *Sarothra*, *Xylophylla*, and *Semicarpus*. IV. TETRAGYNIA, 2 genera, viz. *Parnassia*, and *Evolvulus*. V. PENTAGYNIA, 10 genera, viz. *Aralia*, *Mahernia*, *Statice*, *Linum*, *Aldrovanda*, *Drosera*, *Crassula*, *Sibbaldia*, *Giskia*, and *Commerfonia*. VI. POLYGYNIA, 1 genus, viz. *Myosorus*.

(181.) CLASS VI. HEXANDRIA. ORD. I. MONOGYNIA, contains 62 genera, distinguished into 1. Such as have trifid corollæ, and a calyx, viz. *Bromelia*, *Tillandsia*, *Burmannia*, *Tradescantia*, *Bursera*, *Licuala*, and *Lachenalia*. 2. Such as have monophyllous spatha, viz. *Pontederæa*, *Hæmanthus*, *Galanthus*, *Leucoium*, *Tulbagia*, *Narcissus*, *Pancratium*, *Duroia*, and *Nandina*. 3. Such as are hexapetalous and naked, viz. *Crinum*, *Amaryllis*, *Bulbocodium*, *Aphyllanthes*, *Allium*, *Lilium*, *Fritillaria*, *Uvularia*, *Gloriosa*, *Tulipa*, *Erythronium*, *Albuca*, *Ornithogalum*, *Scilla*, *Hypoxis*, *Cyanella*, *Asphodelus*, *Anthericum*, *Leontice*, *Dracena*, *Asparagus*, *Ehrharta*, *Maffonia*, *Phormium*, and *Polia*. 4. Monopetalous and naked, viz. *Convallaria*, *Polyanthes*, *Hyacinthus*, *Aletris*, *Yucca*, *Aloe*, *Agave*, *Ailstroemeria*, *Capura*, and *Hemerocallis*. 5. Such as have a calyx, but the corollæ not trifid, viz. *Acorus*, *Orontium*,

Calamus, *Juncus*, *Åchras*, *Richardia*, *Pilo*, *Berberis*, *Loranthus*, *Frankenia*, *Hillia*, *Peplis*, and *Canaria*. II. DIGYNIA, contains 4 genera, viz. *Atraphaxis*, *Oryza*, *Falkia*, and *Gahnia*. III. TRIGYNIA, 10 genera, viz. *Flagellaria*, *Rumex*, *Scheuchzeria*, *Triglochin*, *Melanthium*, *Medeola*, *Trillium*, *Colchicum*, *Helonias*, and *Wurmbea*. IV. TETRAGYNIA, one genus, viz. *Petiveria*. V. POLYGYNIA, one genus, viz. *Alisma*.

(182.) CLASS VII. HEPTANDRIA. ORD. I. MONOGYNIA, contains 3 genera, viz. *Trientalis*, *Disandra*, and *Æsculus*. II. DIGYNIA, one genus, viz. *Limeum*. III. TETRAGYNIA, two genera, viz. *Saururus*, and *Aponogeton*. IV. HEPTAGYNIA, one genus, viz. *Septas*.

(183.) CLASS VIII. OCTANDRIA. ORD. I. MONOGYNIA, contains 31 genera, viz. *Tropæolum*, *Osbeckia*, *Rhexia*, *Oenothera*, *Gaura*, *Epilobium*, *Melicocca*, *Griffia*, *Amyris*, *Allophylus*, *Combretum*, *Fuchsia*, *Ximenia*, *Mimusops*, *Jambolifera*, *Memecylon*, *Lawsonia*, *Vaccinium*, *Erica*, *Daphne*, *Dirca*, *Gnidia*, *Stellera*, *Passerina*, *Lachnæa*, *Antichorus*, *Chlora*, *Dodonæa*, *Ophira*, *Guarea*, and *Bæckea*. II. DIGYNIA, 5 genera, viz. *Galenia*, *Weinmannia*, *Moehringia*, *Schmidelia*, and *Codia*. III. TRIGYNIA, 5 genera, viz. *Polygonum*, *Coccoloba*, *Paulinia*, *Gardiospermum*, and *Sapindus*. IV. TETRAGYNIA, 4 genera, viz. *Paris*, *Adoxa*, *Elatine*, and *Haloragis*.

(184.) CLASS IX. ENNEANDRIA. ORD. I. MONOGYNIA, contains 3 genera, viz. *Laurus*, *Tinus*, and *Cassia*. II. TRIGYNIA, one genus, viz. *Rheum*. III. HEXAGYNIA, one genus, viz. *Butomus*.

(185.) CLASS X. DECANDRIA. ORD. I. MONOGYNIA contains 56 genera, distinguished into 1. Such as have declined stamina, viz. *Sophora*, *Anagyris*, *Cercis*, *Bauhinia*, *Parkinsonia*, *Hymenæa*, *Cassia*, *Poinciana*, *Cæsalpinia*, *Guilandina*, *Guaiacum*, *Cynometra*, *Anacardium*, *Swietenia*, and *Dictamnus*. 2. Such as have erect stamina, viz. *Ruta*, *Toluifera*, *Hæmatoxylum*, *Adenanthera*, *Melia*, *Trichilia*, *Zygophyllum*, *Quassia*, *Fagonia*, *Tribulus*, *Thyrallia*, *Murraya*, *Monotropa*, *Jussieua*, *Limonia*, *Melastoma*, *Kalmia*, *Ledum*, *Quisqualis*, *Dais*, *Bergera*, *Bucida*, *Copaifera*, *Samyda*, *Rhododendron*, *Andromeda*, *Epigæa*, *Gualtheria*, *Arbutus*, *Clethra*, *Pyrola*, *Protopis*, *Heisteria*, *Chalcas*, *Codon*, *Styrax*, *Turæa*, *Dionæa*, *Ekebergia*, *Inocarpus*, and *Myroxylon*. II. DIGYNIA, contains 12 genera, viz. *Royena*, *Hydrangea*, *Cunonia*, *Chrysosplenium*, *Saxifraga*, *Tiarella*, *Metella*, *Scleranthus*, *Trianthema*, *Gypsophila*, *Saponaria*, and *Dianthus*. III. TRIGYNIA, 12 genera, viz. *Cucubalus*, *Silene*, *Stellaria*, *Arenaria*, *Cherleria*, *Garidella*, *Malpighia*, *Banisteria*, *Triopteris*, *Erythroxylon*, *Hirza*, and *Deutzia*. IV. PENTAGYNIA, 14 genera, viz. *Averrhoa*, *Spondias*, *Cotyledon*, *Sedum*, *Penthorum*, *Oxalis*, *Suriana*, *Lychnis*, *Agrostemma*, *Crastium*, *Spergula*, *Griecum*, *Forskohlea*, and *Begonia*. V. DECAGYNIA, 2 genera, viz. *Neurad* and *Phytolacca*.

(186.) CLASS XI. DODECANDRIA. ORD. I. MONOGYNIA, contains 25 genera, viz. *Asarum*, *Gethyllis*, *Bocconia*, *Rhizophora*, *Blakea*, *Garcinia*, *Winterana*, *Cratæva*, *Triumfetta*, *Bassia*, *Peganum*, *Halesia*, *Nitraria*, *Portulaca*, *Hudsonia*, and *Lythrum*.

Lythrum, *Ginora*, *Decumaria*, *Befaria*, *Vatica*, *Apacis*, *Canella*, *Dodecas*, *Eurya*, and *Aristote-*
 II. *DIGYNIA*, 2 genera, viz. *Heliocarpus*,
 and *Agrimonia*. III. *TRIGYNIA*, 5 genera, viz.
Kéda, *Euphorbia*, *Pallasia*, *Tacca*, and *Visnea*.
 IV. *PENTAGYNIA*, one genus, viz. *Glinus*. V.
DODECAGYNIA, one genus, viz. *Sempervivum*.

(188.) CLASS XII. *ICOSANDRIA*. ORD. I. *MONOGYNIA*, contains 11 genera, viz. *Cactus*, *Eup-*
horbia, *Philadelphus*, *Plodium*, *Myrtus*, *Punica*,
Amygdalus, *Prunus*, *Plinia*, *Chrysobalanus*, and
Sorceratia. II. *DIGYNIA*, one genus, viz. *Cra-*
geus. III. *TRIGYNIA*, two genera, viz. *Sorbus*,
 and *Sesuvium*. IV. *PENTAGYNIA*, 6 genera, viz.
Mopha, *Pyrus*, *Tetragonia*, *Mesembryanth-*
us, *Aizoon*, and *Spiræa*. V. *POLYGYNIA*, 9
 genera, viz. *Rosa*, *Rubus*, *Fragaria*, *Potentilla*,
Totentilla, *Geum*, *Dryas*, *Comarum*, and *Ca-*
peranthus.

(189.) CLASS XII. *POLYANDRIA*. ORD. I. *MONOGYNIA*, contains 42 genera, distinguished into,
 1. Such as have scarce any style, viz. *Marcgravia*,
Pædia, *Actæa*, *Sanguinaria*, *Podophyllum*, *Che-*
lædium, *Papaver*, *Argemone*, *Muntingia*, *Cam-*
ogia, *Sarracena*, and *Nymphæa*. 2. Such as
 have a style of some length, viz. *Bixa*, *Sloanea*,
Copais, *Mammea*, *Ochna*, *Calophyllum*, *Grias*,
Tha, *Lætia*, *Elæocarpus*, *Lecythis*, *Vateria*,
Læstroemia, *Thea*, *Caryophyllus*, *Mentzellia*,
Natta, *Cistus*, *Prockia*, *Corchorus*, *Seguieria*,
Lofta, *Trewia*, *Trilix*, *Alstonia*, *Cleyera*, *Myrif-*
ica, *Spartmania*, *Terustromia*, and *Vallea*. II.
DIGYNIA, 4 genera, viz. *Pæonia*, *Calligonum*,
Castella, and *Fothergilla*. III. *TRIGYNIA*, 2
 genera, viz. *Delphinium*, and *Aconitum*. IV.
TETRAGYNIA, 3 genera, viz. *Tetracera*, *Ca-*
pacar, and *Cimicifuga*. V. *PENTAGYNIA*, 4
 genera, viz. *Aquilegia*, *Nigella*, *Reaumuria*, and
Babys. VI. *HEXAGYNIA*, one genus, viz. *Strat-*
ella. VII. *POLYGYNIA*, 21 genera, viz. *Dille-*
ta, *Uniodendron*, *Magnolia*, *Michelia*, *Uvaria*,
Anemone, *Atragene*, *Clematis*, *Thalic-*
tra, *Adonis*, *Illicium*, *Ranunculus*, *Trollius*,
Helleborus, *Caltha*, *Hydrastis*, *Hou-*
tonia, *Usona*, and *Wintera*.

(190.) CLASS XIV. *DIDYNAMIA*. ORD. I. *GYNOSPERMIA*, contains 34 genera, distinguish-
 ed into, 1. Such as have the calyx quinquefid, and
 early equal, viz. *Ajuga*, *Teucrium*, *Satureja*,
Tympha, *Hyssopus*, *Nepeta*, *Lavandula*, *Beto-*
nia, *Sideritis*, *Mentha*, *Glechoma*, *Perilla*, *La-*
terum, *Galeopsis*, *Stachys*, *Ballota*, *Marrubium*,
Leucurus, *Phlomis*, and *Moluccella*. 2. Such as
 have the calyx bilabiate, viz. *Clinopodium*, *Ori-*
um, *Thymus*, *Melissa*, *Dracocephalon*, *Hor-*
tuum, *Melittis*, *Ocimum*, *Trichostema*, *Scu-*
taria, *Prunella*, *Cleonia*, *Prasium*, and *Phryma*.
 II. *ANDROSPERMIA*, contains 69 genera, distin-
 guished into, 1. Such as have a simple stigma, and
 tubulate corollæ, viz. *Bartia*, *Rhinanthus*, *Eup-*
horbia, *Melampyrum*, *Lathræa*, *Schwalbea*, *Toz-*
za, *Pedicularis*, *Gerardia*, *Chelone*, *Geigeria*,
Antirrhinum, and *Cymbaria*. 2. A simple stigma
 and spreading corollæ, viz. *Craniolaria*, *Martynia*,
Tweia, *Scrophularia*, *Celsia*, *Digitalis*, *Bigno-*
nia, *Citharexylum*, *Halleria*, *Crescentia*, *Gmelina*,
Peltandra, *Lantana*, *Cornutia*, *Loefelia*, *Capraria*,
Sida, *Hebenstretia*, *Erinus*, *Buchnera*, *Brow-*
 VOL. IV. PART I.

allia, *Linnaea*, *Sibthorpla*, *Limosella*, *Hemimeris*,
Dombeya, *Castilleja*, *Millingtonia*, *Thunbergia*,
 and *Amasonia*. 3. With a double stigma, viz.
Stemodia, *Obolaria*, *Orobanche*, *Dodartia*, *Lip-*
pia, *Sesamum*, *Mimulus*, *Ruellia*, *Barleria*, *Du-*
ranta, *Ovieda*, *Volkameria*, *Clerodendron*, *Vitex*,
Bontia, *Columnnea*, *Acanthus*, *Pedanium*, *Avicen-*
nia, *Vandelia*, *Manulea*, *Besleria*, *Lindernia*,
Premna, and *Hyobanche*. 4. Polypetalous, viz.
Melianthus.

(190.) CLASS XV. *TETRADYNAMIA*. ORD. I. *SILICULOSA*, contains 14 genera, viz. *Myagrunt*,
Vella, *Anastatica*, *Subularia*, *Draba*, *Lepidium*,
Thlaspi, *Cochlearia*, *Iberis*, *Alyssum*, *Paltaria*,
Clypeola, *Biscutella*, and *Lunaria*. II. *SILIQUO-*
SA, 18 genera, viz. *Ricotia*, *Dentaria*, *Cardamine*,
Sisymbrium, *Erysimum*, *Cheiranthus*, *Heliophila*,
Hesperis, *Arabis*, *Turritis*, *Brassica*, *Sinapis*, *Ra-*
phanus, *Bunias*, *Ilatis*, *Crambe*, *Cleome*, and
Chamira.

(191.) CLASS XVI. *MONADELPHIA*. ORD. I. *TRIANDRIA* contains 3 genera, viz. *Aphyteja*, *Gal-*
axia, and *Hydnora*. II. *PENTANDRIA* 5; viz.
Waltheria, *Lerchea*, *Hermannia*, *Melochia*, and
Symphonia. III. *OCTANDRIA*, one genus; viz.
Aytonia. IV. *ENNEANDRIA* one genus; viz.
Dryandra. V. *DECANDRIA*, 3 genera; viz. *Co-*
narus, *Geranium*, and *Hugonia*. VI. *ENDECAN-*
DRIA, one genus; viz. *Brownea*. VII. *DODE-*
CANDRIA, one genus; viz. *Pentapetes*. VIII. *PO-*
LYANDRIA, 21 genera; viz. *Bombyx*, *Sida*, *Ad-*
ansonia, *Althæa*, *Alcea*, *Malva*, *Lavatera*, *Malope*,
Urena, *Gossypium*, *Hibiscus*, *Stewartia*, *Camellia*,
Morisonia, *Mesua*, *Malachra*, *Gordonia*, *Gustavia*,
Carolinea, *Barringtonia*, and *Solandra*.

(192.) CLASS XVII. *DIADELPHIA*. ORD. I. *PENTANDRIA*, contains one genus; viz. *Monnieria*.
 II. *HEXANDRIA*, 2 genera; viz. *Funaria*, and *Sa-*
raca. III. *OCTANDRIA*, 3; viz. *Polygala*, *Secu-*
ridaca, and *Dalbergia*. IV. *DECANDRIA*, 50 ge-
 nera, distinguished into, 1. Such as have mona-
 delphous filaments: viz. *Nissolia*, *Erythrina*, *Pis-*
cidia, *Borbonia*, *Spartium*, *Genista*, *Aspalathus*,
Amorpha, *Crotolaria*, *Ononis*, *Anthyllis*, *Ebenus*,
Abrus, *Pterocarpus*, *Ulex*, *Arachis*, and *Lupinus*.
 2. Such as have diadelphous filaments and a downy
 stigma; viz. *Phaseolus*, *Dolichus*, *Glycine*, *Clito-*
ria, *Pisum*, *Orobus*, *Lathyrus*, *Vicia*, *Cicer*, and
Ervum. 3. Such as have diadelphous filaments,
 bilabiate calyces, and the stigma not downy; viz.
Cytisus, *Geoffroya*, *Robinia*, *Colutea*, *Glycyrrhiza*,
 and *Coronilla*. 4. Such as have diadelphous fila-
 ments, stigmata not downy, and calyces not bila-
 biate; viz. *Onithopus*, *Hippocrepis*, *Scorpiurus*,
Hedysarum, *Æschynomene*, *Indigofera*, *Galega*,
Phaca, *Astragalus*, *Biserrula*, *Pforalca*, *Trifolium*,
Lotus, *Liparia*, *Trigonella*, *Medicago*, and *Mul-*
lera.

(193.) CLASS XVIII. *POLYADELPHIA*. ORD. I. *PENTANDRIA*, contains two genera; viz. *Theo-*
broma, and *Abroma*. II. *DODECANDRIA*, one
 genus; viz. *Monsonia*. III. *ICOSANDRIA*, one
 genus; viz. *Citrus*. IV. *POLYANDRIA*, 8 genera;
 viz. *Hypericum*, *Ascyrum*, *Hopea*, *Symplocos*,
Melaleuca, *Durio*, *Munchausia*, and *Glabraria*.

(194.) CLASS XIX. *SYNGENESIA*. ORD. I. *POLYGAMIA* *ÆQUALIS*, contains 42 genera, distin-
 guished into, 1. Such as have ligulate compound
 flowers;

flowers; viz. Geropogon, Tragopogon, Scorzonera, Picris, Sonchus, Lactuca, Chondrilla, Prenanthes, Leontodon, Hieracium, Crepis, Andriala, Hyoseris, Seriola, Hypochaeris, Lapsana, Catananche, Cichorium, and Scolymus. 2. Such as have tubulose compound flowers; viz. Arctium, Serratula, Carduus, Cnicus, Onopordon, Cynara, Carlina, Carthamus, Bidens, Cacalia, Atractylis, Eupatorium, Ageratum, Ethulia, Stachelina, Chrysocoma, Calea, Tarachonanthus, Pteronia, Athanasia, Spilanthus, Santolina, and Barnadesia. II. POLYGAMIA SUPERFLUA, 38 genera, distinguished into, 1. Tubulose; viz. Tanacetum, Artemisia, Gnaphalium, Xeranthemum, Carpesium, Baccharis, Cotula, and Conyza. 2. Radiate; viz. Erigeron, Tussilago, Senecio, Aster, Solidago, Inula, Cineraria, Arnica, Doronicum, Perdicium, Helenium, Bellis, Leysera, Tagetes, Pectis, Chrysanthemum, Matricaria, Anacyclus, Anthemis, Achillea, Tridax, Zinnia, Verbesina, Sigesbeckia, Bupthalmum, Eclipta, Bellium, Amellus, Unxia, and Mutista. III. POLYGAMIA FRUSTRANEA, 9 genera, all radiate; viz. Helianthus, Rudbeckia, Coreopsis, Gorteria, Osmites, Zoegea, Centaurea, Sclerocarpus, and Didelta. IV. POLYGAMIA NECESSARIA, 14 genera, most of which are radiate; viz. Milleria, Silphium, Chrysogonum, Melampodium, Calendula, Arctotis, Osteospermum, Othonna, Polymnia, Eriocephalus, Filago, Micropus, Baltimora, and Hippia. V. POLYGAMIA SEGREGATA, 7 genera, distinguished into, 1. Such as have 4 flosculi in each partial calyx; viz. Elephantopus, and Oedera. 2. With many flosculi; viz. Sphaeranthus. 3. With one flosculus; viz. Echinops, Gundelia, and Stoebe. 4. With 3 flosculi; viz. Jungia. VI. MONOGAMIA, 7 genera; viz. Strumpfia, Seriphium, Corymbium, Jassone, Lobelia, Viola, and Impatiens.

(195.) CLASS XX. GYNANDRIA. ORD. I. DIANDRIA, contains 11 genera; viz. Orchis, Satyrium, Ophrys, Serapias, Limodorum, Arethusa, Cypripedium, Epidendrum, Gunnera, Forstera, and Disa. II. TRIANDRIA, 4 genera; viz. Sifyrinchium, Ferrara, Stilago, and Salacia. III. TETRANDRIA, one genus; viz. Nepenthes. IV. PENTANDRIA, 3 genera; viz. Passiflora, Gluta, and Ayenia. V. HEXANDRIA, 2 genera; viz. Aristolochia, and Pistia. VI. OCTANDRIA, one genus; viz. Scopolia. VII. DECANDRIA, two genera; viz. Helicteres, and Kleinhovia. VIII. DODECANDRIA, one genus; viz. Cytinus. IX. POLYANDRIA, 8 genera; viz. Grewia, Xylopia, Arum, Dracontium, Calla, Pothos, Ambrosinia, and Zosteria.

(196.) CLASS XXI. MONOECIA. ORD. I. MONANDRIA, contains 10 genera; viz. Zanichellia, Ceratocarpus, Cynomorium, Elaterium, Chara, Ægopricon, Artocarpus, Nipa, Casuarina, and Phyllachne. II. DIANDRIA, 2 genera; viz. Lemna, and Anguria. III. TRIANDRIA, 12 genera; viz. Omphalea, Typha, Sparganium, Zea, Coix, Tripsacum, Olyra, Carex, Axyris, Tragia, Hernandia, and Phyllanthus. IV. TETRANDRIA, 9 genera; viz. Centella, Betula, Buxus, Urtica, Morus, Cicca, Serpicula, Littorella, and Ancuba. V. PENTANDRIA, 8 genera; viz. Xanthium, Ambrosia, Parthenium, Iva, Leea, Amaranthus, Nephelium, and Clibadium. VI. HEXANDRIA, two genera; viz. Zizania, and Pharus. VII. HEP-

TANDRIA, one genus; viz. Guettarda. VIII. POLYANDRIA, 13 genera; viz. Ceratophyllum, Myriophyllum, Sagittaria, Begonia, Theligonum, Pterium, Quercus, Juglans, Fagus, Carpinus, Corlus, Platanus, and Liquidambar. IX. MONADEPHIA, 15 genera; viz. Hura, Pinus, Cupressus, Thuja, Acalypha, Dalechampia, Plukenetia, Capania, Croton, Ricinus, Jatropha, Sterculia, Hippomane, Stillingia, and Gnetum. X. SYNGNESIA, 6 genera; viz. Trichosanthes, Momordica, Cucumis, Cucurbita, Sicyos, and Bryonia. XI. GYNANDRIA, 2 genera; viz. Andrachne, and Agave.

(197.) CLASS XXII. DIOECIA. ORD. I. MONANDRIA, contains 2 genera; viz. Najas, and Padanus. II. DIANDRIA, 3 genera; viz. Vallneria, Salix, and Cecropia. III. TRIANDRIA, 6 genera; viz. Empetrum, Oxyris, Caturus, Excoecaria, Red and Maba. IV. TETRANDRIA, 7 genera; viz. Viscum, Hippophae, Myrica, Trophis, Batis, Metinia, and Brucea. V. PENTANDRIA, 12 genera; viz. Pistacia, Zanthoxylum, Astronium, Iresine, Antidesma, Spinacia, Acnida, Cannabis, Humulus, Zanonis, Fewillea, and Canarium. VI. HEXANDRIA, 4 genera; viz. Tamus, Smilax, Rajan, and Dioscorea. VII. OCTANDRIA, 3 genera; viz. Populus, Rhodiola, and Magaritaria. VIII. NEANDRIA, 2 genera; viz. Mercurialis, and Hydrocharis. IX. DECANDRIA, 4 genera; viz. Crica, Kiggelaria, Coriaria, and Schinus. X. DODECANDRIA, 3 genera; viz. Menispermum, Distica, and Euclea. XI. ICOSANDRIA, one genus; viz. Flacourtia. XII. POLYANDRIA, two genera; viz. Cliffortia, and Hedycaria. XIII. MONADEPHIA, 6 genera; viz. Taxus, Juniperus, Ephedra, Cissampelos, Napæa, and Adelia. XIV. SYNGNESIA, one genus; viz. Ruscus. XV. GYNANDRIA, one genus; viz. Clusia.

(198.) CLASS XXIII. POLYGAMIA. ORD. I. MONOECIA, contains 24 genera, distinguished into, 1. Polygamous by male hermaphrodites, and female hermaphrodites; one genus; viz. Mulberry. 2. By hermaphrodites and males; 22 genera; viz. Ophioxylon, Celtis, Veratrum, Fusanus, Andrachne, Holcus, Apluda, Ischæmum, Cenchrus, Ægilops, Valantia, Parietaria, Atriplex, Bromus, Acer, Gouania, Solandra, Terminalia, Clusia, Hermas, Spinifex, and Manihot. 3. By hermaphrodites and females; one genus; viz. Mimosa. II. DIOECIA, 10 genera; distinguished into, 1. Such as are polygamous by hermaphrodites and females; viz. Fraxinus, and Gleditsia. 2. By hermaphrodites and males; viz. Diospyrus, Nyctaginia, and Pisonia. 3. By androgynes and males; 3 genera; viz. Anthospermum, Arctopus, Pandanus, Chrylitrix, and Stilbe. III. TRIOECIA, comprehending such plants as have the polygamy on distinct plants; two genera; viz. Ficus, and Celtis.

(199.) CLASS XXIV. CRYPTOGAMIA. ORD. I. FUNGICES, contains 18 genera; viz. Cycas, Zamia, Equisetum, Onoclea, Ophioglossum, Osmunda, Acrosticum, Pteris, Blechnum, Hemionitis, Lichia, Asplenium, Polypodium, Adiantum, Trichomanes, Marsilea, Pilularia, and Isoetes. II. MUSCI, 11 genera; viz. Lycopodium, Paria, Sphagnum, Phascum, Splachnum, Polytrichum, Minium, Bryum, Hypnum, Fontinalis, and Baubamia. III. ALGÆ, 12 genera; viz. Juncea, manna

Macaria, *Targionia*, *Marchantia*, *Blasia*, *Riccia*, *An-
trocera*, *Lichen*, *Tremella*, *Fucus*, *Ulva*, *Conferva*,
and *Brassia*. IV. FUNGI, 10 genera; viz. *Agari-
cus*, *Boletus*, *Hydnum*, *Phallus*, *Clathrus*, *Helvella*,
Clavaria, *Lycoperdon*, and *Mucor*.

APPENDIX. Under the Order PALMÆ,
contained 9 genera; viz. *Chamærops*, *Borassus*,
Lepidocarpus, *Cocos*, *Phoenix*, *Elais*, *Areca*, *Elate*, and
Palmyra.

EXPLANATION of PLATE XXIV.—

Fig. 1. A Squamose Bulb. 2. A Solid
Bulb. 3. Transverse Section of a Tunicate Bulb.
4. A Pendulous Tuberosé Root of the *Filipendula*.
5. A Rameous Root. 6. A Fusiform Root. 7. A
Fibrous Root.—TRUNKS. Fig. 1. A Squamose

Stem. 2. A Repent Stem. 3. A Frons. 4. A
Jointed Stem. 5. An Articulate Culm. 6. A
Branched Stem. 7. A Dichotomous Stem. 8. A Bra-
nched Stem.—FULCRA. Fig. 1. *a*, A Cirrhus;

b, A Pedicel; *c*, Concave Glandules. 2. *a*, Pedi-
cel; *b*, Glandules. 3. *a*, Bractææ differing from
leaves; *b*, The Leaves. 4. *a*, Simple Spines;

b, Triple Spine. 5. *a*, Simple Aculei; *b*, Triple
Aculei or Forks. 6. *a*, Opposite Leaves; *b*, The
Leaves.—SIMPLE LEAVES. Fig. 1. Orbiculate.

2. Subrotund. 3. Ovate. 4. Oval. 5. Oblong.
6. Lanceolate. 7. Linear. 8. Subulate. 9. Re-
curved. 10. Cordate. 11. Lunulate. 12. Tri-
angular. 13. Saggittate. 14. Cordato-sagittate.

15. Hastate. 16. Fissa. 17. Trilobe. 18. Præ-
cordate. 19. Lobate. 20. Quinquangular. 21. E-
marginate. 22. Palmate. 23. Pinnatifid. 24. Laciniate.

25. Sinuate. 26. Dentato-sinuate. 27. Retrorsum-
sinuate. 28. Partite. 29. Repand. 30. Dentate.
31. Serrate. 32. Duplicato-serrate. 33. Dupli-
cately crenate. 34. Cartilagineous. 35. Acutely

crenate. 36. Obtusely crenate. 37. Plicate. 38. Cre-
nate. 39. Crisp. 40. Obtuse. 41. Acute. 42. Acu-
men. 43. Obtuse with an acumen. 44. Acutely

emarginate. 45. Cuneiform emarginate. 46. Re-
curved. 47. Pilose. 48. Tomentose. 49. Hispid.
50. Glabrous. 51. Rugose. 52. Venose. 53. Ner-
vous. 54. Papillose. 55. Linguiform. 56. Aci-

cular. 57. Dolabriform. 58. Deltoid. 59. Tri-
angular. 60. Canaliculate. 61. Sulcate. 62. Te-
tragonal. 63. Parabolic. 64. Spatulate.

EXPLANATION of PLATE XXV.—
COMPOUND LEAVES. Fig. 1. Binate. 2. Ternate,
with folioles sessile. 3. Ternate, with the folioles
petiolate. 4. Digitate. 5. Pedate. 6. Pinnate,

with an odd one. 7. Pinnate abrupt. 8. Pinnate
interruptedly. 9. Pinnate interruptedly. 10. Pinnate
abruptly. 11. Biternate. 12. Bipinnate. 13. Tri-
ternate. 14. Tripinnate abrupt. 15. Tripinnate

with an odd one.—DETERMINATE LEAVES.
Fig. 1. *a*, Inflex; *b*, Erect; *c*, Patent; *d*, Hori-
zontal; *e*, Reclined; *f*, Revolute. 2. *a*, Seminal;

b, Canine; *c*, Rameous; *d*, Floral. 3. *a*, Peltate;
b, Petiolate; *c*, Sessile; *d*, Decurrent; *e*, Amplex-
icaul; *f*, Perfoliate; *g*, Connate; *h*, Vaginant;

i, Articulate; *j*, Stellate; *k*, Quatern; *d*, Op-
posite; *e*, Alternate; *f*, Acerose; *g*, Imbricate;
h, Fasciculate.—FOLIATION. Fig. 1. Convolute.

2. Involute. 3. Revolute. 4. Conduplicate. 5. E-
quitant. 6. Imbricate. 7. Obvolute. 8. Plicate.
9. Convoluta (more than one leaf convolute).
10. Involute opposite. 11. Involute alternate.
12. Revolute opposite. 13. Equitant ancipit, with

two prominent angles. 14. Equitant triquetrous,
forming a triangle.—MISCELLANEOUS. Fig. 1. A
Corymbus. 2. An Arillus exemplified in the Fruit
of the *Euonymus*; *a*, the Valvules of the Capsule;
b, a Seed; *c*, the Arillus opened to discover the
Seed. 3. A Verticillus. 4. *a*, The Horned Nec-
taria in *Aconitum*; *b*, two Peduncles or Styles
that support them. 5. A paleaceous Receptacle
of a compound Flower shewn in *Rudbeckia*; *b*, the
tubulose Florets of the Disk; *c*, the ligulate Co-
rollulæ of the Radius; *d*, a ligulate Corollula fal-
len off. 6. *a*, A Spatha; *b*, a Spadix. 7. A Ra-
cemus. 8. A tubulose Floret of a compound
Flower. 9. A monopetalous hypocateriform Co-
rolla; *a*, the Tube; *b*, the Limb. 10. A Necta-
rium that crowns the Corolla shewn in the Cup of
a *Narcissus*; *a*, the Cup. 11. A Spike. 12. A
calycine Nectarium shewn in the Flower of a *Tro-
pæolum*; *a*, the Nectarium. 13. A Nectarium of
singular construction shewn in a Flower of the
Parnassia; *a*, five heart-shaped Nectaria termina-
ted by Styles or Threads, each of which is crown-
ed with a little Ball. 14. A Cyma of the *Laurus-
tinus*. 15. A Panicle.

SECT. VIII. Of the SPECIES of PLANTS.

(203.) The genera include a great number of
species, distinguished by the specific difference of
the root, the trunk, the branches, the leaves, &c.
yet all agreeing in the essential generic character.
They are called by trivial names, expressive of the
difference or some other circumstance, added to
the generic name. To investigate the species,
therefore, it is necessary to understand those dif-
ferences, and to be acquainted with the names by
which they are expressed. Several of these have
been already incidentally explained; but for a
complete enumeration, the reader must have re-
course to the GLOSSARY. To illustrate the man-
ner in which those terms are used, we shall here
give a few examples.

(204.) Class II. DIANDRIA. Order MONOGYNIA.
Genus VERONICA, or SPEEDWELL. Species *Ver-
onica arvensis* has solitary flowers; cut, sessile, and
cordated leaves. *Veronica agrestis* has solitary
flowers: cut, cordated, and petiolated leaves.

(205.) Class XVI. MONADELPHIA. Order PO-
LYGYNIA. Genus MALVA, the MALLOW. Species
Malva spicata has tomentose, crenated, and cor-
dated leaves, and oblong hairy spicæ. *Malva syl-
vestris* has an erect, herbaceous stalk, with acute,
seven-lobed leaves, and hairy pedunculi and petiole.

(206.) Class XIX. SYNGENESIA. Order POLY-
GAMIA ÆQUALIS. Genus CARDUUS, the THIS-
TLE. Species *Carduus benenoides*, or *melancholy
thistle*, has lanceolated, toothed, amplexicaule
leaves; with unequal, ciliated small spines.

(207.) Class XXIV. CRYPTOGAMIA. Order FI-
LICES. Genus ASPLENIUM, or MAIDENHAIR.
Species *Asplenium trichomanes*, has a pinnated
frons; the pinnae are roundish, and crenated.

(208.) In general it may be observed, that *specifice*
differences take their rise from any circumstance,
wherein plants of the same genus disagree; pro-
vided such circumstance is constant, and not liable
to alteration by culture, or other accidents. Hence
Linnæus asserts the species to be as numerous, as
there were different forms of vegetables produced

at the creation; and considers all casual differences as varieties of the same species.

(209.) Mr Lee remarks, that the root often affords a real specific difference, and is sometimes the chief distinction, as in *Scilla*, where the species are scarce to be distinguished, but by the bulbs being tunicate, solid, or squamose; but as access cannot always be conveniently had to the root, it is better to fix on some other specific difference. The trunk, the stipulæ, the hybernacles, the buds, the inflorescence, and the fructification, afford much more certain and decisive marks of distinction; as the attentive reader will observe in the descriptions of the various species of plants, given under their respective genera in the course of this work.

(210.) We shall conclude this section with a complete description of a plant, reduced to its class, order, genus, and species.

(211.) *RHEUM PALMATUM*, the *True Rhubarb*. See Plate XXV. The flower of this plant has no calyx. The COROLLA, *dd*, consists of one petal, narrower at the base, not perforated, and divided in the margin into six obtuse segments, one less and one larger alternately; the petal is marcescent. The STAMINA, *ee*, consist of 9 capillary filaments, inserted into the corolla, and about the same length with it. The *antheræ* are didymous, oblong, and obtuse. The PISTILLUM, *f*, has a short three-sided germen. It can hardly be said to have any styli; but has 3 reflected plumose stigmata. The PERICARPIUM is wanting. Each flower contains but one large, three-sided, acute SEED *g*, with a membranaceous edge. The number of *Stamina* determines this plant to belong to the ENNEANDRIA *Class*; and the number of *Stigmata* fixes its *Order* to be TRIGYNIA. The other parts of the above description clearly demonstrate the genus to be the *RHEUM* or *Rhubarb*, and sufficiently distinguish it from the *Laurus*, *Tinus*, *Cassya*, and *Butomus*, the only other genera belonging to this class. The SPECIFIC mark is taken from the leaves, which are PALMATED, *a*, and sharp and tapering at the points, *b*; none of the other species having palmated leaves.

SECT. IX. Of the VARIETIES that occur in the SPECIES of PLANTS.

(212.) The collecting of VARIETIES, says Mr Lee, under their proper species is no less necessary than that of collecting the several species under their proper genus. These varieties, which are only incidental, are grounded on the circumstances of sex, magnitude, time of flowering, colour, scent, taste, virtues, uses, duration, multitude, pubescence, leaves, and monstrous flowers.

(213.) The sex of plants in the class *Dioecia* affords a variety of all others the most natural; for the male and female flowers in this class being upon different plants, these last are distinguished by the fructification, though the species is the same in both. But this kind of variety holds only in the class *Dioecia*; for, in the genera that belong to any of the hermaphrodite classes, the same circumstance, when it occurs, becomes a specific distinction. Differences in magnitude, time of flowering, scent, taste, virtues, duration, and multitude are all very uncertain marks of specific difference, but very proper to constitute varieties.

(214.) Colour is so very changeable in the same species of plants, that it can only afford a distinction of varieties. The most usual change is from blue or red to white; and the whole plant is often found to vary in colour. But the trifling distinctions which have been made by florists, in some genera, from the colours of the corollæ, and to which they have given very pompous names, (such as, *Phæbus*, *Astræa*, *Triumphus Floræ*, *Splendor Asiæ*, &c.) are held by Linnæus to be below the notice of the botanist; and he warns him from the infection of such idle amusement. He also disapproves of the distinctions made by gardeners with regard to the taste of fruits, as too minute for the attention of the botanist, however useful for the purposes of gardening.

(215.) Leaves not only furnish elegant specific distinctions, but also, from their luxuriance, afford many distinctions of varieties in the same species. Thus *opposite* leaves will become *tern*, *quatern*, or *quine*; *digitate* leaves will gain an addition of one or more *foliolæ*; broad leaves will vary to narrow leaves; and bullate, crisp, and curled leaves frequently occur. In *tanacetum*, *mentha*, and other scented plants, when the leaves are curled, the scent is observed to be heightened by the crispature.

(216.) Monstrous flowers, whether multiply, full, or profliferous, are only varieties from luxuriance; owing to change of soil, climate, &c. and would all return to their original condition, if these were again changed. In like manner the improvements made in plants cultivated for sale, are not to be esteemed lasting; as they would run off, if the plants were left to themselves in a poor soil, and their original wild qualities return.

(217.) HYBRID, or MULE plants, must also be ranked among varieties, whether occasioned by accident, by the pollen of one plant falling upon the pistilla of another, or reared by art; of which Linnæus gives many curious instances.

(218.) Varieties may generally be reduced under their species, by comparing the variable marks of the variety with the natural plant: but there are some which are attended with difficulty, and require judgment and experience: particularly in some species of *Helleborus*, *Gentiana*, *Fumaria*, *Valeriana*, *Scorpiurus*, and *Medicago*. In these two last there is a remarkable diversity in the fruit of the individuals. In the *Medicago*, or *Snail trefoil*, in particular, the forms of the real snails, which nature has imitated in these plants, are scarce more diversified, than the fruit of this mimic species: so that the botanist, who is studious of varieties, would find no end to his labour, were he to attempt to pursue nature through the various shapes she has wantonly adopted. The whole order of the *Fungi* too, as Mr Lee observes, is still a chaos; botanists not being yet able in these to decide what is a *species*, and what a *variety*.

PART II.

OF THE NATURAL METHOD OF CLASSIFICATION.

SECT. I. Of the NATURAL CLASSES or ORDERS.

(219.) Notwithstanding the evident superiority of the sexual system over all others, Linnæus and most other modern botanists are of opinion, that there

there is a *natural method*, or nature's system, which we should diligently endeavour to find out. That this system, say they, is no chimera, will appear particularly from hence, that all plants, of what order soever, show an affinity to some other; and thus, not only the virtues of a great number of species may be ascertained, but we may know with certainty how to find a proper succedaneum for plants which cannot easily be had.— On these principles, Linnæus divides vegetables into 8 natural classes or orders: viz.

(220.) 1. **PALMÆ.** These are perennial, and mostly trees or shrubs. The roots form a mass of fibres which are commonly simple and without ramifications. The stem is generally simple, without branches, cylindrical, and from 2 feet to 100 in height. It is composed of strong longitudinal fibres. The leaves, which are a composition of a leaf and a branch, by Linnæus called *frondes*, are of different forms; being sometimes shaped like an umbrella or fan; sometimes singly or doubly winged; the small or partial leaves, which are often 1 foot in length, being ranged alternately. The principal leaves are 6, 8, 10, or 12 feet long; the length varying according to the age and size. They are covered at first with a thick brown dust, like those of ferns. The base of the leaves frequently embraces the greater part of the stem. The flowers are male and female upon the same or different roots; except in *stratiotes*, which bears hermaphrodite flowers only; and palmetto, in which the flowers are hermaphrodite and male upon distinct roots. The flowers are all disposed in a panicle, except in the *hydrocharis*, *stratiotes*, and *vallisneria*; in which they proceed singly from the angles of the leaves. The common calyx is a *spatha* with one or two valves. The spadix is generally branched. Each flower generally has a perianthium consisting of 3 leaves, small and permanent. The petals are 3, of a substance like leather, and permanent. The flowers of *zamia* have no petals. The stamens are from 2 to 20, cohering slightly at their base. The seed-buds are from 1 to 3, placed in the middle, and supporting short styles. The seed vessel is generally a pulpy fruit, containing one cell filled with fibrous flesh, and covered with a skin like leather. The seeds are from 1 to 3, in each fruit, of a hard bony substance, round or oval, and attached to the bottom of the fruit. They are astringent.

(221.) 2. **PIPERITÆ** are mostly herbaceous and perennial. The stalks of *pothos* creep along rocks and trees, into which they strike root at certain distances. Their height is from 3 to 15 feet. The smell of many of them is extremely fetid. The flowers, however, of an Ethiopian *dracunculus* or arum, and the cover in which they are involved, are said to emit a very fragrant odour.

(222.) 3. **CALAMARIÆ.** The base of the leaf, which embraces the stalk like a glove, is entire, and has no longitudinal aperture. The stalk is generally triangular, and without knots or joints. The roots of some are long and knotty; in others they are composed of fleshy fibres which pierce deep into the ground: and in others, of a bulb. The flowers are either hermaphrodite, or male and female upon the same root. The inflorescence is generally a spike; sometimes a capitulum. The

calyx is either a gluma or an amentum. The corolla is wanting. The filaments of the stamens are 3, short, slender, and sometimes bristly. The antheræ are generally long, slender, and erect. The seed-bud is very small, blunt, and sometimes three-cornered. The style is thread-shaped, and of the length of the scaly calyx. The stigmata are generally slender, hairy, and sometimes permanent.

(223.) 4. **GRAMINÆ** are mostly annual or perennial herbs; some of them creep; others are erect. The roots, in the greatest number, are creeping, and emit fibres from each knot or joint; in others they are simply branching and fibrous. The stems and branches are round. The leaves are simple, alternate, entire, very long, and commonly narrow. They form a sort of sheath, which surrounds the stem, and is generally cleft on one side through its whole length. The flowers are either hermaphrodite, male and female on the same root, or hermaphrodite and male on the same root. They proceed either singly from the sheath of the leaves, or are formed into a panicle. From one to 6 scales supply the place of calyx and corolla. The stamens are generally 3, placed irregularly. The antheræ are long, furnished with two cells, and slightly attached to the filaments. The seed bud is placed upon the same receptacle as the calyx, corolla, and stamens. The style is generally double, and crowned with a hairy stigma or summit. The seed-vessel is wanting. The seeds are single, oval, and attached below to the bottom of the flower.

(224.) 5. **TRIPETALOIDEÆ** have no very striking characters, and are nearly allied to the grasses. All the genera have not the circumstance expressed in the title.

(225.) 6. **ENSATÆ** are nearly allied to the grasses and lilaceous plants, and furnish a beautiful collection of perennial herbs, of different heights, from one inch to 15 feet. The roots are fleshy, and garnished with fibres; the stalks are simple, and commonly compressed on the sides. The leaves are simple, alternate, entire, sword-shaped, and form at their origin a sheath which in the greatest number is cleft through the whole length, except at the base, where it embraces the stalk like a ring. The flowers are hermaphrodite, and generally proceed from the summit of the stalks either singly, in an umbel, a spike, or a panicle. In *pontederia* they proceed from the angles of the leaves either singly or in an umbel. Most of them want the perianthium; the flowers burst from a common *spatha*, which is frequently permanent. The petals are from one to 6: The stamens generally 3. The seed-bud is sometimes above the flower, sometimes below it. The style is generally single, and crowned with a triple stigma. The seed-vessel is a dry capsule, generally oblong, and opens at 3 valves, discovering the same number of cells, each inclosing a quantity of roundish seeds.

(226.) 7. **ORCHIDEÆ.** The roots of many of these plants are composed of one or more fleshy tubercles, attached to the lower part of the stem, and sending forth fibres from the top. Those of orchis resemble the scrotum in animals; from which circumstance the genus has derived its name. The leaves are of a moderate size, inscribed with a number of longitudinal ribs, and

without any footstalk. At their origin they form round the stalk a kind of sheath, which is long, entire, and cylindrical. The flowers are hermaphrodite, and placed at the summit of the stalk, either in a spike or in a panicle. The calyx is a *spatba*, that bursting open protrudes a *spadix*, which has no perianthium. The petals are 5, and very irregular. The nectarium is remarkably conspicuous; but different in the different genera; and has the appearance of a 6th petal. The filaments are always two, and placed upon the pistillum. The antheræ are erect, and generally covered by the upper lip of the nectarium. The seed-bud is either oblong or pillar-shaped, twisted like a screw, and placed below the receptacle. The style is single, very short, and forms one substance with the inner margin of the nectarium. The seed-vessel is generally a capsule with one cavity and 3 valves, keel-shaped, and open on the angular sides. The seeds are numerous; very small, like saw dust, and attached, without footstalks, to a slender receptacle, which extends lengthwise in the middle of each valve.

(227.) 8. SCITAMINEÆ are beautiful exotics, all natives of very warm countries. Some of them furnish exquisite fruits; but though the plants rise very high, they are perennial only by their roots. Those which have only one filament, have in all their parts an aromatic odour, and an acrid taste; the roots are hot and resinous.

(228.) 9. SPATHACEÆ are nearly allied in habit and structure to the liliaceous plants from which they are chiefly distinguished by the spatba, out of which their flowers are protruded.

(229.) 10. CORONARIÆ are herbaceous, perennial, and from one inch to 15 feet high. The roots are either bulbous, fibrous, or composed of small fleshy knots, jointed at top. The bulbs either consist of scales laid over each other, or are solid. The base of the leaves, enfolding each other, form at bottom a roundish fleshy bulb. In the others the stem is simple, and is either furnished with leaves or rises naked. The branches are alternate and cylindrical. The leaves are simple, alternate, and entire. Those next the root, generally form at their origin a sheath, which in a great number is entire; whilst in others, it is divided longitudinally on one side. The flowers are universally hermaphrodite, except in white hellebore, which has both male and hermaphrodite flowers. The flowers are sometimes single, and terminate the stem; sometimes they form an umbel, sometimes a spike, and sometimes a panicle. The single cover in most of these plants, though beautifully coloured, ought to be denominated a calyx; as its divisions, generally six, are opposite to the stamina. The coloured leaves of the flower are from one to six. The petals in some species are turned back. The nectarium is various in the different genera. The stamina are 6; erect, and inserted into the receptacle, if the flower consists of many petals; into the tube, or of the corolla, if it consists of one. The

long, divided below, and slightly at the filaments on which they turn like a seed-bud is single, and placed either lower-cup or below it. The style is id-shaped, and generally of the length

of the petals. The stigma is generally single, of a conic form, and hairy at the extremity. The seed-vessel is generally a capsule, divided externally into 3 valves, internally into 3 cells.

(230.) 11. SARMENTOSÆ have climbing stems and branches, that, like the vine, attach themselves to other bodies for support. They are not a true natural class, for they scarce agree in a single circumstance, except that of climbing, which is not peculiar to this order.

(231.) 12. HOLERACEÆ contains trees, shrubs, perennial, and annual herbs. Some of the woody vegetables retain their green leaves during the winter. The roots are very long, and frequently spindle-shaped; from the knots on the stems and branches of such plants as creep on the ground, or float on the water, proceed fibrous and branching roots. The stems and young branches are cylindric; and in the greatest part of the aquatic plants of this order, the stalks are hollow within. The buds are conic and naked. The leaves are generally simple, entire, alternate, and attached to the branches by a cylindric foot-stalk, commonly very short. Some have two stipulæ attached to the branches near the origin of the foot-stalk of each leaf. In many others, each leaf bears on its foot-stalk a membranaceous cylindric sheath, frequently fringed on the margin, and penetrated by the stem. The flowers are either hermaphrodite; male and female upon the same or different roots; hermaphrodite and male, or hermaphrodite and female on the same or different roots.

(232.) 13. SUCCULENTÆ. This order consists of flat, fleshy, and juicy plants, most of them ever-greens. They are astringent, refreshing, and very wholesome.

(233.) 14. GRUINALES consist of *geranium*, and a few other genera which Linnæus considers as allied to it in their habit and external structure. They contain both herbaceous and woody plants. The roots are sometimes fibrous, sometimes tuberous, or jointed. The stems are cylindric; the young branches, in some, nearly square. The buds are conic and covered with scales. The leaves are either simple or compound. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The calyx consists of 5 distinct leaves, or of one leaf divided almost to the bottom into 5 parts. The petals are 5, spreading, and frequently funnel-shaped. The stamina are generally ten, awl-shaped, erect, oblong; and frequently attached to the filaments by the middle, so as to lie, and sometimes to veer about, upon them. The seed-bud is either oblong or five-cornered. The number of styles is either one or five. The seed-vessel is commonly a five-cornered capsule, with 1, 2, 5 or 10 cells; one seed is generally placed in each cell.

(234.) 15. INUNDATÆ are aquatic plants, low, herbaceous, and mostly perennial. The roots are fibrous. The stem is generally wanting. In its place is an assemblage of leaves, which enfolding each other mutually form a sheath; from the middle of which is produced the footstalk. The leaves are sometimes alternate, sometimes placed in whirls. The flowers are hermaphrodite, or male and female on the same root. The flower-cup is either wanting, or consists of 3, 4 or 5 divisions or leaves. The stamina are from 1 to 16 or upwards.

The

The filaments and antheræ are short. The seed-buds are from 1 to 4. The seed-vessel is universally wanting, except in *Elatine*. The seeds are generally 4. These plants are astringent.

(235.) 16. *CALYCIFLORÆ* have the stamina inserted into the calyx, and are all of the shrub or tree kind. Some rise to 12 or 14 feet; others not above 2 or 3. The roots are branching, fibrous, and woody. The stems are cylindric. The branches, when young, are cornered; the buds of a conic form, and without scales. The leaves are simple, alternate, and attached to the branches by a very short foot-stalk. The flowers are either male or female upon distinct roots, or hermaphrodite and male on the same root. The calyx is a perianthium composed of one leaf divided into 2, 3 or 4 segments. It is commonly placed upon the seed-bud. The corolla is universally wanting, except in *tropbis*. The stamina are generally 4, slender, short, placed at a distance from the style, and inserted into the calyx. The pistillum is composed of a roundish germen, crowned with the calyx; a single thread-shaped style; and a cylindric stigma. The seed-vessel is either an obtuse oval fruit of the cherry kind, or a globular berry with one cell, containing a roundish seed.

(236.) 17. *CALYCANTHEMÆ* have the corolla and stamina inserted in the calyx. This order consists of trees, shrubs, and annual, biennial, and perennial herbs. The herbaceous annuals are the most numerous. The roots are branching and fibrous; the stems and branches cylindric, and square. The buds are conic and without scales. The leaves are generally either alternate, simple, and attached to the branches by a short foot-stalk, or opposite at the bottom of the stem; and in some, alternate towards the top. They are universally sessile. The calyx is a perianthium, generally monophyllous. The corolla consists of 4, 5, and 6 petals, attached to the tube of the calyx, and sometimes placed alternate, sometimes opposite to the divisions of the limb. The stamina, are from 4 to 20 and upwards, attached to the tube of the calyx. The antheræ are generally hemispherical, frequently cleft below; and by that aperture attached slightly to the filaments, on which they often veer about like a vane. They are surrounded longitudinally, and open on the sides into two loculi or cells. The pollen consists of a number of minute particles, of an oval figure, yellow and transparent. The germen is placed either above or under the receptacle of the flower. The style is single, thread shaped, and of the length of the stamina. The stigma is generally single and undivided. The seed-vessel is a capsule, generally divided internally into cells. The seeds are numerous, minute, and frequently three-cornered. These plants are astringent.

(237.) 18. *BICORNES*, plants whose antheræ have the appearance of two horns. This appearance, however, is not very conspicuous, except in a few genera. The plants of this order are all shrubs or trees. The roots are branching and fibrous. The stems and branches are cylindric; the buds conic; the leaves generally alternate; either sessile, or supported by a very short foot-stalk. The flowers are all hermaphrodite, except in Indian date plum, where hermaphrodite and

male flowers are upon distinct roots. The calyx is generally placed around or below the germen; and is universally a perianthium. The corolla is generally monopetalous. The upper part of the petal, is generally divided into 4 or 5 segments. The lower part is cylindric, and generally of the length of the calyx. The number of stamina is from 4 to 20; generally erect, and attached to the lower part of the tube of the corolla. The antheræ are forked below, and, being slightly attached to the filaments, are frequently inverted so as to exhibit the appearance of two horns at top. The germen or seed-bud is generally roundish, and seated above the receptacle. The style is single, thread-shaped, of the same length with the corolla, and in a few genera permanent. The seed-vessel is either a capsule with 5 cells, a roundish berry, or an oblong four-cornered nut with two cells. These are also astringent.

(238.) 19. *HESPERIDÆÆ* are of the shrub and tree kind, and mostly evergreen. The bark of the stalks is slender, and comes off in thin plates. The leaves are generally opposite, but in some alternate above. The buds are conic; the flowers generally hermaphrodite. The calyx is placed above the seed-bud. The petals are 3, 4, or 5, in number, and stand upon the brims of the tube of the calyx. The seed-bud is large, oblong, and placed below the receptacle. The style is single, awl shaped, of the length of the stamina, and terminated with a single stigma. The seeds are generally numerous, small, and oblong.

(239.) 20. *ROTACEÆ* consist of plants with one wheel-shaped petal without a tube. These resemble in quality those of the order of *precizæ*, to which they are in all respects very nearly allied.

(240.) 21. *PRÆCIÆ* consist of primrose, an early flowering plant, and some others which agree with it in habit and structure.

(241.) 22. *CARYOPHYLLÆÆ* are all herbaceous, and mostly annual. Some of the creeping kinds do not rise above an inch, and the tallest exceed not 7 or 8 feet. The roots are branching, fibrous, and of a moderate length. The stems are cylindrical. The branches proceed from the angles of the leaves, and are generally opposite, and jointed at each knot. The leaves are generally placed opposite in pairs, so as to resemble a cross; and are slightly united at the bottom by their foot-stalks. The hairs are simple, like silk. The flowers are hermaphrodite; but some have male and female flowers upon distinct roots. They either stand single on their foot-stalks, and proceed from the angles of the leaves and branches, or are disposed in a spike, corymbus, umbel, or panicle. The calyx is permanent, and composed either of one piece with 5 indentments, or of 4 or 5 distinct leaves. The corolla generally consists of five petals, which have claws of the length of the calyx; and a spreading limb, sometimes entire, but oftener cleft. The stamina are from 3 to 15. When their number is double the divisions of the calyx, they are attached alternately to the claws of the petals, the remaining stamina are inserted into the common receptacle, and stand opposite to the segments of the calyx. The antheræ are short, hemispherical, marked with 4 longitudinal furrows

low, most commonly erect; sometimes, however, *incumbent*, that is, fastened to the filaments by the sides. The pistil is composed of a single seed-bud, which is generally roundish, sometimes cornered. The styles are thread-shaped, of the length of the stamina, and crowned with a simple smooth stigma, slightly hollowed within. The seed-vessel is a dry capsule, of an oval form of the length of the calyx, and consists of 1 or 3 cells.

(242.) 23. *TRIHLATÆ* consist of plants with 3 seeds, which are marked with an external cicatrix, where they are fastened within to the fruit.

(243.) 24. *CORYDALES* have irregular flowers, somewhat resembling a helmet, and are mostly herbaceous and perennial. The roots are tuberous or knobby; the stems generally branching; The leaves alternate, sometimes simple, but commonly winged. The foot-stalk of the leaves is strait or narrow, except in *epimedium*. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The calyx consists of 2, 4, 5, or 6 leaves, which are frequently coloured. The corolla is generally irregular; of one, or many pieces; gaping; and furnished with a nectarium, which is very different in the different genera. The stamina are from 2 to 6. The filaments are distinct, except in two genera, fumitory and *monniera*, which have two sets united in a cylinder. The antheræ are universally distinct, except in *impatiens*, where they form a cylinder divided at the base. The seed-bud is generally roundish, but sometimes angular. The style is commonly single, extremely short and slender, and crowned with a simple stigma. The seed-vessel is either a hollow blown-up berry, a capsule of one cell, or a pod. The seeds are generally numerous and round.

(244.) 25. *PUTAMINEÆ* consist of a few genera of plants allied in habit, whose fruit is frequently covered with a hard woody shell.

(245.) 26. *MULTISILIQUEÆ* consist of plants which have more seed-vessels than one. The greater part have many dry capsules, and the remainder bear numerous distinct seeds. They are mostly perennial; the stems of some are erect; others creep upon the ground, and produce roots near the origin of each leaf; others climb, and attach themselves to other bodies, either by the foot-stalk, or by tendrils which terminate it. The greatest height of those that rise erect seldom exceeds 8 feet. Those which climb rarely exceed 15 or 20 feet. The roots are generally fleshy. In some they are hand-shaped; in others finger-shaped; in others spherical or fibrous. The stems and young branches are cylindric. The leaves are of different forms; sometimes simple and entire, sometimes hand-shaped, generally alternate. The foot-stalk, which is sometimes cylindric, sometimes angular, is membranous, and very large at its origin, surrounding a great part of the stem. The flowers are hermaphrodite, and proceed either singly from the leaves, or terminate the branches in a spike, panicle, or head. The petals are from 4 to 15; generally equal, and sometimes disposed in 2 or 3 series; 5 is the prevailing number. The stamina are from 5 to 300, distinct, and attached generally in several rows to the receptacle. The style is frequently wanting. In

the seed-vessel is wanting; in others it is

composed of several dry capsules, each containing a single cell. The seeds are numerous, and often angular. They are caustic and purgative.

(246.) 27. *RHÆADÆÆ*, consist of poppy and few genera which resemble it in habit and structure. Upon being cut, they emit plentifully juice which is white in poppy, and yellow in the others. These plants are narcotic.

(247.) 28. *LURIDÆ* are an order of plants whose pale appearance indicates their baleful and noxious qualities. Most of them are herbaceous and perennial. Many of them are of the masked tribe of flowers; others resemble these in their general appearance, but differ from them in the equality of the stamina. The roots are generally branched, sometimes tuberous. The stems and branches are cylindric. The leaves are generally simple, and placed alternate. The flowers are hermaphrodite. They proceed either singly or in clusters from the angle formed by the leaves and branches. The calyx is generally of one piece deeply divided into parts. The corolla consists of one petal, which is either bell, funnel, or wheel-shaped. The stamina are 4 or 5. The seed-bud is placed above the receptacle. The style is single, and terminated by a hemispherical top. The seed-vessel, in fact as have equal stamina, is a berry; in the rest, is generally a capsule. The seeds are numerous and frequently kidney-shaped.

(248.) 29. *CAMPANACEÆ* have bell-shaped flowers, and are herbaceous and perennial. The roots are either spindle-shaped, or branching. The stems are round; the branches are generally alternate and commonly attached to the branches by a semi-cylindric foot-stalk. The indentments are terminated by a small white knob. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The calyx is a perianthum, generally composed of one leaf, divided into 5 segments. The corolla is monopetalous, and of the bell, funnel, or wheel shape. The upper part of the corolla is deeply divided into 5 segments which are alternate with the divisions of the calyx. The corolla is generally permanent. The stamina are 5, attached to the base of the tube of the corolla, alternate with its divisions, and opposite to those of the calyx. The filaments are distinct, very large at their origin; and slender and awl-shaped above. The antheræ are very long; oval, marked with 4 longitudinal furrows. The germen is roundish, and situated under the flower. The style and stigma are commonly single. The seed-vessel is a roundish capsule, generally divided into 3 cells. The seeds are small, numerous, rounded, and sometimes cornered. The plants are medicinal, and abound with a white milky juice.

(249.) 30. *CONTORTÆ*, plants which have a single petal twisted towards one side. This order contains trees, shrubs, fat succulent plants and herbaceous vegetables, generally perennial. The roots are sometimes branching but commonly fleshy. The stems are round. The branches are sometimes alternate, sometimes opposite. The buds are of a conic form, and naked. The leaves are sometimes alternate, sometimes opposite, and sometimes in whorls. The weapons are a downy sort of pubescence, and simple, or forked prickles. The flowers are hermaphrodite, either single or in clusters. The flower-cup is one leaf divided in five

five unequal segments, which are permanent. The corolla consists of one petal, which in the different genera is bell, salver, funnel, or wheel-shaped. The upper part of the petal is generally divided into five equal parts, slightly bent to the left. The tube is generally long and cylindric. In several flowers of this order, the petal is accompanied with a *nectarium*, which varies in the different genera. The stamina, are 5, short, and equal. The antheræ are generally erect. The seed-bud is either single or double. In some the style is wanting. The stigma is frequently double. The seed-vessel in some genera is a pulpy fruit, of the berry and cherry kind; but most frequently that species termed by Linnæus *coceptaculum* and *falli-*
num. Two of these dry fruits, with a single cell, compose the seed-vessel of most plants of this order. The seeds are generally numerous, and in several genera crowned with a long downy wing, by which they disperse and sow themselves. The plants being cut, emit a juice, either of a milky, or greenish white, which is deemed poisonous.

(250.) 31. *VEPREULÆ*, (from *vepres*, a briar,) consist of plants resembling the daphne, &c. but which do not constitute a true natural class.

(251.) 32. *PAPILIONACEÆ*, plants that have papilionaceous flowers, are of very different duration; some being herbaceous, either annual or perennial; others of the shrub and tree kind, a few of which rise to 70 feet and upwards. The herbaceous plants generally climb; for, being weak, they are provided with tendrils and sharp-pointed hooks, to fasten upon the neighbouring trees or rocks; and some twist themselves, for support, around bodies. The shrubs and trees are mostly armed with strong spines. The roots are very long, and furnished with fibres. The stems are cylindric. The bark of the large trees is extremely wrinkled; the wood is very hard and commonly veined. The buds are hemispherical, without scales; and the leaves are alternate, and either simple, finger-shaped, or winged. The paired leaves of this order have a daily motion, depending upon the sun in his diurnal course. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The calyx is a perianthium of one leaf bell-shaped. The bottom of the calyx is moistened with a sweet liquor like honey. The petals are 4 or 5, very irregular, and resemble a butterfly. The stamina are generally ten. The antheræ are small, round, and slightly attached to the filaments. The seed-bud is single, placed upon the receptacle, oblong, cylindrical, slightly compressed and sometimes elevated by a slender footstalk which issues from the centre of the calyx. The style is single, slender, and generally bent. The stigma is commonly covered with a beautiful down, and placed immediately under the antheræ. The seed-vessel is a legumen, of an oblong figure, compressed, with two valves, and several cavities, often separated, when ripe, by a sort of joints. The seeds are generally few, round, smooth, and fleshy, and all fastened along one suture. These plants are emollient.

(252.) 33. *LOMENTACEÆ*, (from *lomentum*, a colour used by painters,) furnish beautiful tinctures, and some of them are much used in dyeing. They differ from the last order, only in the following particulars: In all plants of this order, except

milk-wort, the stamina are distinct. The flower is not shaped like a butterfly, but is less irregular, and frequently consists of one petal. The leaves are sometimes simple, but most commonly winged. The seeds are marked with a furrow on both sides. These plants are mucilaginous.

(253.) 34. *CUCURBITACEÆ*, (from *cucurbita*, a gourd) plants which resemble the gourd in external figure, habit, virtues, and sensible qualities. They generally climb, have long diffused branches, and are mostly herbaceous and perennial. The roots in the perennial are shaped like those of the turnip; in the annual they are branching and fibrous. The stems are cylindric and succulent. The leaves are alternate, angular, and sometimes hand-shaped. From the angle of each of the upper leaves proceeds a tendril, which twists itself spirally round the different bodies in its neighbourhood. The lower leaves have no tendril. The flowers are either hermaphrodite, or male and female, separated upon the same root. The flower-cup, in the female flowers, is placed upon the seed-bud; and generally consists of one bell-shaped leaf, deeply divided into five unequal segments, which falls off with the petals and the other parts of the flower. The corolla consists of one petal, with 5 equal divisions, which adhere to the tube of the calyx. The stamina are from 1 to 5, short, and generally inserted into the calyx. The filaments are distinct. The seed-bud is single, and placed below the receptacle. The style is generally single, cylindrical, and crowned with a triple stigma. The seed-vessel is generally pulpy, of the apple or berry kind, and consists of 2 or 3 cells. The seeds are numerous. These plants are purgative.

(254.) 35. *SENTICOSÆ*, (from *sentis* a briar,) consist of the rose, bramble; and other plants which resemble them in external structure. These plants are so nearly allied in form, habit and structure, to the *POMACEÆ*, that they ought never to have been separated. The fruits are cooling.

(255.) 36. *POMACEÆ*, consist of plants which have a pulpy esculent fruit, of the apple, berry, or cherry kind. The plants of this order, which furnish many of our most esteemed fruits, are mostly of the shrub and tree kind. The roots are branched, fibrous, and very long. The stems and branches are cylindric. These last are placed alternate; and, when young, are, in some genera, angular. The bark is thick and wrinkled. The buds are of a conic form, placed in the angles of the leaves, and covered with scales which lie over each other like tiles. The leaves, which are either simple or winged, are generally placed alternate. The footstalk of the leaves is furrowed above, and frequently accompanied by knobs. The flowers are universally hermaphrodite, except in *spiræa aruncus*, in which male and female flowers are produced on distinct plants. In the greater number of genera they are produced in clusters. The calyx is of one piece, with 5 segments, which are permanent. The petals are 5, inserted into the tube of the calyx. The stamina are generally 20 and upwards. The antheræ are short, and slightly attached to the filaments. The seed-bud is single; and in those genera which have the calyx permanent, it is placed below the receptacle. Those of the apple kind are divided

internally into a number of cavities or cells. The seeds are numerous. The fruits are esculent.

(256.) 37. *COLUMNIFERÆ*, (from *columna* a pillar, and *fero* to bear,) plants whose stamina and pistil have the appearance of a pillar in the centre of the flower. This order furnishes a choice collection of herbs both annual and perennial, shrubs, and trees. These vary greatly in size and height, from the creeping mallows, and low shrubby tea tree, to the fleshy limes, and the lofty silk-cotton trees, which are said to be so large as not to be fathomed by 16 men, and so tall that an arrow cannot reach their top. The shrubs and trees of this order are deciduous, pretty thick, of a beautiful appearance, with an erect stem, formed by its branches and foliage into a round head. The roots are extremely long, branch but little, and either run perpendicularly downwards, or extend horizontally below the surface. The stems are cylindric. The bark is thick and pliant. The wood, in general, very soft and light. The buds are conic, naked, and situated either at the extremity of the branches, or in the angle formed by the branch and leaf. The leaves are alternate, simple, divided into several lobes, and frequently hand or finger shaped. The nerves on the back of the leaf, in some genera, are provided near their origin, with a number of hollow furrows, which, being filled with a clammy honey-like liquor, have been considered as so many vessels of secretion. The foot-stalk is cylindric, swelled at its origin, and appears jointed at its junction with the branch. The flowers are universally hermaphrodite, except in *biggeleria* and *napaea dioica*. In many plants of this order, the flowers generally open about nine in the morning, and remain expanded till 1 p. m. In some of them the calyx is single, and composed of one leaf which is permanent. In those plants that have a double calyx, both flower-cups are generally permanent. The petals are from 4 to 9; the stamina from 5 to 20 and upwards. The filaments are either distinct, or united in a cylinder, which surround the seed-bud. The antheræ are placed erect on the filaments, most commonly oblong, and slightly attached by the middle, to the filaments, on which they turn like a vane. The seed-bud is generally roundish or conic; and sometimes angular. The seed-vessel is generally a capsule; sometimes a pulpy fruit of the berry or cherry kind. In some, it is a woody or membranous capsule, divided into as many cells internally as there were partitions in the seed-bud. The seeds are generally solitary, sometimes angular, and sometimes kidney-shaped. The plants are mucilaginous and lubricating.

(257.) 38. *TRICOCCEÆ* (from *τρεῖς*, three, and *κῶκος*, a grain;) plants with a single three-cornered capsule, having 3 cells, each containing a single seed. The seed-vessel is of a singular form, and resembles 3 capsules, which adhere to one common footstalk as a centre, but are divided externally into 3 pretty deep partitions. This order is not completely natural, but the character expressed in the title is a striking one; and though plants which possess it are not connected by such numerous relations as to form a true natural class, they are by that circumstance distinguished from other plants with as great, nay, greater faci-

lity, than by any artificial character yet known. But all the genera have not this striking character.

(258.) 39. *SILIQUOSÆ*, plants which have a pod for their seed-vessel. They are chiefly biennial and perennial herbs of an irregular figure. The roots are long, branched, crooked, and fibrous. In some they are succulent and fleshy, in others jointed. The stems and young branches are cylindric. The leaves are either simple or winged, and are generally placed alternate. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The flower-cup is composed of four leaves, which are oblong, hollow, blunt, bunched at the base, sometimes erect, and sometimes spread horizontally. The petals which are 4, spread at top, and are disposed like a cross; the claws are erect, flat, awl-shaped, and somewhat longer than the calyx. The stigma are six. The antheræ are of an oblong figure, pointed, thicker at the base, and erect. The seed-bud is single, and stands upon the receptacle. The style is either cylindric or flat. The stamina is blunt, and sometimes deeply divided into two parts. The seed-vessel is either a long pod, or a short and round one. The seeds are roundish, small, and attached alternately by a slender thread to both sutures. The plants are diuretic and antiscorbutic.

(259.) 40. *PERSONATÆ*, (from *persona*, a masque,) consist of a number of plants whose flowers are furnished with an irregular, gaping, or grinning petal, in figure somewhat resembling the snout of an animal. This order furnishes both herbaceous and woody vegetables of the shrub and tree kind. The roots are generally fibrous and branched. The stems and branches are cylindric, when young, except in some species of figwort. The leaves are simple, generally placed opposite in pairs at the bottom of the branches, but in many genera stand alternate towards the top. The flowers are hermaphrodite; they proceed either singly or in clusters from the wings of the leaves, or terminate the branches in a spike, panicle, or head. The calyx is of 1 leaf, which is cut into 2, 3, 4, or 5 segments that are permanent. The corolla is composed of one irregular petal. The stamina are 2 or 4. The seed-bud is single, and placed above the receptacle. The style is single; thread-shaped, bent in the direction of the stamina; and crowned with a stigma which is generally blunt, and sometimes divided into two. The seed-vessel is a capsule, generally divided into two cells. The seeds are numerous, and affixed to a receptacle. The internal use of many of them is extremely pernicious; applied externally, they are anodyne, and powerful resolvents.

(260.) 41. *ASPERIFOLIÆ*, rough-leaved plants are mostly herbaceous and perennial. The roots are branching and fibrous; the stems and branches rounded; the buds of a conic form and naked. The leaves are simple, alternate, commonly rough to the touch, and in most of the herbaceous plants sessile. In the trees, however, the leaves have a foot-stalk, the lower part of which, after the fall of the leaves, remain like a thorn. The hairs are simple, and generally very rough. The flowers are commonly collected into a spike; and proceed not from the angle formed by the branch with the leaf, but from the side of the leaf, and

the part of the stem opposite to it. They are almost all hermaphrodite; except in a few species of *cordia*, which are dioecious. The calyx is composed of one leaf, which is divided into from 3 to 10 parts. The corolla is monopetalous, and variously shaped. The stamina are 5, alternate with the divisions of the corolla. The antheræ are in some genera *connivent*. The pistillum is generally a slender style, crowned with a simple stigma. The seeds are generally 4, and lodged in the bottom of the calyx. They are diuretic, and cordial.

(261.) 42. VERTICILLATÆ consist of herbaceous vegetables, having 4 naked seeds, and the flowers placed in whorls round the stalk. The roots are branched and fibrous. The stems are round when old, but square when young. The leaves are opposite, and generally supported upon a long cylindrical foot-stalk, furrowed above. The flowers are all hermaphrodite, except in one species of thyme. They are disposed round the stem in whorls. The calyx is of one piece, generally cut into 5 unequal divisions. The petal is of the gaping kind, and more or less irregular, either in its tube, or the divisions of the lips which vary from 2 to 4. The stamina are mostly 4, of unequal length. The seed-bud consists of 4 distinct ovaries, is placed upon the seat of the flower, and elevates from their centre a common style, which is slender and bent. The seeds are 4 and lodged in the bottom of the calyx. Each seed has two covers; the one external and cartilaginous; the other internal, and membranaceous. The leaves are cordial and cephalic.

(262.) 43. DUMOSÆ, (from *dumus* a bush,) are all of the shrub and tree kind, thick and bushy, ranging from 6 to 25, 30, and even 40 feet high. Many of them, too, are evergreens. The roots are branched and fibrous. The stems are cylindrical. The buds are naked in the evergreen shrubs; but covered with scales in most of the others. The leaves, which in some genera are simple, in others compound, are placed alternate in some, and opposite in others. The flowers are mostly hermaphrodite. The calyx is generally very small, and consists of one leaf, with 4, 5, or 6 divisions, which are permanent. The petals are from 1 to 5. The stamina are either 4, 5, 6, or 10. The seed-bud is generally roundish, and within the flower. The style is commonly single, and sometimes wanting. The stigma is either single or triple. The seed-vessel is generally a berry, sometimes a dry capsule; the seeds are generally single and egg shaped. The berries are purgative.

(263.) 44. SEPIARIÆ, (from *sepes* a hedge,) from their size, elegance, and other circumstances, are very proper for hedges. This order contains both shrubs and trees, most of which do not drop their leaves till nearly the time when the new leaves begin to appear.

(264.) 45. UMBELLATÆ, plants whose flowers grow in umbels, with 5 petals that are often unequal, and two naked seeds joined at top and separated below. They are herbaceous, and chiefly perennial. The roots are either tuberous or spindle-shaped; sometimes forked. The stems are cylindrical, full of pitch, and frequently hollow. The branches and leaves are alternate. The latter vary much in form; being simple and entire in

some; target shaped; finger or hand-shaped, in others; and pinnated in the greater number. They are supported by a foot-stalk, which is very broad at its origin, and commonly embraces the whole contour of the stem and branches. The flowers are in general hermaphrodite: though some have male flowers in the same umbel, and others hermaphrodite and male flowers upon distinct plants. The common sort is that termed by Linnæus *involucrum*. The petals are 5, disposed upon the sides of the flower-cup in form of a rose. The stamina are 5, placed opposite to the divisions of the flower-cup, and alternate with the petals. The seed-bud is placed under the seat of the flower, and supports two styles. The seeds are two, which, when ripe, separate below. The plants of this order, which grow in dry places, are sudorific, stomachic, and warming.

(265.) 46. HEDERACEÆ, (from *hedera* ivy;) consists of both herbaceous and shrubby plants; most of which, particularly ivy and vine, have creeping branches, which attach themselves by roots or tendrils to other bodies. The roots are long, with few branches. The stems and young branches are cylindric. In some species of vine they are square. The leaves are alternate; sometimes simple, sometimes winged. The foot-stalk of the leaves is cylindrical, and without any furrow. The buds are of a conic form, and without scales. The flowers are either hermaphrodite, male and female upon different roots, or hermaphrodite and male upon different roots. The calyx consists of one leaf divided into 5 parts. The petals are generally 5. The stamina are also 5, awl-shaped, erect, and generally of the length of the petals. The antheræ are roundish, and sometimes, as in ivy, attached to the filaments by the sides. The seed-bud is sometimes round, sometimes pear-shaped, and ends in 1, 2, or 3 awl-shaped styles, crowned with a simple stigma. The seed-vessel is of the berry kind, with 1, 2, or 5 stiles. The seeds are from 1 to 5, placed either in distinct cells, or dispersed through the pulp.

(266.) 47. STELLATÆ, (from *stella* a star,) consist of plants with two naked seeds, and leaves disposed round the stem in form of a radiant star. This order contains herbs, shrubs, and trees. The herbs are chiefly annual, and creep along the ground. The shrubs and trees are mostly evergreens, which rise erect, and are of an agreeable conic form. They are opening and cordial.

(267.) 48. AGGREGATÆ, plants which have aggregate flowers, consist of a number of florets, each of which have a proper and common calyx.

(268.) 49. COMPOSITÆ, plants with compound flowers. In this order Linnæus has constructed his primary divisions from the different sexes of the florets, which he terms *polygamii*; the subaltern divisions are constructed from the figure of the petals, the disposition of the flowers, the pappus or crown of the seed, the common receptacle, and other circumstances which characterize the subaltern divisions in other authors.

(269.) 50. AMENTACEÆ, plants bearing catkins.

(270.) 51. CONIFERÆ, (from *conus* a cone, and *fero* to bear); plants, whose female flowers, placed at a distance from the male, either on the same or distinct roots, are formed into a cone. In

this character, the only one expressed in the title, the plants seem to be nearly allied to the mosses: from which, however, they are easily distinguished by their habit, as well as by the structure of the small flowers, in which the stamina are united below into a cylinder, and distinct at top. They are mostly shrubs and trees, and retain their leaves all the year. The form of these plants is generally conic, and extremely beautiful, from the disposition of the branches, which cover the stems to the roots, extending horizontally and circularly like rays. The height of some genera does not exceed half a foot; that of others approaches to 100. The roots are short, branching, not very fibrous, and extend horizontally. The stems and branches are cylindric. The bark is thin, and split into slender scales. The wood, except that of the yew, possesses little hardness. The buds are of a conic form, and naked. The leaves are entire, small, and thick, frequently triangular, generally pointed; and are either alternate, opposite, placed in whorls, or collected into small bundles, proceeding from a single point. The flowers are all male and female. The calyx of the male flowers is a catkin; of the female, a cone. The petals are wanting; except in juniper. The stamina are from 3 to 20 and upwards; united into a cylinder, which rises out of the centre of the calyx. The antheræ are erect, distinct; of a roundish form, and divided into internal cells. The seed-buds are generally numerous. From each seed-bud arises a very short cylindrical style, crowned with a simple stigma, of a conic form. The seeds are naked. They are gummy and odorous.

(271.) 52. *COADUNATÆ*, (from *coadunare*, to join,) are so termed from the general appearance of the seed-vessels, which are numerous, and being slightly attached below, form all together a single fruit in the shape of a sphere or cone; the parts of which, however, are easily separated. This order consists of exotic shrubs and trees, both evergreen and deciduous. The trees are often 60 feet high, and garnished from the bottom to the top with spreading branches and leaves of a bright green colour, which assume a very agreeable conic form. The roots are branching and fibrous. The stems are cylindric, and the wood very hard. The buds are conic, flat, and generally without scales. The leaves are all simple and alternate. The footstalk is cylindric, without furrows, and frequently swelled at its origin. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The calyx consists of 3 oblong plain leaves, like petals. The petals are from 6 to 18, oblong, concave, and disposed in 2 or 3 rows. The stamina are numerous, short, and inserted into the common receptacle in some; and into the seed-bud in others. The filaments are very short and slender. The antheræ are numerous, slender, and placed round the seed-bud. The pistillum generally consists of a number of seed-buds in the form of a cone, seated upon a receptacle, which rises above that of the calyx. From each seed-bud generally rises a short cylindrical style. The stigma is commonly blunt. The seed-vessels are of the berry, capsule, or cherry kind, and are equal in number to the seed-buds, generally slightly attached below. The seeds are numerous, hard, roundish, and sometimes

cornered. The plants have a strong, agreeable, and aromatic smell. The bark and wood are bitter.

(272.) 53. *SCABRIDÆ*, (from *scaber* rough,) consist of plants with rough leaves; which seem to be akin to the *Asperifolia*; only their degree of roughness is much greater. They are astringent. Their taste is bitter and styptic.

(273.) 54. *MISCELLANÆ*, miscellaneous plants. This order consists of such genera as are not connected together by very numerous relations. See § 3.13.

(274.) 55. *PILICES*, ferns, bear their flower and fruit on the back of the leaf or stalk. These plants, in figure, approach the more perfect vegetables; being furnished, like them, with roots and leaves. The roots creep, and extend horizontally under the earth, throwing out a number of very slender fibres on all sides. The stem is not to be distinguished from the common footstalk, or rather middle rib of the leaves: so that in strict propriety the greater number of ferns may be said to be *acaules*. In some, however, the middle rib overtops the leaves, and forms a flower stalk. The leaves proceed singly, or in numbers, from the extremities of the branches of the main root. They are winged or hand-shaped in all the genera, except in adders-tongue, pepper-grass, and some species of spleen-wort. The flowers are, in the greater number of genera, fastened, and as it were glued, to the back of the leaves; in others, they are supported upon a stem which rises above the leaves; but in some, on a flower-stalk. The stamina are placed apart from the seed-bud in a genus termed by Mr Adanson *palma filix*; in the other ferns, where the stamina have been discovered, they are found within the same covers with the seed-bud. Most of the ferns have a disagreeable smell. They are opening and attenuating.

(275.) 56. *MUSCI*, mosses, resemble the pines, firs, and other evergreens of that class, in the form and disposition of their leaves, and manner of growth of the female flowers, which are generally formed into a cone. They frequently creep, and extend like a carpet upon the ground, trees, and stones; being generally collected into bunches and tufts: the smallest are only one third of an inch in height, and the largest do not exceed 5 or 6. Few of them are annual: small as they are, the greater number are perennial and evergreens. Their growth is remarkably slow, as may be judged by the time that the antheræ take to ripen. This, reckoning from the first appearance of the antheræ to the dispersion of its powder or male dust, is generally 5 or 6 months. Although preserved dry for several years, they have the singular property of resuming their original verdure upon being moistened. It is uncertain, whether they do not also resume their vegetative quality. Their roots are fibrous, slender, branched, and short. The stems and branches are cylindric and weak; they creep upon the ground, and strike root on every side. The leaves are very small and undivided. They are either alternate, opposite, or placed by fours round the stalk. They have no perceptible footstalk, but are seated immediately upon the stem. The flowers are universally male and female: in some, the male flowers are produced

produced upon the same plants with the female, and stand before them; in others, they are produced sometimes on the same, and sometimes on distinct plants. The male flowers consist entirely of anthers, and their covering: proceed either singly, or in clusters, from the extremity of the branches, or angles of the leaves; and are either seated immediately upon the branches, or supported by a long footstalk. The female flowers, which generally resemble capsules or cones, are all placed immediately upon the stem or branches, without any footstalk; and proceed singly either from the wings of the leaves, or summit of the branches; when produced upon the same plant with the male they are always placed under them. The female cones of the mosses greatly resemble those of the pines and evergreen trees of that class; the scales which form them are true leaves, each containing in its wing or angle a single seed. When the seeds are ripe, the cones probably open for their dispersion. When shut, they resemble buds, and have sometimes been ignorantly mistaken for such. The calyx, in this order, resembles a monk's cap, which, in the male flowers, covers or is suspended over the tops of the stamina like an extingisher. The petals are universally wanting. The stamens in general are almost tasteless, have few juices, and being once dried do not readily imbibed moisture from the air. Those which grow in water, being thrown into the fire, grow red, and are reduced to ashes without flame; on which account some superstitious people, the Siberians in particular, place water moss in their chimnies, as a preservative against fire. They all have a surprising property of preserving dry such bodies as are susceptible of moisture; and in retaining, for a long time, the humidity of young plants without exposing them to putrefaction. For this reason, such plants, as are to be sent to any considerable distance, are generally wrapped up in them.

(276.) 57. ALGÆ, flags, consist of marine plants, and whose root, leaf, and stem, are all one.

(277.) 58. FUNGI, mushrooms, are rarely branched, sometimes creeping, but most commonly erect. Such as are furnished with branches have them of a light spongy substance like cork. Mushrooms differ from the fungi, in that those which, like the fungi, have their seeds contained in capsules, are not branched, as that numerous class of sea-weeds are. The greatest part of mushrooms have no root: some, instead of roots, have fibres, which, by their imosculation, frequently form a net with unequal meshes, some of which produce plants similar to their parent vegetable. The stamina in these plants are still undetermined. The seeds are spread over the surface of the plant, or placed in open holes or cavities, resembling the open capsules of some of the fungi. In mushrooms which are branched, the seeds are frequently visible by the naked eye, and always to be distinctly observed by the assistance of a good microscope. These plants are very astringent. As food, they are at best suspicious; some of them are rank poison.

(278.) PLANTÆ DUBII ORDINIS, plants of uncertain order. Under this name Linnæus classes all the other genera which cannot be reduced to

any of the above-mentioned orders, and which are near 120 in number.

SECT. II. The GENERA arranged according to the NATURAL METHOD.

(279.) In the natural method of classification there is no subdivision similar to that of ORDERS, in the Sexual system; and therefore the terms CLASSES and ORDERS are used synonymously for the *higher* distinction, and the GENERA of consequence rank as the *second* division. The following, though not complete, is the best arrangement we can make out from botanical authors, of the genera under the natural orders.

(280.) 1. PALMÆ contains 14 genera; viz. *Areca*, *Borassus*, *Caryota*, *Chamærops*, *Cocos*, *Corypha*, *Cycas*, *Elais*, *Elate*, *Hydrocharis*, *Phoenix*, *Stratiotes*, *Vallisneria*, and *Zamia*.

(281.) 2. PIPERITÆ contains 10 genera; viz. *Acorus*, *Ambrosinia*, *Arum*, *Calla*, *Dracontium*, *Orontium*, *Piper*, *Pothos*, *Saururus*, and *Zostera*.

(282.) 3. CALAMARIÆ, 7 genera; viz. *Carex*, *Cyperus*, *Eriophorum*, *Schænus*, *Scirpus*, *Sparganium*, and *Typha*.

(283.) 4. GRAMINÆ, 45 genera; viz. *Æglops*, *Agrostis*, *Aira*, *Alopecurus*, *Andropogon*, *Anthoxanthum*, *Apluda*, *Aristida*, *Arundo*, *Avena*, *Bobartia*, *Briza*, *Bromus*, *Cenchrus*, *Cinna*, *Coix*, *Cornucopiæ*, *Cynofurus*, *Dactylis*, *Elymus*, *Festuca*, *Holcus*, *Hordeum*, *Ischæmum*, *Lagurus*, *Lohum*, *Lygæum*, *Melica*, *Milium*, *Nardus*, *Olyra*, *Oryza*, *Panicum*, *Paspalum*, *Phalaris*, *Pharus*, *Phleum*, *Poa*, *Saccharum*, *Secale*, *Stipa*, *Tripsacum*, *Triticum*, *Uniola*, and *Zea*.

(284.) 5. TRIPETALOIDEÆ, 9 genera; viz. *Alisma*, *Aphyllanthes*, *Butomus*, *Calamus*, *Flagellaria*, *Juncus*, *Sagittaria*, *Scheuchzeria*, and *Triglochin*.

(285.) 6. ENSATÆ, 15 genera; viz. *Antholyza*, *Callisia*, *Commelina*, *Crocus*, *Eriocaulon*, *Ferraria*, *Gladiolus*, *Iris*, *Ixia*, *Moræa*, *Pontederia*, *Syzyrinchium*, *Tradescantia*, *Wachendorfia*, and *Xyris*.

(286.) 7. ORCHIDEÆ, 8 genera; viz. *Arethusa*, *Cypripedium*, *Epidendrum*, *Limodorum*, *Ophrys*, *Orchis*, *Satyrion*, and *Serapias*.

(287.) 8. SCITAMINEÆ, 9 genera; viz. *Alpinia*, *Amomum*, *Canis*, *Costus*, *Curcuma*, *Kæmpferia*, *Maranta*, *Musa*, and *Thalia*.

(288.) 9. SPATHACEÆ, 11 genera; viz. *Allium*, *Amaryllis*, *Bulbocodium*, *Colchicum*, *Crinum*, *Galanthus*, *Gethyllis*, *Hæmanthus*, *Leucoium*, *Narcissus*, and *Pancratium*.

(289.) 10. CORONARIÆ, 23 genera; viz. *Agave*, *Albuca*, *Aletris*, *Aloe*, *Anthericum*, *Asphodelus*, *Bromelia*, *Burmannia*, *Cyanella*, *Fritillaria*, *Helonias*, *Hemerocallis*, *Hyacinthus*, *Hypoxis*, *Lilium*, *Melanthium*, *Ornithogalum*, *Polianthes*, *Scilla*, *Tillandsia*, *Tulipa*, *Veratrum*, and *Yucca*.

(290.) 11. SARMENTOSÆ, 20 genera; viz. *Alstroemeria*, *Aristolochia*, *Asarum*, *Asparagus*, *Centella*, *Cissampelos*, *Convallaria*, *Cytinus*, *Dioscorea*, *Erythronium*, *Gloriosa*, *Medeola*, *Menispermum*, *Paris*, *Rajania*, *Ruscus*, *Smilax*, *Tamus*, *Trillium*, and *Uvularia*.

(291.) 12. HOLERACEÆ, 35 genera; viz. *Anabasis*, *Anacardium*, *Atraphaxis*, *Atriplex*, *Axyris*, *Bassella*, *Begonia*,

Begonia, Beta, Blitum, Bucida, Calligonum, Calitriche, Camphorosma, Ceratocarpus, Chenopodium, Coccoloba, Corispermum, Heisteria, Herniaria, Illecebrum, Laurus, Mimulus, Nyssa, Petiveria, Polycnemum, Polygonum, Rheum, Rhizophora, Rivina, Rumex, Salicornia, Salsola, Spinacia, Tinus, and Winterania.

(292.) 13. SUCCULENTÆ, 28 genera; viz. Adoxa, Aizoon, Cactus, Chrysofplenium, Claytonia, Cotyledon, Crassula, Galenia, Hydrangea, Mesembryanthum, Mitella, Nama, Neurada, Penthorum, Portulaca, Reaumuria, Rhodiola, Saxifraga, Sedum, Sempervivum, Septas, Sessuvium, Suriana, Tamarix, Tetragonia, Tiarella, Tillea and Trianthema.

(293.) 14. GRUINALES, 11 genera; viz. Aldrovanda, Averrhoa, Drosera, Fagonia, Germanium, Guaiacum, Linum, Oxalis, Quassia, Tribulus, and Zygophyllum.

(294.) 15. INUNDATÆ, 8 genera; viz. Ceratophyllum, Elatine, Hippuris, Myriophyllum, Potamogeton, Proserpinacea, Ruppia, and Zanthella.

(295.) 16. CALYCIFLORÆ, 4 genera; viz. Elæagnus, Hippophae, Olyris, and Trophis.

(296.) 17. CALYCANTHEMÆ, 16 genera; viz. Ammiana, Epilobium, Frankenia, Gaura, Glaux, Grisea, Isardia, Jussiza, Ludvigia, Lythrum, Melastoma, Mentzelia, Oenothera, Osbeckia, Peplis, and Rhexia.

(297.) 18. BICORNES, 21 genera; viz. Andromeda, Arbutus, Azalea, Blæria, Citrus, Clethra, Diospyros, Epigæa, Erica, Garcinia, Gaultheria, Halefia, Kalmia, Ledum, Myrsine, Pyrola, Rhododendrum, Rhodora, Royena, Styrax, and Vaccinium.

(298.) 19. Hesperideæ, 5 genera; viz. Caryophyllus, Eugenia, Myrtus, Philadelphus, and Psidium.

(299.) 20. ROTACEÆ, 13 genera; viz. Anagallis, Ascyrum, Centunculus, Chironia, Cistus, Exacum, Gentiana, Hypericum, Lythmachia, Phlox, Sarothra, Swertia, and Trientalis.

(300.) 21. PRECIÆ, 12 genera; Androsace, Areia, Cortusa, Cyclamen, Diapensia, Dodecatheon, Hortonia, Limosella, Menyanthes, Primula, Samolus, and Soldanella.

(301.) 22. CARYOPHYLLÆ, 29 genera; viz. Agrostemma, Alfine, Arenaria, Bufonia, Cerastrum, Cherleria, Cucubalus, Dianthus, Drypis, Glinus, Gypsophila, Holotheum, Læstingia, Lychnis, Minuartia, Mœhringia, Mollugo, Ortega, Pharnaceum, Polycarpon, Polypremum, Queria, Sagina, Saponaria, Scleranthus, Silene, Spargula, Stellaria, and Valezia.

(302.) 23. TRIHILATÆ, 12 genera; viz. Acer, Æsculus, Banisteria, Cardiospermum, Malpighia, Melia, Paulinia, Sapindus, Staphylæa, Trichilia, Triopteris, and Tropæolum.

(303.) 24. CORYDALES, 9 genera; viz. Epimedium, Fumaria, Hypecoum, Impatiens, Leontice, Melianthus, Monniera, Pinguicula, and Utricularia.

(304.) 25. PUTAMINEÆ, 6 genera; viz. Capparis, Cleome, Cratæva, Crescentia, Marcgravia, and Morifonia.

(305.) 26. MULTISILIQUÆ, 21 genera; viz. Aconitum, Actæa, Adonis, Anemone, Aquilegia,

Atragene, Caltha, Clematis, Delphinium, Harbog, Lin. 2, Moris, team, Acan, Ar, le, 6, 74, Cymbaria,

(306.) 27. RHÆADEÆ, 6 genera; viz. Myrmone, Bocconia, Chelidonium, Silyphium, and Sanguinaria.

(307.) 28. LURIDÆ, 18 genera; viz. Browallia, Capsicum, Catechæa, Datura, Digitalis, Ellinia, Hyoscyamus, Nicotiana, Pedalium, Physalis, Strychnus, and Verbascom.

(308.) 29. CAMPANACEÆ, 11 genera; viz. Euphrasia, panula, Convolvulus, Evolvulus, Lobelia, Phyteuma, Polemonium, Strychnus, and Viola.

(309.) 30. CONTORTÆ, 17 genera; viz. Rhinanthus, num, Asclepias, Cameraria, Cerbera, Cynanchum, Echites, Gardenia, Nerium, Periploca, Plume, Stapelia, Tabernemontana, and Vi.

(310.) 31. VEPRECULEÆ, 9 genera; viz. Daphne, Dirca, Gnidia, Lachnæa, qualis, Stellera, and Thesium.

(311.) 32. PAPILIONACEÆ, 50 genera; viz. Abrus, Æschynomene, Amorpha, thyllis, Arachis, Aspalathus, Astragalus, Borbonia, Cicer, Clitoria, Colutea, Cytisus, Dolichos, Ebenus, Gethrina, Galega, Genista, Geofira, Hedysarum, Hippocrepis, Lathyrus, Lotus, Lupinus, Medicago, Ononis, Ornithopus, Orobus, Phacelia, Pifcidia, Pisum, Piforalca, Pterocarpus, Scorpiurus, Sophora, Spartium, Trigonella, Vicia, and Ulex.

(312.) 33. LOMENTACEÆ, 14 genera; viz. nanthera, Bauhinia, Cæsalpinia, Cassia, Cercis, Gleditfia, Guilandina, Hæmatomenza, Mimosa, Parkinsonia, Poinciana, lygala.

(313.) 34. CUCURBITACEÆ, 12 genera; viz. Anguria, Bryonia, Cucumis, Cucurbita, Fevillea, Gronovia, Melotheria, Momoniflora, Sicyos, and Trichosanthes.

(314.) 35. SENTICOSÆ, 12 genera; viz. monia, Alchemilla, Aphanes, Comarum, Fragaria, Geum, Potentilla, Rosa, Rubidia, and Tormentilla.

(315.) 36. POMACEÆ, 10 genera; viz. dalus, Chrysobalanus, Cratægus, Mespilus, Punica, Pyrus, Ribes, Sorbus, and

(316.) 37. COLUMNIFERÆ, 33 genera; viz. fonia, Alcea, Althæa, Ayenia, Bixa, Bomellia, Corchorus, Grevia, Gossypium, Helicocarpus, Hermannia, Hibiscus, Kigelinhovia, Lavatera, Malope, Malva, Micropus, Muntingia, Napæa, Pentapetes, Stewartia, Thea, Theobroma, Tilia, Turnera, Urena, and Waltheria.

(317.) 38. TRICOCCÆ, 27 genera; viz. Apha, Adelia, Andrachne, Buxus, Cambrica, Cliffortia, Clutia, Cneorum, Cupania, Dalechampia, Euphorbia, ExcœGuettarda, Hernandria, Hippomane, Huratropa, Mercurialis, Phyllanthus, PlukenRicinus, Solandra, Sterculia, Tragia, and allis.

4. *Sperma*; viz. Alyssum, Arabis, Brassica, Bunias, Cypripedium, Cochlearia, Erysimum, Heliophila, Lepidium, Lunaria, Myosotis, Ricotia, Sinapis, Sisymphe, Turritis, and Vella.

54 genera ; viz. Acan-
 tharia, Barleria, Bartsia,
 Buchnera, Capraria,
 Clerodendrum, Collinso-
 nia, Craniolaria, Cymbaria,
 Duranta, Erinus, Euphrasia,
 Gratiola, Halleria,
 Manulca, Martynia,
 Obolaria, Orobanche,
 Phryma, Rhinanthus,
 Scrophularia, Ste-
 vandellia, Verbena, Ve-
 kamaria.

LIÆ, 19 genera; viz. An-
o, Cerinthe, Cordia, Cyno-
ia, Heliotropium, Lithof-
ofotis, Nolana, Onosma,
a, Symphytum, Tourne-

ATÆ, 40 genera; viz. A-
ta, Betonica, Cleonia, Cli-
acocephalum, Galeopsis,
Hyssopus, Lamium, La-
pus, Marrubium, Melissa,
cella, Monarda, Nepeta,
rvala, Phlomis, Prasilum,
lvia, Satureia, Scutellaria,
um, Thymbra, Thymus,
nora.

18 genera; viz. *Achras*,
Boerhaavia, *Celastrus*, *Chryso-*
gona, *Ilex*, *Phyllanthus*, *Pr-*
unella, *Schinus*, *Sida-*
stichia.

8 genera; viz. *Chionan-*
m, *Ligustrum*, *Nyctan-*
d *Syringa*.

E, 46 genera; viz. *Ægop-*
i, *Anethum*, *Angelica*,
a, *Astrantia*, *Athamanta*,
rum, *Cachrys*, *Carum*,
Cicuta, *Conium*, *Cori-*
ninum, *Daucus*, *Echino-*
a, *Hasselquistia*, *Heracle-*
atoria, *Lasserpitium*, *Li-*
pastinaca, *Peucedanum*,
a, *Sanicula*, *Scandix*, *Se-*
m, *Smyrnum*, *Thapsia*,

6 genera; viz. *Aralia*,
Vitis, and *Zanthoxylum*.

23 genera; viz. Anthof-
ea, Cornus, Crucianella,
otis, Houstonia, Ixora,
undia, Ophiorrhiza, Pa-
Richardia, Rubia, She-
elia, and Valantia.

Æ, 26 genera; viz. Al-
ia, Cephalanthus, Chio-
us, Diplacus, Globularia,

(328.) 49. COMPOSITÆ, 105 genera; viz. Achillea, Ageratum, Ambrosia, Amellus, Anacyclus, Andryala, Anthemis, Arctium, Arctotis, Arnica, Artemisia, Aster, Athanasia, Atractylis, Baccharis, Bellis, Bidens, Bupthalmum, Cacalia, Calea, Calendula, Carduus, Carlina, Carpesium, Carthamus, Catananche, Centaurea, Chondrilla, Chrysanthemum, Chrysocoma, Chrysogonum, Cichorium, Cineraria, Conyza, Coreopsis, Corymbium, Cotula, Crepis, Cynara, Doronicum, Echinos, Elephantopus, Erigeron, Eriocephalus, Ethulia, Eupatorium, Filago, Geropogon, Gnaphalium, Gorteria, Gundelia, Helenium, Helianthus, Hieracium, Hysomeris, Hypocheris, Isula, Iva, Kuhnia, Lactuca, Lapsana, Leontodon, Leysera, Matricaria, Melampodium, Micropus, Molleria, Onopordum, Osmites, Osteospermum, Othonna, Parthenium, Pectis, Perdicium, Picris, Polymnia, Prenanthes, Pteronia, Rudbeckia, Santolina, Scolymus, Scorzonera, Senecio, Seriola, Seriphium, Serratula, Sigesbeckia, Silphium, Solidago, Sonchus, Sphaeranthus, Stæhelina, Stoebe, Strumpfia, Tagetes, Tanacetum, Tarchonanthus, Tetragonotheca, Tragopogon, Tridax, Tussilago, Verbesina, Xanthium, Xeranthemum, and Zinnia.

(329.) 50. AMENTACEÆ, 13 genera; viz. *Betula*, *Carpinus*, *Corylus*, *Cynomorium*, *Fagus*, *Juglans*, *Myrica*, *Pistacia*, *Platanus*, *Populus*, *Quercus*, *Salix*, and *Sloanea*.

(330.) 51. CONIFERÆ, 7 genera; viz. Cupressus, Ephedra, Equisetus, Juniperus, Pinus, Taxus, and Thuja.

(331.) 52. COADUNATÆ, 6 genera; viz. Annona, Liriodendron, Magnolia, Michelia, Uvaria, and Xylopia.

(332.) 53. SCABRIDÆ, 13 genera; viz. *Acnida*, *Bofea*, *Cannabis*, *Cecropia*, *Celtis*, *Dorstenia*, *Ficus*, *Humulus*, *Morus*, *Parietaria*, *Theligonum*, *Ulmus*, and *Urtica*.

(333.) 54. MISCELLANÆ, 21 genera; viz. *Achyranthes*, *Amaranthus*, *Cedrela*, *Celofia*, *Coriaria*, *Corrigiola*, *Datiscia*, *Empetrum*, *Gomphrena*, *Iresine*, *Lemna*, *Limeum*, *Nymphæa*, *Phytolacca*, *Pistia*, *Poterium*, *Reseda*, *Sanguisorba*, *Sarracena*, *Swietenia*, and *Telephium*.

(334.) 55. **FILICES**, 15 genera; viz. *Acrostichum*, *Adiantum*, *Asplenium*, *Blechnum*, *Hemionitis*, *Isoetes*, *Lonchitis*, *Marileia*, *Onoclea*, *Ophioglossum*, *Osmunda*, *Pilularia*, *Polypodium*, *Pteris*, and *Trichomanes*.

(335.) 56. Musci, ix genera; viz. Bryum, Buxbaumia, Fontinalis, Hypnum, Lycopodium, Mnium, Phascum, Polytrichum, Porella, Sphagnum, and Splachnum.

(336.) 57. ALGÆ. This order comprehends the whole class of sea weeds, and some other aquatic plants, but the genera have not yet been accurately enumerated.

(337.) 58. FUNGI, 11 genera; viz. Agaricus, Boletus, Byssus, Clathrus, Clavaria, Elvela, Hydnum, Lycoperdon, Mucor, Peziza, and Phallus.

(338.) DUBII ORDINIS genera are about 120.
See *Linnaei Frag. Method. Nat.*

(239.) We

Begonia, *Beta*, *Blitum*, *Bucida*, *Calligonum*, *Calitriche*, *Camphorosma*, *Ceratocarpus*, *Chenopodium*, *Coccoloba*, *Corispermum*, *Heisteria*, *Herniaria*, *Illecebrum*, *Laurus*, *Mimusops*, *Nyssa*, *Petiveria*, *Polycnemum*, *Polygonum*, *Rheum*, *Rhizophora*, *Rivina*, *Rumex*, *Salicornia*, *Salsola*, *Spinacia*, *Tinus*, and *Winterania*.

(292.) 13. *SUCCULENTÆ*, 28 genera; viz. *Aloxa*, *Aizoon*, *Cactus*, *Chrysosplenium*, *Claytonia*, *Cotyledon*, *Crassula*, *Galenia*, *Hydrangea*, *Mesembryanthemum*, *Mitella*, *Nama*, *Neurada*, *Penthorum*, *Portulaca*, *Reaumuria*, *Rhodiola*, *Saxifraga*, *Sedum*, *Sempervivum*, *Septas*, *Sesuvium*, *Suriana*, *Tamarix*, *Tetragonia*, *Tiarella*, *Tillea* and *Trianthema*.

(293.) 14. *GRUINALES*, 11 genera; viz. *Aldrovanda*, *Averrhoa*, *Drosera*, *Fagonia*, *Germanium*, *Guaiacum*, *Linum*, *Oxalis*, *Quassia*, *Tribulus*, and *Zygophyllum*.

(294.) 15. *INUNDATÆ*, 8 genera; viz. *Ceratophyllum*, *Elatine*, *Hippuris*, *Myriophyllum*, *Potamogeton*, *Proserpinacea*, *Ruppia*, and *Zanichellia*.

(295.) 16. *CALYCIFLORÆ*, 4 genera; viz. *Elæagnus*, *Hippophae*, *Osyris*, and *Trophis*.

(296.) 17. *CALYCANTHEMÆ*, 16 genera; viz. *Ammiana*, *Epilobium*, *Frankenia*, *Gaura*, *Glauk*, *Griffæa*, *Isnardia*, *Jussiza*, *Ludvigia*, *Lythrum*, *Melastoma*, *Mentzelia*, *Oenothera*, *Osbeckia*, *Peplis*, and *Rhexia*.

(297.) 18. *BICORNES*, 21 genera; viz. *Andromeda*, *Arbutus*, *Azalea*, *Blæria*, *Citrus*, *Clethra*, *Diospyros*, *Epigæa*, *Erica*, *Garcinia*, *Gaultheria*, *Halesia*, *Kalmia*, *Ledum*, *Myrsine*, *Pyrola*, *Rhododendrum*, *Rhodora*, *Royena*, *Styrax*, and *Vaccinium*.

(298.) 19. *Hesperideæ*, 5 genera; viz. *Caryophyllus*, *Eugenia*, *Myrtus*, *Philadelphus*, and *Psidium*.

(299.) 20. *ROTACEÆ*, 13 genera; viz. *Anagallis*, *Ascyrum*, *Centunculus*, *Chironia*, *Cistus*, *Exacum*, *Gentiana*, *Hypericum*, *Lythmachia*, *Phlox*, *Sarothra*, *Swertia*, and *Trientalis*.

(300.) 21. *PRECIÆ*, 12 genera; viz. *Androsace*, *Arcia*, *Cortusa*, *Cyclamen*, *Diapensia*, *Dodecatheon*, *Hortonia*, *Limosella*, *Menyanthes*, *Primula*, *Samolus*, and *Soldanella*.

(301.) 22. *CARYOPHYLLEÆ*, 29 genera; viz. *Agrostemma*, *Alfine*, *Arenaria*, *Bufonia*, *Cerastium*, *Cherleria*, *Cucubalus*, *Dianthus*, *Drypis*, *Glinus*, *Gypsophila*, *Holosteum*, *Lœflingia*, *Lychnis*, *Minuartia*, *Mœhringia*, *Mollugo*, *Ortegia*, *Pharnaceum*, *Polycarpon*, *Polypremum*, *Queria*, *Sagina*, *Saponaria*, *Scleranthus*, *Silene*, *Spergula*, *Stellaria*, and *Valezia*.

(302.) 23. *TRIHELATÆ*, 12 genera; viz. *Acer*, *Æsculus*, *Banisteria*, *Cardiospermum*, *Malpighia*, *Melia*, *Paulinia*, *Sapindus*, *Staphylæa*, *Trichilia*, *Triopteris*, and *Tropæolum*.

(303.) 24. *CORYDALES*, 9 genera; viz. *Epimedium*, *Fumaria*, *Hypecoum*, *Impatiens*, *Leontice*, *Melanthus*, *Monnieria*, *Pinguicula*, and *Utricularia*.

(304.) 25. *PUTAMINEÆ*, 6 genera; viz. *Capparis*, *Cleome*, *Cratæva*, *Crescentia*, *Marcgravia*, and *Morisonia*.

(305.) 26. *MULTISILIQUÆ*, 21 genera; viz. *Aconitum*, *Actæa*, *Adonis*, *Anemone*, *Aquilegia*,

Atragene, *Caltha*, *Clematis*, *Delphinium*, *Dictamnus*, *Garidella*, *Helleborus*, *Isopyrum*, *Myosurus*, *Nigella*, *Pæonia*, *Peganum*, *Ranunculus*, *Ruta*, *Thalictrum*, and *Trollius*.

(306.) 27. *RHÆADÆÆ*, 6 genera; viz. *Argemone*, *Bocconia*, *Chelidonium*, *Papaver*, *Podophyllum*, and *Sanguinaria*.

(307.) 28. *LURIDÆ*, 18 genera; viz. *Atropa*, *Browallia*, *Capficum*, *Catesbæa*, *Celista*, *Cestrum*, *Datura*, *Digitalis*, *Ellisia*, *Hyoscymus*, *Lycium*, *Nicotiana*, *Pedaliium*, *Physalis*, *Sesamum*, *Solanum*, *Strychnus*, and *Verbasum*.

(308.) 29. *CAMPANACEÆ*, 11 genera; viz. *Campanula*, *Convolvulus*, *Evolvulus*, *Jasione*, *Ipomœa*, *Lobelia*, *Phyteuma*, *Polemonium*, *Roella*, *Trachelium*, and *Viola*.

(309.) 30. *CONTORTÆ*, 17 genera; viz. *Apocynum*, *Asclepias*, *Cameraria*, *Cerbera*, *Ceropegia*, *Cynanchum*, *Echites*, *Gardenia*, *Genipa*, *Microcnemum*, *Nerium*, *Periploca*, *Plumeria*, *Rauwolfia*, *Stapelia*, *Tabernæmontana*, and *Vinca*.

(310.) 31. *VEPRECULÆ*, 9 genera; viz. *Daphne*, *Dirca*, *Gnidia*, *Lachnæa*, *Passerina*, *Quisqualis*, *Stellera*, and *Thesium*.

(311.) 32. *PAPILIONACEÆ*, 50 genera; viz. *Abrus*, *Æschynomene*, *Amorpha*, *Anagyris*, *Anthyllis*, *Arachis*, *Aspalathus*, *Astragalus*, *Biserrula*, *Borbonia*, *Cicer*, *Clitoria*, *Colutea*, *Coronilla*, *Crotalaria*, *Cytisus*, *Dolichos*, *Ebenus*, *Ervum*, *Erythrina*, *Galega*, *Genista*, *Geoffrœa*, *Glycine*, *Glycyrrhiza*, *Hedysarum*, *Hippocrepis*, *Indigofera*, *Lathyrus*, *Lotus*, *Lupinus*, *Medicago*, *Nissolia*, *Ononis*, *Ornithopus*, *Orobus*, *Phaca*, *Phaseolus*, *Piscidia*, *Pisum*, *Pterocarpus*, *Robinia*, *Scorpiurus*, *Sophora*, *Spartium*, *Trifolium*, *Trigonella*, *Vicia*, and *Ulex*.

(312.) 33. *LOMENTACEÆ*, 14 genera; viz. *Adnanthera*, *Bauhinia*, *Cæsalpinia*, *Cassia*, *Ceratonia*, *Cercis*, *Gleditsia*, *Guilandina*, *Hæmatoxylon*, *Hymentza*, *Mimosa*, *Parkinsonia*, *Poinciana*, and *Polygala*.

(313.) 34. *CUCURBITACEÆ*, 12 genera; viz. *Anguria*, *Bryonia*, *Cucumis*, *Cucurbita*, *Elaterium*, *Fevillea*, *Gronovia*, *Melotheria*, *Momordica*, *Passiflora*, *Sicyos*, and *Trichosanthes*.

(314.) 35. *SENTICOSÆ*, 12 genera; viz. *Agmonia*, *Alchemilla*, *Aphanes*, *Comarum*, *Dryas*, *Fragaria*, *Geum*, *Potentilla*, *Rosa*, *Rubus*, *Sibbaldia*, and *Tormentilla*.

(315.) 36. *POMACEÆ*, 10 genera; viz. *Amygdalus*, *Chrysobalanus*, *Cratægus*, *Mespilus*, *Prunus*, *Punica*, *Pyrus*, *Ribes*, *Sorbus*, and *Spiræa*.

(316.) 37. *COLUMNIFERÆ*, 33 genera; viz. *Adafonia*, *Alcea*, *Althæa*, *Ayenia*, *Bixa*, *Bombax*, *Cassia*, *Corchorus*, *Grevia*, *Gossypium*, *Heliocarpus*, *Hermannia*, *Hibiscus*, *Kiggelaria*, *Kleinhovia*, *Lavatera*, *Malope*, *Malva*, *Melochia*, *Micropus*, *Muntingia*, *Napæa*, *Pentapetes*, *Sida*, *Stewartia*, *Thea*, *Theobroma*, *Tilia*, *Triumfetta*, *Turnera*, *Urena*, and *Waltheria*.

(317.) 38. *TRICOCCEÆ*, 27 genera; viz. *Acalypha*, *Adelia*, *Andrachne*, *Buxus*, *Cambogia*, *Carica*, *Cliffortia*, *Clusia*, *Cneorum*, *Croton*, *Cupania*, *Dalechampia*, *Euphorbia*, *Excœcarpa*, *Guettarda*, *Hernandria*, *Hippomane*, *Hura*, *Justicia*, *Mercurialis*, *Phyllanthus*, *Plukenetia*, *Ricinus*, *Solandra*, *Sterculia*, *Tragia*, and *Trochilanthus*.

(318.) 39. **SILIQVOSÆ**, 30 genera; viz. *Alyssum*, *Anastatica*, *Arabis*, *Biscutella*, *Brassica*, *Bunias*, *Cardamine*, *Cheiranthus*, *Clypeola*, *Cochlearia*, *Crotche*, *Dentaria*, *Draba*, *Erysimum*, *Heliophila*, *Heperis*, *Iberis*, *Isatis*, *Lepidium*, *Lunaria*, *Myagrum*, *Peltaria*, *Raphanus*, *Ricotia*, *Sinapis*, *Sisymbrium*, *Subularia*, *Thlaspi*, *Turritis*, and *Vella*.

(319.) 40. **PERSONATÆ**, 54 genera; viz. *Acanthis*, *Antirrhinum*, *Avicennia*, *Barleria*, *Bartia*, *Bellieria*, *Bignonia*, *Bontia*, *Buchnera*, *Capraria*, *Cedione*, *Citharexylon*, *Clerodendrum*, *Collinsia*, *Columnnea*, *Cornutia*, *Craniocharia*, *Cymbaria*, *Dianthera*, *Dodartia*, *Duranta*, *Erinus*, *Euphrasia*, *Gerardia*, *Gesneria*, *Gmelina*, *Gratiola*, *Halleria*, *Justicia*, *Lantana*, *Lathræa*, *Manulea*, *Martynia*, *Melampyrum*, *Mimulus*, *Obolaria*, *Orobanchæ*, *Orieda*, *Pedicularis*, *Petrea*, *Phryma*, *Rhinanthus*, *Rocha*, *Schwalbea*, *Scoparia*, *Scrophularia*, *Stenodia*, *Torenia*, *Tozzia*, *Vandellia*, *Verbena*, *Vernonia*, *Vitex*, and *Volkameria*.

(320.) 41. **ASPERIFOLIÆ**, 19 genera; viz. *Andréa*, *Asperugo*, *Borago*, *Cerithe*, *Cordia*, *Cynoglossum*, *Echium*, *Ehretia*, *Heliotropium*, *Lithospermum*, *Lycopsis*, *Myosotis*, *Nolana*, *Onosma*, *Polygonula*, *Pulmonaria*, *Symphytum*, *Tournefortia*, and *Varronia*.

(321.) 42. **VERTICILLATÆ**, 40 genera; viz. *Ajuga*, *Amethystea*, *Ballota*, *Betonica*, *Cleonia*, *Clinopodium*, *Cunila*, *Dracocephalum*, *Galeopsis*, *Glechoma*, *Horminum*, *Hyssopus*, *Lamium*, *Lavandula*, *Leonurus*, *Lycopus*, *Marrubium*, *Melissa*, *Mintus*, *Mentha*, *Moluccella*, *Monarda*, *Nepeta*, *Ocimum*, *Origanum*, *Orvala*, *Phlomis*, *Prasium*, *Primella*, *Rosmarinus*, *Salvia*, *Satureia*, *Scutellaria*, *Scleritis*, *Stachys*, *Teucrium*, *Thymbra*, *Thymus*, *Trichostema*, and *Ziziphora*.

(322.) 43. **DUMOSÆ**, 18 genera; viz. *Achras*, *Callicarpa*, *Cassine*, *Ceanothus*, *Celastrus*, *Chrysosyllum*, *Euonymus*, *Fagara*, *Ilex*, *Phyllica*, *Prinos*, *Rhamnus*, *Rhus*, *Sambucus*, *Schinus*, *Sideroxylon*, *Tomex*, and *Viburnum*.

(323.) 44. **SEPIARIÆ**, 8 genera; viz. *Chionanthus*, *Fraxinus*, *Jasminum*, *Ligustrum*, *Nyctanthus*, *Olea*, *Phillyrea*, and *Syringa*.

(324.) 45. **UMBELLATÆ**, 46 genera; viz. *Ægopodium*, *Æthusa*, *Ammi*, *Anethum*, *Angelica*, *Apium*, *Arctopus*, *Artedia*, *Astrantia*, *Athamanta*, *Bubos*, *Bunium*, *Bupleurum*, *Cachrys*, *Carum*, *Cercalis*, *Chærophyllo*, *Cicuta*, *Conium*, *Coriandrum*, *Crithmum*, *Cuminum*, *Daucus*, *Echinophora*, *Eryngium*, *Ferula*, *Hasselquistia*, *Heracleum*, *Hydrocotyle*, *Imperatoria*, *Laserpitium*, *Lithicum*, *Oenanthe*, *Pastinaca*, *Peucedanum*, *Pseudandrium*, *Pimpinella*, *Sanicula*, *Scandix*, *Selinum*, *Seseli*, *Sison*, *Sium*, *Smyrnium*, *Thapsia*, and *Tordylium*.

(325.) 46. **HEDERACEÆ**, 6 genera; viz. *Aralia*, *Celastrus*, *Hedera*, *Panax*, *Vitis*, and *Zanthoxylum*.

(326.) 47. **STELLATÆ**, 23 genera; viz. *Anthofragmum*, *Asperula*, *Coffea*, *Cornus*, *Crucianella*, *Diosma*, *Galium*, *Hedyotis*, *Houstonia*, *Ixora*, *Lacca*, *Lippia*, *Oldenlandia*, *Ophiorrhiza*, *Parvula*, *Phyllis*, *Psychotria*, *Richardia*, *Rubia*, *Sherrardia*, *Spermacoe*, *Spigelia*, and *Valantia*.

(327.) 48. **AGGREGATÆ**, 26 genera; viz. *Albina*, *Boerhaavia*, *Brunia*, *Cephalanthus*, *Chiococca*, *Circæa*, *Conocarpus*, *Dipsacus*, *Globularia*,

Hartogia, *Hebenstretia*, *Knautia*, *Leucodendron*, *Linnaea*, *Lonicera*, *Loranthus*, *Mitchella*, *Morinda*, *Morinda*, *Protea*, *Scabiola*, *Selago*, *Statica*, *Triosteum*, *Valeriana*, and *Viscum*.

(328.) 49. **COMPOSITÆ**, 105 genera; viz. *Achillea*, *Ageratum*, *Ambrosia*, *Amellus*, *Anacyclus*, *Andryala*, *Anthemis*, *Arctium*, *Arctotis*, *Arnica*, *Artemisia*, *Aster*, *Athanasia*, *Atractylis*, *Baccharis*, *Bellis*, *Bidens*, *Bupthalmum*, *Cacalia*, *Calea*, *Calendula*, *Carduus*, *Carlina*, *Carpesium*, *Carthamus*, *Catananche*, *Centaurea*, *Chondrilla*, *Chrysanthemum*, *Chrysocoma*, *Chrysogonum*, *Cichorium*, *Cineraria*, *Conyza*, *Coreopsis*, *Corymbium*, *Cotula*, *Crepis*, *Cynara*, *Doronicum*, *Behinops*, *Elephantopus*, *Erigeron*, *Erioccephalus*, *Ethulia*, *Eupatorium*, *Filago*, *Geropogon*, *Gnaphalium*, *Gontheria*, *Gundelia*, *Helenium*, *Helianthus*, *Hieracium*, *Hyoseris*, *Hypocherris*, *Isula*, *Iva*, *Kuhnia*, *Lactuca*, *Lapsana*, *Leontodon*, *Leysera*, *Matricaria*, *Melampodium*, *Micropus*, *Mülleria*, *Onopordum*, *Osmitea*, *Osteospermum*, *Othoana*, *Parthenium*, *Pectis*, *Perdicium*, *Picris*, *Polymnia*, *Prenanthes*, *Pteronia*, *Rudbeckia*, *Santolina*, *Scolymus*, *Scorzonera*, *Senecio*, *Seriola*, *Seriphium*, *Serratula*, *Sigesbeckia*, *Silphium*, *Solidago*, *Sonchus*, *Sphaeranthus*, *Stachelina*, *Stoebe*, *Strumpfia*, *Tagetes*, *Tanacetum*, *Tarchonanthus*, *Tetragonotheca*, *Tragopogon*, *Tridax*, *Tussilago*, *Verbesina*, *Xanthium*, *Xeranthemum*, and *Zinnia*.

(329.) 50. **AMENTACEÆ**, 13 genera; viz. *Betula*, *Carpinus*, *Corylus*, *Cynomorium*, *Fagus*, *Juglans*, *Myrica*, *Pistacia*, *Platanus*, *Populus*, *Quercus*, *Salix*, and *Sloanea*.

(330.) 51. **CONIFERÆ**, 7 genera; viz. *Cupressus*, *Ephedra*, *Equisetus*, *Juniperus*, *Pinus*, *Taxus*, and *Thuja*.

(331.) 52. **COADUNATÆ**, 6 genera; viz. *Annona*, *Liriodendron*, *Magnolia*, *Michelia*, *Uvaria*, and *Xylopia*.

(332.) 53. **SCABRIDÆ**, 13 genera; viz. *Acnida*, *Bosca*, *Cannabis*, *Cecropia*, *Celtis*, *Dorstenia*, *Ficus*, *Humulus*, *Morus*, *Parietaria*, *Theligonum*, *Ulmus*, and *Urtica*.

(333.) 54. **MISCELLANÆ**, 21 genera; viz. *Achyranthes*, *Amaranthus*, *Cedrela*, *Celosia*, *Coriaria*, *Corrigiola*, *Datiscia*, *Empetrum*, *Gomphrena*, *Iresine*, *Lemna*, *Limeum*, *Nymphæa*, *Phytolacca*, *Pistia*, *Poterium*, *Reseda*, *Sanguisorba*, *Sarracena*, *Swietenia*, and *Telephium*.

(334.) 55. **FILICES**, 15 genera; viz. *Acrostichum*, *Adiantum*, *Asplenium*, *Blechnum*, *Hemiontis*, *Isoetes*, *Lonchitis*, *Marileia*, *Onoclea*, *Ophioglossum*, *Osmunda*, *Pilularia*, *Polypodium*, *Pteris*, and *Trichomanes*.

(335.) 56. **MUSCI**, 11 genera; viz. *Bryum*, *Buxbaumia*, *Fontinalis*, *Hypnum*, *Lycopodium*, *Mnium*, *Phascum*, *Polytrichum*, *Porcella*, *Sphagnum*, and *Splachnum*.

(336.) 57. **ALGÆ**. This order comprehends the whole class of sea weeds, and some other aquatic plants, but the genera have not yet been accurately enumerated.

(337.) 58. **FUNGI**, 11 genera; viz. *Agaricus*, *Boletus*, *Byssus*, *Clathrus*, *Clavaria*, *Elvela*, *Hydnum*, *Lycoperdon*, *Mucor*, *Peziza*, and *Phallus*.

(338.) **DUBII ORDINIS** genera are about 120. See *Linnaei Frag. Method. Nat.*

(339.) We shall conclude with two examples of the systematic methods of describing plants: by giving, 1. a description of a plant, according to the *natural* character, from the *Genera Plantarum*; and 2. according to the *essential* character, with the several species, from the *Systema Vegetabilium*, translated by the Litchfield Society.

(340.) PAPAVER, POPPY.

NATURAL CHARACTER.

CALYX. A perianthium two-leaved, ovate, emarginate; *leaflets* subovate, concave, obtuse, deciduous.

COROLLA. Petals four, roundish, flat, expanding; large, narrower at the base, less alternately.

STAMINA. Filaments numerous, capillary, much shorter than the corolla: *anthera* oblong, compressed, erect, obtuse.

PISTILLUM. Germ roundish, large; *stylus* none; *stigma* peltate, flat, radiated.

PERICARPIMUM. A capsule crowned with the large flat stigma, unilocular, semi-multi-unilocular, gaping at the top under the crown with many apertures.

SEMINA. Seeds, numerous, very small; *receptacles*, longitudinal folds, of equal number with the rays of the stigma adhering to the sides of the pericarpium.

(341.) ESSENTIAL CHARACTER.

PAPAVER. Corolla four-petal'd, calyx two-leav'd, capsule one-celled, gaping with pores under the permanent stigma. Poppy.

* *With hispid capsules.*

1 P. HYBRIDUM. Capsules subglobular, brawny, hispid; stem leafy, many-flower'd. *mule*.

2 P. ARGEMONE. Capsules club'd, hispid, stem leafy, many-flower'd.

3 P. ALPINUM. Capsules hispid, scape one-flower'd, naked, hispid, leaves twice feather'd. *alpine*.

4 P. NUDICAULE. Capsules hispid, scape one-flower'd, naked, hispid, leaves simple, feather-sinuous. *naked stem*.

** *With smooth capsules.*

5 P. RHOEAS. Capsules smooth, globular, stem hairy, many-flower'd, leaves feather-cleft, gash'd.

6 P. DUBIUM. Capsules oblong, smooth, stem many-flower'd, with bristles appress'd, leaves feather-cleft, gash'd. *dubious*.

7 P. SOMNIFERUM. Calyx and capsules smooth, leaves stem-clasping, gash'd. *somniferous*.

8 P. CAMBRICUM. Capsules smooth, oblong, stem many-flower'd, polish'd, leaves feather'd, gash'd.

9 P. ORIENTALE. Capsules smooth, stem one-flower'd, rugged, leafy, leaves feather'd, saw'd. *oriental*.

(342.) To enable the young botanist to understand the various technical terms here used, as well as to consult more extensive works upon the Science, we subjoin the following GLOSSARY. N.B. Words not inserted in the GLOSSARY, will be found fully explained in the preceding Treatise, upon consulting the INDEX.

(343.) GLOSSARY of BOTANICAL TERMS.

A

Abbreviatum perianthium, a shortened cup, when the cup is shorter than the tube of the flower.

Abortiens flol, a barren flower, such as produces no fruit.

Ahrupta folia pinnata, winged leaves, ending with out either foliole or cirrus.

Acaulis, without stalk or stem.

Acerosa folia, chaffy leaves, when they are linear and abiding.

Acicularis, needle-shaped.

Acinaciform, falchion or scimeter-shaped.

Acini, the small berries of a mulberry or bramble.

Acotyledones, plants whose seeds have no cotyledons or seminal leaves.

Aculei, prickles, fixed in the surface of the bark.

Aculeatus caulis, a stalk or stem furnished with prickles.

Acuminatum folium, a leaf ending in a point.

Acutum folium, a leaf terminating in an acute angle.

Adnatum folium, the disk of the leaf pressing close to the stem of the plant.

Adpressum folium, the disk of the leaf pressed to the stem.

Ascendens caulis, or *ramus*, a stalk or branch inclining upwards.

Adversum folium, an opposite leaf.

Ala, wings, the side petals of a papilionaceous blossom, or membranes added to a seed, stalk &c.

Alated, winged.

Alatus petiolus, the footstalk of a leaf winged with membranes.

Albumen, the white substance that lies between the inner bark and the wood of trees.

Alterni rami folia, leaves that come out singly and follow alternately in gradual order.

Alveolated, deeply pitted; resembling a honey-comb.

Amentum, a thong, or a catkin.

Amplexicaule folium, a leaf embracing the stalk when the base of the leaf embraces the sides of the stem.

Anceps caulis, a double edged stalk, i.e. compressed, and forming two opposite acute angles.

Ancipitous, two-edged.

Angulatus caules, an angulated stalk.

Angustifolius, narrow-leaved.

Angiospermia, plants whose seeds are covered with a capsule.

Annua radix, an annual root; that which lives but one year.

Anthera, the summit of the stamen.

Apertura, an opening in some species of anther.

Apetalous, having no petals or corolla.

Apex, the top or summit.

Aphyllous, destitute of leaves.

Apophysis, an excrescence from the receptacle of the musci.

Appendiculatus petiolus, a little appendage hanging from the extremity of the foot-stalk.

Appressed, approaching to the stem.

Approximata folia, leaves growing near each other.

Arbor, a tree.

Arboreus, arboreous; of the nature of a tree producing buds.

Arbustiva, a copse of shrubs or trees.

Arcuatum legumen, a curved or bent pod.

Arista, the beard of corn or grasses.

- Articulatus caulis*, a stem with knots or joints.
Articulus culmi, the straight part of the stalk between the two joints.
Asurgentia folia, leaves first bent down, but rising erect towards the apex.
Attenuatus pedunculus, a foot-stalk that grows smaller towards the flower.
Adnatus calyx, an augmented flower cup, having a series of distinct leaves, shorter than its own, that surround its base.
Arenia folia, leaves which have no visible veins.
Aviculatum folium, an ear-shaped leaf, when the leaf towards the base has a lobe on each side.
Axillaria folia, leaves growing out of the angles formed by the branches and the stem.

B

- Berla*, a beard, a species of pubescence, sometimes on the leaves of plants.
Berbata folia, leaves terminated by a bunch of strong hairs.
Bicapsular, having two capsules.
Biennis radix, a biennial root, which continues to vegetate two years.
Bifaria folia, leaves pointing two ways.
Bifera planta, leaves that flower twice a year.
Bifidum folium, a leaf divided into two parts.
Biforus pedunculus, a foot-stalk bearing two flowers.
Biseminum folium, a forked foot-stalk, with two little leaves on the apex of each division.
Bisugum folium, a winged leaf bearing two pair of foliola.
Biabiata corolla, a corolla with two lips.
Bilobatum folium, a leaf consisting of two lobes.
Bisectum folium, a digitate leaf, consisting of two foliola.
Bipartitum folium, a leaf divided into two segments.
Bisinnatum folium, a double winged leaf, when the folioles of a pinnate leaf are also pinnate.
Bisectum folium, a leaf where there are 3 folioles on a petiole, and each foliole is ternate.
Brachææ, consisting of two valves.
Brachiatæ caulis, a stem branching in pairs; each pair standing at right angles with those above and below.
Brachium, the arm, the 10th degree in the Linnæan scale for measuring plants, being 24 Parisian inches.
Bractæatus, having a bractea growing out of it.
Bulbiferus caulis, a stalk bearing bulbs, as in *lilium bulbiferum*.
Bulbosa radix, a bulbous root.
Bellatum folium, a leaf whose surface rises above the veins, so as to appear like blisters.

C

- Caducus calyx*, a flower cup that falls off at the first opening of the flower.
Calcaratus, resembling a spur.
Caliculatus calyx, a little calyx added to a larger one.
Calyptra, a veil or covering.
Campanulata corolla, a bell-shaped flower.
Canaliculata folia, leaves having a deep channel running from the base to the apex.
Capillare folium, a capillary leaf.
Capillaris pappus, hairy down.
Capillus, hair, the first degree of the Linnæan scale.

- for measuring plants; the diameter of a hair, and the 12th part of a line.
Capitati flores, flowers collected into heads.
Capitulum, a little head, a species of inflorescence, in which the flowers are connected into close heads on the tops of the peduncles, as in *gomprena*.
Capreolus, a tendril.
Capsula, a little chest or capsule.
Carina, a keel, the lower petal of the papilionaceous corolla.
Carinatum folium, a leaf whose back resembles the keel of a ship.
Carnosum folium, a fleshy leaf.
Cartilagineum folium, a leaf whose brim is furnished with a margin of different substance from the disk.
Caryophyllæus flos, a flower growing like a carnation.
Catenulata scabrities, a species of glandular roughness, hardly visible, resembling little chains, on the surface of some plants.
Caudex, the stem of a tree.
Caulescens, having a stalk or stem.
Caulina folia, leaves growing immediately on the stem.
Caulis, a stem, a species of trunk.
Cernuus, nodding or hanging down the head.
Cespitose, plants which produce many stems from one root, and form a surface of turf or sod.
Ciliatum, ciliated, with the margin guarded by parallel bristles, formed like the eye-lash.
Circinalæa folia, leaves within the bud, rolled spirally downward.
Circumscissa capsula, a capsule cut transversely.
Cirrhiferus pedunculus, a peduncle bearing a tendril.
Cirrhosum folium, a leaf that terminates in a tendril.
Cirrhus, a clasper, or tendril.
Classis, a class, defined by Linnæus to be an agreement of several genera in the parts of fructification, according to the principles of nature distinguished by art.
Clavatus petiolus, or *pedunculus*, a foot-stalk with the leaf or flower club-shaped, tapering from the base to its apex.
Clavicula, a little key, or tendril.
Clausæ corolla, a corolla with its neck close shut in with valves.
Coarctati rami, branches close together.
Cochleatum legumen, a pod like the shell of a snail, as in *medicago*.
Coloratum folium, a leaf of any colour different from green.
Columnella, a little column, the substance that passes through the capsule, and connects the several partitions and seeds.
Columniferæ, pillar shaped.
Coma, a bush, a species of fulcrum, composed of large bractææ, which terminate the stalk.
Communis gemma, the common contents of the bud, both flower and fruit.
Communis calyx, a common flower cup containing both receptacle and flower.
Comosa radix, a bulbous root with fibres resembling hair.
Compactum folium, a leaf of a compact and solid substance.

Completus flos, a complete flower, having a perianthium and corolla.

Compositus caulis, a compound stem, diminishing as it ascends.

Compositum folium, a compound leaf, when the petiole bears more than one leaf.

Compressum folium, a leaf resembling a cylinder compressed on the opposite sides.

Concavum folium, a hollowed leaf, the margin forming an arch with the disk.

Conceptaculum, a receiver.

Conduplicatum folium, a leaf doubled together, when the sides are parallel, and approach.

Conferti rami, branches crowded together.

Confertus verticillus, a species of inflorescence, wherein flowers and leaves are crowded, and formed into whorls round the stalk.

Confluentia folia, leaves flowing together, as in the pinnated leaf, when the pinnæ run into one another.

Conglobatus flos, a flower collected into a globular head.

Conglomerati flores, flowers irregularly crowded together.

Congesta umbella, flowers collected into a spherical shape.

Conica scabrities, a species of cetaceous scabrities, formed like cones, scarce visible, on the surface of plants.

Coniferae, plants bearing cones.

Conjugatum folium, a pinnated leaf, where the folioles come by pairs.

Connata folia, two opposite leaves united at their base, so as to have the appearance of one leaf.

Connivens corolla, a corolla wherein the apices of the petals converge so as to close the flower.

Conniventes antheræ, antheræ approaching together.

Continuatum folium, a continued leaf, or one which appears to be a continuation of the substance of the stalk.

Contrariae valvule, contrary valves, *i. e.* when the dissepimentum is placed transversely between them.

Convexum folium, a leaf rising from the margin to the centre of the leaf.

Convolutus cirrhus, a tendril twining in the same direction with the sun's motion.

Convolutum folium, a leaf rolled up like a scroll.

Cordatum folium, a heart-shaped leaf.

Cordiformis, shaped like a heart.

Corolla, a wreath or little crown.

Corollula, a little corolla.

Corona seminis, a crown adhering to many kinds of seeds serving them as wings, which enables them to disperse.

Cortex, the outer rind or bark.

Crenatum folium, a notched leaf.

Crispum folium, a curled leaf, when the circumference becomes larger than the disk admits of.

Cristatus flos, a flower with a tufted crest.

Cruciated flowers, } cross shaped flowers, consist-

Cruciformes flores, } ing of 4 petals disposed in the form of a cross.

Cubitus, a cubit, the 9th degree of the Linnæan scale for measuring plants, from the elbow to the extremity of the middle finger, or 17 Parisian inches.

Cucullata folia, leaves rolled up lengthways in the form of a cone.

Culmen, the top or crown of any thing.

Culmus, a reed or straw, the stem of a grass.

Cuneiforme folium, a wedge-shaped leaf.

Cuspidatum folium, a leaf whose apex resembles the point of a spear.

Cymbiformis corolla, a flower of the form of a cup.

Cylindracea spica, a spike in the form of a cylinder.

Cymbiform, keel-shaped.

D

Dadaleum folium, a leaf whose texture is remarkably beautiful.

Debilis caulis, a weak, feeble stalk.

Decaphyllus calyx, a calyx consisting of ten leaves.

Decidua folia, leaves that fall off in winter.

Declinatus caulis, a stalk bending towards the earth.

Dyscompositum folium, when a petiole once divided connects many folioles.

Decumbens, lying down.

Decurrens folium, a leaf running down, is applied to the base of a sessile leaf extending itself downwards along the stem, beyond the proper termination of the leaf.

Decursive folium pinnatum, a pinnated leaf, wherein the bases of the foliole are continued along the sides of the petiolus.

Decussata folia, } leaves growing in pairs, and

Decussated leaves, } opposite to each other.

Deflexus ramus, a branch bent a little downwards.

Deflorata stamina, stamina that have shed their farina.

Defoliatio, the falling of the leaves.

Deltoides folium, a leaf like the Greek Δ.

Demersa folia, leaves sunk in the water.

Dentata folia, leaves having horizontal points of the same consistence with the leaf, and standing at a little distance from each other.

Dependens folium, a leaf pointing towards the ground.

Depressum folium, a leaf pressed down, when the sides rise higher than the disk.

Dichotomi caules, forked stalks, when the divisions come by two and two.

Disotyledones, plants whose seeds have two cotyledons, that are the placenta of the embryo plant, and afterwards the seed leaves.

Didymæ antheræ, twin antheræ, *i. e.* when they occur by two on each filament.

Didynamia, the superiority of two.

Disformia folia, leaves on the same plant of different forms.

Diffusi caules, the branches of a stalk spread different ways.

Digitatum folium, a fingered leaf, *i. e.* when the apex of a petiole connects many folioles.

Dimidiatum, halved.

Dipetalous, consisting of two petals.

Diphyllous, consisting of two leaves.

Distus, a disk, the middle part of a radiate compound flower.

Dispermous plants, plants producing their seeds by two.

Dissecta folia, leaves cut into divisions.

Dissepimentum, a partition of the fruit, which divides the pericarpium into cells.

Distichæ filique, a pod that bursts with elasticity.

Distans

Disans verticulus, a species of inflorescence, where-
in the whorls of verticillate flowers stand at a
great distance from one another.

Disticha folia, leaves in two rows, on two sides
of the branches only.

Divercati rami, branches standing wide from
each other in different directions.

Divergentes rami, branches widening gradually.

D. lani, the 7th degree in the Linnæan scale for
measuring the parts of plants, or nine Parisian
inches.

Dolabratis, 9 inches long.

Dolabriforme folium, a leaf resembling an ax.

Dorsalis arista, an awn, fixed to the back of the
gluma.

Dra, a pulpy pericarpium.

Duplica radix, a double root, a species of bulbous
root, consisting of two solid bulbs.

Duplicato serratum folium, a leaf sawed double,
with lesser teeth within the greater.

E

Eira, without a bractea.

Ectodonta corolla, a corolla without a tail or spur.

Echinatum pericarpium, a pod beset with prickles,
like a hedge-hog.

Efflorescentia tempus, the time of efflorescence,
when a plant shews its first flowers.

Eliptical, resembling an oval.

Emarginated, terminated by a notch.

Enervia folia, leaves having no apparent nerves.

Ennepetala corolla, a flower consisting of 9 petals.

Enodis, having no knots or joints.

Ensatæ, plants having sword-shaped leaves.

Esformia folia, leaves shaped like a two-edged
sword, tapering towards the point.

Epiphyllispermous, bearing the fruit on the back
of the leaf.

Equitancia folia, leaves rising, i. e. when their
sides approach so, that the outer embrace the
inner.

Erectus, upright, perpendicular.

Erosion folium, a gnawed leaf, i. e. when the mar-
gin appears as if it were gnawed or bitten.

Erecta stamina, stamina standing forth, when
they appear above the corolla.

Eristipulatus, without stipulæ.

Ersucum folium, a leaf whose substance is dry.

Ectrofoliaceæ stipulæ, stipulæ growing on the out-
side of the leaves.

F

Farcum folium, a stuffed leaf.

Fasciata planta, a plant with many stalks grown
together, like a bundle.

Fascicular, consisting of fleshy parts connected to
the base without the intervention of threads.

Fascicularis radix, a bundled root, i. e. tuberous
roots growing in bundles.

Fusculata folia, bundled leaves; growing in
bunches.

Festigati pedunculi, peduncles pointed at the
apex.

Facies, } the jaws, or opening between the seg-
Faxe, } ments of a corolla, where the tube ter-
minates.

Fibrosa radix, a fibrous root.

Filamentum, from *filum*, a thread, the part that
supports the antheræ.

Filiform, thread-shaped.

Fimbriata petala; fringed petals.

Fissum folium, a leaf split half way down.

Fistulosus caulis, a hollow stem.

Flabellatum folium, a fan-shaped leaf.

Flaccidus pedunculus, the foot-stalk of a slender
flower.

Flagellum, a twig, or shoot, like a whip.

Fleshy, filled with a firm pulp.

Flexosus caulis, a stalk having many turnings or
bendings, taking a different direction at every
joint.

Floralia folia, floral leaves, that immediately at-
tend the flower.

Floralis gemma, a flower bud.

Flos, a flower.

Flosculus, a little flower.

Foliaceæ glandule, glands growing on the leaves.

Foliaris cirrus, a tendril growing from a leaf.

Foliaris gemmatio, a leaf bud.

Foliatio plantæ, the complication of the leaves,
whilst folded within the bud.

Foliatus caulis, a leafy stalk.

Folifera gemma, a bud producing leaves.

Foliolum, a little leaf, one of the single leaves, se-
veral of which united constitute a compound
leaf.

Foliosum capitulum, a leafy head, i. e. covered
with leaves amongst the flowers or tops of the
plant.

Folium, a leaf.

Folliculus, a little bag.

Fornicatum petalum, a vaulted or arched petal.

Frequens planta, a common plant, growing every
where.

Frondefcentia tempus, the season when the leaves
of plants are unfolded.

Frondosus cortex, a species of trunk composed of
a branch and a leaf blended together.

Frudefcentia tempus, the time when a plant scat-
ters its ripe seeds.

Frudefcentia, the temporary part of a vegetable
appropriated to generation, terminating the old
plant and beginning the new.

Frustranea, to no purpose.

Frustris, a shrub.

Fruticosus caulis, a shrubby stalk.

Fugacissima petala, petals of short duration.

Fuleratus caulis, a branch having a prop.

Fulcrum, a prop or support.

Furcata, forked.

Fusiform, spindle-shaped.

G

Galea, a helmet, applied to the corolla of the
class gynandria.

Galeatum labium, the lip of a flower, shaped like
a helmet.

Geminæ stipulæ, stipulæ growing in pairs.

Geminatus pedunculus, a double foot-stalk growing
from one point.

Gemmiparous, bearing buds.

Geniculatus, jointed.

Genicula, little joints.

Germen, a sprout or bud.

Gibbum folium, a leaf bunching out.

Glaber, smooth, having an even surface.

Glabrous, of a slippery nature.

Gladiata filiqua, a sword-shaped pod.

Glandule, glands, or secretory vessels.

Glandulifera scabrities, a kind of bristly roughness on the surface of some plants, on which there are minute glands at the extremity of each bristle.

Glareosi loci, gravelly places.

Glaucophyllus, an azure coloured leaf.

Globosa radix, a round root.

Globularis scabrities, a species of glandular roughness, scarce visible to the naked eye, the small grains of which are exactly globular.

Glochoides, the small points of the pubes of plants. Linnæus applies this term only to the hami triglochoides, with 3 hooked points.

Glomerata spica, flowers crowded together in a globular form.

Gluma, a husk or chaff.

Glutinosity, a slippery juice like glue or paste.

Gramina, grasses.

Granulateradices, } consisting of many little knobs,

Granulated roots, } like seeds or grain, attached to one another by small strings.

Gymnospermous, naked seeded.

Gynandria, male and female parts united.

H

Hamosa setæ, hooked bristles.

Hamus, a hook; an acuminate crooked point.

Hastata folia, leaves resembling the head of a spear.

Hemisphericus calyx, a half round flower cup.

Herba, an herb; the part of the vegetable arising from the root, terminated by the fructification, and comprehending the stem, leaf, props, and hybernacula.

Herbaceæ plantæ, perennial plants, which annually perish down to the root.

Herbaceæ cauleæ, stalks that die annually.

Hexagonus caulis, a stalk with six angles.

Hexapetalæ corollæ, flowers consisting of six petals.

Hexaphyllus calyx, a flower cup consisting of six leaves.

Hians corolla, a gaping flower.

Hirsutus, rough, hairy.

Hispidus caulis, a stalk covered with strong fragile bristles.

Holeraceæ, pot herbs.

Horizontalis flos, a horizontal flower, growing with its disk parallel to the horizon.

Hybridæ plantæ, mule plants.

Hypocrateriformis corolla, a monopetalous flower, shaped like a cup or salver.

I J

Imberbis corolla, a flower without a beard.

Imbricatus, tiled, i. e. when the scales of a stalk, or flower cup, lie over one another like tiles upon a house.

Inmutata, unaltered.

Impar, odd, applied to a pinnated leaf terminating in an odd lobe.

Inane, filled with spongy matter.

Inanis caulis, a hollow or empty stalk.

Incana folia, leaves covered with whitish down.

Incisa folia, leaves cut into irregular segments.

Incompletus flos, an imperfect flower without petals.

Incrassati pedunculi, foot-stalks that increase in thickness as they approach the flowers.

Incumbens anthera, an anthera affixed to the filament sideways.

Incurvatus caulis, a stalk bowed towards the ear.

Indivisum folium, an undivided leaf.

Inerme folium, a leaf unarmed, i. e. without prickles.

Inferus flos, a flower whose receptacle is situated below the germen.

Inflated, puffed out like a bladder.

Inflexa folia, bending inwards to the stem.

Infundibuliform, shaped like a funnel.

Insertus petiolus, a foot-stalk inserted into the stem.

Integrum folium, an undivided leaf.

Integerrimum folium, an entire leaf, whose margin is destitute of incisions.

Interfoliaceus pedunculus, a flower-stalk arising between opposite leaves.

Interrupta spica, a spike of flowers, interrupted by small clusters of flowers between the larger ones.

Interruptum folium pinnatum, the large folioles of a winged leaf, interrupted alternately by pairs of smaller ones.

Intorsion, twisting to one side.

Intrafoliaceæ stipula, stipulae growing on the inside of the leaves of a plant.

Inundata loca is applied by Linnæus to places that are overflowed only in winter.

Involucellum, a partial involucre.

Involucrum, a cover.

Involuta folia, leaves rolled in, i. e. when their lateral margins are rolled spirally inwards on both sides.

Irregularis flos, an irregular flower.

Juba, a crest of feathers.

Julus, a catkin.

K

Kernel, a seed covered with a shell.

Kidney-shaped, having a notch cut out of the base without posterior angles.

L

Labiatus flos, a lipped flower.

Lacera folia, leaves whose margin is cut into segments, as if rent or torn.

Lacinia, segments or divisions.

Laciniatum folium, a leaf cut into irregular segments.

Lactescencia, milkiness.

Lacunosa folia, leaves deeply furrowed, by the veins being sunk below the surface.

Lacustres plantæ, plants which grow in lakes.

Lævis, smooth, having an even surface.

Lamina, a thin plate, the upper expanded part of a polypetalous flower.

Lana, wool, a species of pubescence, which covers the surface of plants.

Lanatum folium, a woolly or downy leaf.

Lanceolatum folium, a lance-shaped leaf.

Lappet, the superior spreading part of a monopetalous corolla.

Laterales flores, flowers coming from the sides.

Laxus caulis, a loose or slender stalk.

Leguminous plants, plants whose seeds are inclosed in pods.

Lenticularis scabrities, a species of glandular scabrities, in the form of lentils.

Leprosus, spotted like a leopard.

Liber, the inner rind of a plant.

Lignosus caulis, a woody stem.

Lignum

Lignum, wood.

Ligulatus, } a flower whose petals are tubula-
Ligatus *flor.* } ted at the base, plain on the out-
 side, linear towards the middle, and widest at
 the extremity, in form of a bandage.

Lilium, like a lily.

Limbus, a border, the upper expanded part of a
 monopetalous flower.

Linea, a line, the second degree in the Linnæan
 scale for measuring plants; the 12th part of an
 inch.

Linearis folium, a narrow leaf, whose opposite mar-
 gins are almost parallel.

Lineata folia, leaves whose superficies are marked
 with parallel lines, running lengthways.

Lingulatum folium, a leaf shaped like a tongue.

Lobata folia, } leaves divided to the middle into
Lobæ *folia*, } parts that stand wide from each
 other, and have their margins convex.

Lobulamentum, a cell, a division of a capsula.

Lobus foliorum, the particular part of a plant to
 which the leaf is affixed.

Lenticularis, like bean meal.

Lenticulus, somewhat long.

Lignum perianthium, a long perianthium, i. e.
 when the tube of the calyx is equal in length
 to that of the corolla.

Lucidum folium, a clear shining leaf.

Lunata folia, moon-shaped leaves, round and hol-
 lowed at the base like a half moon.

Lunulatus, shaped like a crescent.

Lividus, pale, wan, or dismal.

Lyratum folium, a leaf shaped like a lyra.

M

Marcianus corolla, a flower withering on the plant.

Margo folii, the margin of the leaf.

Mariscus flor., a male flower, containing antheræ,
 but no stigma.

Marted flower, a flower gaping, but shut close
 between the lips.

Maris planta, a male plant.

Marpis, a seed vessel.

Marrow, the pith of a plant.

Membranacea folia, leaves which have no distin-
 guishable pulp between their surfaces.

Membranatus caulis, a stalk covered with thick
 membranes.

Milky plants, plants whose juices are white, red,
 or yellow.

Monocotyledones, plants whose seeds have a single
 cotyledon.

Moneria, one house.

Monopetalous, having but one petal.

Monophyllous, consisting of one leaf.

Monospermous, having one seed.

Mucaria scabrities, a species of glandular rough-
 nels on some plants, like grains of millet.

Mucronatum folium, a leaf terminating in a sharp
 point.

Mutidum folium, a leaf divided into many linear
 segments.

Multiflorous, bearing many flowers.

Multipartitum folium, a leaf divided into many
 parts.

Multiflora, plants with many pods.

Muricatus caulis, a stalk, whose surface is cover-
 ed with sharp points, like the murex.

Muricatus, without a beard or prickle.

N

Naked, without bristles or hairs.

Natans folium, a leaf which swims on the surface
 of water.

Navicularis valvula, the valve of a seed vessel re-
 sembling a ship.

Nervosum folium, a leaf whose surface is full of
 nerves or strings.

Nervous, having unconnected small vessels, like
 nerves, running from the base to the top.

Nidulantia semina, seeds in the pulp of a berry.

Nitidum folium, a bright glossy leaf.

Nucleus, a kernel.

Nudus, naked.

Nutans caulis, a nodding stalk.

O

Obcordatum petalum, a heart-shaped petal, with
 its apex downwards.

Obliquum folium, a leaf whose apex points oblique-
 ly towards the horizon.

Oblongum folium, an oblong leaf.

Obsoleta lobata folia, leaves having lobes scarce dis-
 cernible.

Obtusa folia, leaves rounded at the apex.

Obvoluta folia, leaves rolled against each other,
 when their respective margins alternately em-
 brace the straight margin of the opposite leaf.

Officinales, plants used in medicine, and kept in
 the apothecaries shops.

Operculum, a cover.

Oppositifolius, } branches and leaves that grow
Oppositi rami folia, } by pairs opposite each other.

Orbiculatum folium, a round leaf.

Orgya, a fathom, or six Parisian feet.

Ovale folium, an oval leaf.

Ovarium, the germen.

Ovatum folium, an egg-shaped leaf.

P

Pagina folii, the surface of a leaf.

Palea, chaff, a thin membrane rising from a com-
 mon receptacle, which separates the flosculi.

Paleaceus pappus, chaffy down.

Palmata radix, a handed root.

Palmatum folium, a leaf shaped like an open hand.

Palustris, marshy or fenny.

Panduriform, shaped like a guitar.

Papilionaceus, butterfly-shaped.

Papillosum folium, a leaf covered with dots or
 points like nipples.

Pappus, down.

Papulosum folium, a leaf whose surface is covered
 with pimples.

Parabolic, in form of a parabola.

Parallelum dissepimentum, the dissepiment parallel
 to the sides of the pericarpium.

Parasitica planta, plants that grow only out of
 other plants.

Partialis umbella, a partial umbel.

Partiale involucrium, a cover at the base of the
 partial umbel.

Partitum folium, a divided leaf.

Parvum perianthium, a little flower cup.

Patens, spreading.

Patulus calyx, a spreading cup.

Pauciflorous, having few flowers.

Pedalis caulis, a stalk a foot in height.

Pedatum folium, a species of compound leaf, whose
 divisions resemble the toes of a foot.

Pedicellus,

Pedicellus, a little foot-stalk.
Peduncularis cirrhus, a tendril proceeding from the foot-stalk of a flower.
Pedunculati flores, flowers growing on foot-stalks.
Pedunculus, the foot-stalk of a flower.
Peltatum folium, a leaf, in which the foot-stalk is inserted into its disk, instead of its base.
Penicilliforme stigma, a stigma in the form of a painter's pencil.
Pentagonus caulis, a five-angled stalk.
Pentapetalus, consisting of 5 petals.
Pentaphyllus, consisting of 5 leaves.
Perennial, continuing for many years.
Perfecti flores, flowers having petals; the perfect flowers of Ray, Dornesfort, and other botanists.
Perfoliatum folium, a leaf whose base entirely surrounds the stem, or through whose centre the stalk grows.
Perforati cotyledones, perforated cotyledons.
Perianthium, i. e. surrounding the flower, a species of calyx.
Pericarpium, i. e. round the fruit, a pod.
Perichetium, a circular tuft of fine hair-like leaves, surrounding the bases of the filaments in the musci and algae.
Petaliforme stigma, a stigma resembling the shape of a petal.
Petaloides flos, a flower having petals.
Petiolaris cirrhus, a tendril proceeding from the foot-stalk of a leaf.
Petiolatum folium, a leaf growing on a foot-stalk.
Petiolus, a little foot-stalk.
Pileus, a hat or bonnet; the orbicular expansion of a mushroom, which covers the fructification.
Pilosum folium, a leaf whose surface is covered with long distinct hairs.
Pinnatifidum folium, a winged leaf; applied to simple leaves whose laciniae are transverse to the rachis.
Pinnatum folium, a winged leaf.
Pixidatum folium, a kind of foliage, where one leaf is let into another by a joint.
Planipetalus, with plain flat petals.
Planum folium, a plain flat leaf.
Plicatum folium, a plaited leaf.
Plumata seta, a feathered bristle.
Plumosus pappus, a kind of soft down.
Pollex, a thumb; the length of the first joint of the thumb, or a Parisian inch.
Polycotyledones, many cotyledons.
Polygamia, many marriages.
Polygynia, many females.
Polypetalus, consisting of many petals.
Polyphyllus, consisting of many leaves.
Polypermus, containing many seeds.
Polyrachis culmus, a stalk of grass having many spikes.
Premorsa radix, a bitten root; ending abruptly.
Tristaticus calyx, a triangular flower-cup.
Procumbens, lying on the ground.
Prominulus, jetting out beyond the valves.
Pronum diffusum folium, a leaf with its face downwards.
Proprium involucreum, an involucre at the base of an umbellated flower.
Pulvum folium, a pulpy leaf.
Pulverum folium, a leaf powdered with a kind of like meal.

Punctatum folium, a leaf sprinkled with hollow dots or points.
Putamineus, like a shell.
Q
Quadrangulare folium, a leaf with 4 prominent angles in the edge of its disk.
Quadrifidum folium, a leaf divided into 4 parts.
Quadrijugum folium, a leaf having 4 pair of folioles.
Quadrilobum folium, a leaf consisting of 4 lobes.
Quadripartitum folium, a leaf consisting of 4 divisions down to the base.
Quaterna folia, verticillate leaves, having 4 in each whorl.
Quina folia, verticillate leaves by fives.
Quinatum folium, a digitate leaf with 5 folioles.
Quinquangulare folium, a leaf with 5 prominent angles in the edge of its disk.
Quinquesidum folium, a leaf consisting of 5 divisions, with linear sinuses, and straight margins.
Quinquejugum folium, a pinnated leaf with 5 pair of folioles.
Quinquelobum folium, a leaf with 5 lobes.
Quinepartitum folium, a leaf consisting of 5 divisions down to the base.
R
Rachis folii pinnati, the middle rib of a winged leaf, to which the folioles are affixed.
Radiatus flos, a species of compound flowers, in which the florets of the disk are tubular, and those of the radius ligulate.
Radicalia folia, leaves proceeding immediately from the root.
Radicans caulis, a stalk bending to the ground, and taking root where it touches the earth.
Radicata folia, leaves shooting out roots.
Radius, a ray, the ligulate margin of the disk of a compound flower.
Ramea folia, leaves that grow only on the branches, and not on the trunk.
Ramosissimi caules, stalks abounding with branches irregularly disposed.
Ramosus caulis, a stalk having many branches.
Ramus, a branch of a tree.
Reclinatum folium, a leaf bending downward.
Recurvatum folium, a leaf bent backwards.
Reflexus ramus, a branch bent back towards the trunk.
Remotus verticillus, a species of inflorescence, wherein the whorls of flowers and leaves stand at a distance from one another.
Reniforme folium, a kidney-shaped leaf.
Repandum folium, a leaf having a bending or wavy margin without any angles.
Repens caulis, a creeping stalk, either running along the ground, or on trees, or rocks, and striking roots at certain distances.
Repens radix, a creeping root extending horizontally.
Reptans flagellum, a twig creeping along the ground.
Restantes pedunculi, foot stalks remaining, after the fructification has fallen off.
Resupinatio florum, the upper lip of a flower facing the ground, and the lower lip turned upwards.
Resupinatum folium, a leaf, the lower disk of which looks upward.
Retiflexus ramus, a branch bent in different directions.

Retrofractus pedunculus, a foot-stalk bent back towards its insertion, as if it were broken.
Retusum folium, a leaf with its apex blunt.
Revolutum folium, a leaf rolled back.
Rhombum folium, a leaf whose shape nearly resembles a rhombus.
Rhomboidum folium, a leaf of a geometrical figure, whose sides and angles are unequal.
Rigidus caulis, a stiff or rigid stem.
Rinatus caulis, a stalk abounding with clefts and chinks.
Rigens, grinning or gaping.
Rosaceus flos, a flower whose petals are placed in a circle, like those of a rose.
Rostellum, a little beak.
Rotundus, like a wheel.
Rotatus limbus corollæ, a wheel-shaped flower, expanded horizontally, having a tubular basis.
Rovundatum folium, a roundish leaf.
Rufa laescentia, red milkiness.
Rubrata loca, rubbishy places.
Rugosum folium, a rough or wrinkled leaf.

S

Sagittatum, arrow-shaped.
Sarmentosus caulis, the shoot of a vine, naked between each joint, and producing leaves at the joints.
Scaber caulis, a scabby and rough stalk, having tubercles.
Scabrities, a species of pubescence, composed of particles scarce visible, on the surface of plants.
Scandens caulis, a climbing stalk.
Scariosa folia, leaves dry on the margin, that sound when touched.
Serpionides flos, a flower resembling the tail of a scorpion.
Scatellum, a species of fructification which is orbicular, concave, and elevated in the margin.
Schysifer, cup-bearing.
Secretoria scabrities, a species of glandular roughness on the surface of some plants.
Securiformis pubescentia, a species of pubescence on some plants, the bristles resembling an axe.
Semina folia, seed leaves.
Semiteres caulis, a half round stalk, flat on one side.
Serpentirens folium, an ever-green leaf.
Sua folia, leaves growing in sixes.
Succum folium, a leaf whose surface is of a soft silky texture.
Serratatum folium, a sawed leaf.
Sua folium, a leaf growing immediately to the stem, without any foot-stalk.
Sua, bristles.
Sua folia, leaves shaped like bristles.
Sua caulis, a single stem.
Sua folium, a leaf whose sides are scalloped.
Sua caulis, a solid stalk.
Sua pedunculus, a solitary flower-stalk, i. e. when only one proceeds from the same part.
Sua stipula, loose straw.
Sua, scattered without order.
Sua, like a sheath.
Sua folium, a leaf in the form of a spatula.
Sua, a spike, a species of inflorescence in grasses, resembling an ear of corn.
Sua, a little spike.
Sua, thorns or rigid prickles.
Sua, hard and pricking.

Spinosus caulis, a stalk with strong prickles, whose roots proceed from the wood of the stem, and from the surface of the bark.
Spirales cotyledones, seminal leaves twisted spirally.
Spithama, a span, or 7 Parisian inches.
Splendens folia, shining leaves.
Squamosa radix, a scaly root.
Squarrosus, rough, scaly, or scurfy.
Stamineus flos, flowers having stamina, but no corolla.
Statuminata, an order of plants in the former *Fragmenta methodi naturalis* of Linnaeus.
Stellata folia, leaves surrounding a stem like the rays of a star.
Stellata setæ, bristles arising from a centre in form of a star.
Sterilis flos, a barren flower; masculus of Linnaeus.
Stigma, a mark, the apex of the pistillum.
Stimuli, stings.
Stipitatus pappus, a kind of trunk that elevates the down and connects it with the seed.
Stipulares glandulae, glands produced from stipulae.
Stolo, a shoot, which, running on the surface of the ground, strikes root at every joint.
Striati caules, culmi, &c. channeled streaks running lengthways in parallel lines.
Strictus caulis, a straight stiff shoot.
Strigæ, ridges, or rows.
Stylus, the style, from *stylus*, a pillar.
Submersum folium, the leaf of an aquatic plant, sunk under the surface of the water.
Subramosus caulis, a stalk having few branches.
Subrotundum folium, a leaf almost round.
Subulatum folium, an awl-shaped leaf.
Suffrutex, an under shrub.
Sulcatus caulis, or culmus, a stalk deeply furrowed lengthways.
Superus flos, a flower whose receptacle stands above the germen.
Supra-axillaris pedunculus, the foot-stalk of a flower, whose insertion is above the angle formed by the branch.
Supra-decomposita folia, composite leaves which have little leaves growing on a subdivided foot-stalk.
Supra-foliaceus pedunculus, the foot-stalk of a flower inserted into the stem immediately above the leaf.
Surculus, a twig, the stalk of a moss.
Suob, a legumen, or pod.
Syngenesia, generating together.

T

Tegumentum, a cover.
Teres caulis, a cylindrical stalk.
Tergeminum folium, a leaf 3 times double, when a dichotomus petiolus is subdivided, having two foliola on the extremity of each division.
Ternata folia, leaves in whorls by threes.
Tessellatum folium, a chequered leaf, whose squares are of different colours.
Tetradynamia, the superiority of 4.
Tetragonus caulis, a square stalk.
Tetrapetalus, consisting of 4 petals.
Tetraphyllus, consisting of 4 leaves.
Tetraspermus, producing 4 seeds.
Thalamus, a bed, the receptacle.
Theca, a sheath.
Tomentosus, covered with a whitish down like wool.

Tomentum, a species of woolly or downy pubescence, covering the surface of some plants.

Torosum pericarpium, a brawny protuberance, like the swelling of the veins, when a pericarpium is bunched out by the inclosed seeds.

Torta corolla, a flower with the petals twisted.

Tortilis arista, a twisted awn.

Transversum dissepimentum, the dissepiment at right angles with the sides of the pericarpium.

Trapeziforme folium, a leaf having 4 prominent angles, whole sides are neither equal nor opposite.

Triangulare folium, a triangular leaf.

Tricocca capsula, a capsule with 3 cells, and a single seed in each.

Tricuspidated, three-pointed.

Trifidum folium, a leaf divided into 3 linear segments, having straight margins.

Triflorous, bearing 3 flowers.

Trigonus caulis, a three-sided stalk.

Tribilatum semen, a seed having three eyes.

Trijugum folium, a winged leaf, with three pairs of foliola.

Trilobum folium, a leaf having three lobes.

Trilocular, having the pericarpium divided into three loculaments.

Trinervum folium, a leaf having 3 strong nerves running from the base to the apex.

Triacia, three houses.

Tripartitum folium, a leaf divided into three parts down to the base.

Tripetalous, consisting of three petals.

Tripetaloidea, three-petalled.

Triphyllous, consisting of three leaves.

Triplinatum folium compositum, a leaf having a triple series of pinnæ, or wings.

Triplinerve folium, a leaf having 3 nerves running from the base to the apex.

Triquetrum folium, or *triquetra caulis*, a leaf, or stalk, having 3 plain sides.

Trispermous, three seeded.

Triternatum folium compositum, a compound leaf when the divisions of a triple petiolus are subdivided into threes.

Trivalve pericarpium, a pod consisting of 3 valves.

Truncatum folium, a leaf having its apex as it were cut off.

Truncus, the body or stem of a tree.

Tuberculatus, having pimples or tubercles.

Tuberculum, a little pimple.

Tuberosa radix, a knobbed root.

Tubulatum perianthium, a tubular flower.

Tubulosi flosculi, tubular florets nearly equal.

Tubus, a tube.

Tunicatu radix, a species of bulbous root, having coats lying one over another from the centre to the surface, as in the onion, &c.

Turbinatum pericarpium, a kind of pod shaped like a top, narrow at the base, and broad at the apex.

Turgidum legumen, a swollen pod.

Turiones, the young buds of pines.

V U

Vaginalis, sheathed.

Vaginans folium, a leaf like a sheath.

Valvula, a valve.

Venosum folium, a leaf whose whole surface is run over by veins.

Ventricosa spica, a spike narrowing at each extremity, and bellying out in the middle.

Ventriculosus calyx, a flower cup bellying out in the middle, but not in so great a degree as *ventricosus*.

Verrucosa capsula, a capsule having little knobs or warts on its surface.

Versatilis anthera, an anthera fixed by the middle on the point of the filament, and so poised as to turn like the needle of a compass.

Verticalia folia, leaves so situated that their base is perpendicular above the apex.

Verticillated branches, flowers, or leaves; such as surround the stem, like the rays of a wheel.

Vesicula, a little bladder.

Vesicularis scabrities, a kind of glandular roughness, resembling vesicules.

Vexillum, a standard, the upright petal of a papilionaceous flower.

Villosus, covered with soft hairs.

Virgatus caulis, a stalk shooting out.

Viscidum folium, a clammy leaf.

Viscositas, clammyness.

Uliginosa loca, boggy places.

Umbelia, an umbel or umbrella.

Umbellatus flos, an umbellated flower.

Umbellula, a little umbel.

Umbilicatum folium, a leaf shaped like a navel.

Uncinatum stigma, a hooked stigma.

Undatum folium, a waved leaf, whose surface rises and falls in waves towards the margin.

Undulata corolla, a flower whose petals are waved.

Unguis, a nail, or claw; that part of a petal that is joined to the receptacle.

Unicus flos, a single flower.

Unicus radix, a single root.

Uniflorus pedunculus, a foot-stalk with 1 flower.

Unilateralis, growing on one side.

Universalis umbella, an universal umbel.

Volubilis caulis, a twining stalk.

Urceolata corolla, a pitcher-shaped flower.

Urens caulis, or *folium*, a stalk or leaf, burning or stinging, as nettles.

Utricula, a species of glandular, secretory vesicle on the surface of various plants.

W

Waved, having the disk alternately bending up and down in obtuse plaits.

Wedge-shaped, growing narrower towards the base.

Whirl, or } leaves, flowers, &c. surrounding a stalk
Whorl, } or trunk at the joints in great numbers.

I N D E X.

[N.B.—The BOTANICAL TERMS, not inserted here, are explained in the GLOSSARY.]

A.
EGYPT, an Arabian writing in it, 17.

ACTUARIUS, an ancient botanist, 16.

ÆSTIVATION defined, 101.

AFFINITAS explained, 115.

AGGREGATÆ, order of, 267. genera in it, 327.

AGGREGATÆ

AGGREGATE FLOWERS defined, 84, and distinguished, 85.
 ALDROVANDUS, an eminent botanist, 21.
 ALGÆ, class of, 276, 336.
 ALGÆ, order of, 130, 132. genera in it, 200.
 ALPINUS, an eminent botanist, 21.
 ALSTON, Dr, adopts Tournefort's system, 43.
 AMENTACEÆ, order of, 169. genera, 329.
 AMENTUM described, 140.
 ANAGORAS, an ancient botanist, 11. his notion of plants, 11.
 ANDROGYNOUS plants defined, 113.
 ANGIOSPERMIA defined, 124.
 ANTHERÆ described, 150.
 APPENDIX to the classes, 132, 133. genera in it, 200.
 AQUATIC PLANTS described, 131, 134.
 ARABIAN botanists, 16.
 ARABS, their method of fecundating palm trees, 74.
 AVILLUS defined, 168.
 AEMA defined, 82.
 ASPERIFOLIÆ, order of, 260. genera, 320.
 AVERROES, } ancient writers
 AVICENNA. } on botany, 16.
 AXILLARES described, 94.
 B.
 BACCA described, 162.
 BARBARUS, H. comments on Dioscorides, 18.
 BAUHIN, two eminent botanists, 21.
 BERNES, order of, 237. genera in it, 297.
 BERT complete Morison's work, 22.
 BOEHMER adopts Ludwig's method, 39.
 BOERHAAVE, Dr, account of his system of botany, 32, 33.
 BONTIUS, a botanical author, 21.
 BOTANICAL SYSTEMS, accounts of various, 12, 15, 19, 20, 25—48.
 BOTANY defined, 1, and described, 2. utility of, 3—10. history of, 11—24. systematic, 25. systems of, 25—48. sexual system of, 49—218.
 BOUC, H. his arrangement of plants, 10.
 BRACTEÆ defined, 82.
 BRADLEY adopts the sexual system, 57.
 BUDS defined, 109.
 BULBOUS plants, 108.
 BULBS defined, 108. and distinguished, ib.

C.
 CÆSALPINUS, Dr, invents an improved botanical arrangement, 26. account of it, 25. mentions the sexes of some plants, 52.
 CALAMARIÆ, order, 222. genera in it, 282.
 CALCULATION, Knaut's strange method of, 40.
 CALYCANTHEMÆ, order of, 236. genera in it, 296.
 CALYCIFLORÆ, order of, 135. genera, 295.
 CALYCISTÆ defined, 47.
 CALYPTRA described, 143.
 CALYX described, 137. its various names, 138—144. how to distinguish it, 145.
 CAMERARIUS favours the sexual system, 55.
 CAPITULUM defined, 88.
 CAPSULA described, 156.
 CARYOPHYLLÆ, order of, 241. genera, 301.
 CATKIN defined, 146.
 CATO, an ancient botanist, 14.
 CAUDEX described, 79.
 CAULIS defined, 80.
 CHARACTERS, generic, established, 37.
 CHIVES described, 148.
 CIRRHUS defined, 82.
 CLASSES of plants, table of the; 115. farther description and distinction of them, 116—122. figures of them explained, 134. natural classes, 220—278.
 CLASSIFICATION of plants first proposed, 19. attempted, 20. improved, 25. perfected, 47. foundation of Linnæus's, 111—114. his natural method, 219.
 COADUNATÆ, order of, 271. genera, 331.
 COLUMELLA, an early writer on botany, 14.
 COLUMNÆ, F. an improver of botany, 21.
 COLUMNIFERÆ, order of, 256. genera, 316.
 COMMENTATORS, botanical, 18.
 COMPOSITÆ, order of, 168. genera, 328.
 COMPOUND flowers defined, 121.
 CONCEPTACULUM described, 159.
 CONIFERÆ, order of, 270. genera, 330.
 CONTORTÆ, order of, 249. genera, 309.
 CORCULUM described, 165.
 COROLLA described, 146.
 COROLLISTÆ defined, 47.
 CORONARIÆ, order of, 229. genera, 289.
 CORONULA described, 169.
 CORYDALES, order of, 243. genera, 303.

CORYMBUS explained, 90.
 COTYLEDONS described, 166.
 CRYPTOGAMIA class, 115. orders in it, 130, 132. and genera, 199.
 CUCURBITACEÆ, order of, 253. genera, 313.
 CULMUS defined, 80.
 CYMA defined, 85, 172.
 CYMOUS aggregate flower defined, 85.

D.

DALECHAMP comments on Pliny, 18. publishes a history of plants, 21.
 DECANDRIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 185.
 DIANDRIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 177.
 DIADELPHIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 192.
 DICLINIA defined, 115.
 DIDYNAMIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera 189.
 DIFFINITAS explained, 115.
 DICYNIA defined, 123.
 DILLENIIUS adopts Ray's method, 29. and Tournefort's, 43.
 DIOECIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 197.
 DIOSCORIDES, an ancient botanist, 13. his arrangement of plants, ib. his work translated, 18. was acquainted with the sexes of some plants, 51.
 DODECANDRIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 186.
 DRUPA described, 160.
 DUBIUS ORDO, 278, 338.
 DUMOSÆ, order of, 262. genera, 322.

E.

ELVEBEMES follows Tournefort's plan, 43.
 EMPEDOCLES, his notion of the sensation of plants, 51.
 EMSTING adopts Boerhaave's method, 33.
 ENDECANDRIA, order, 132.
 ENNEANDRIA class, 115. orders in it, 132, 184. systematic description of a plant under it, 211.
 ENSATÆ, order of, 225. genera in it, 285.
 ESSENCE of a plant, 135.
 EXPERIMENTS of Linnæus, 61—73.

EXPLANATIONS of plates, 116, 131, 134, 201, 202, 209.

F.

FALUOI describes Tournefort's system in verse, 42.
 FEMALE flowers defined, 112. and female plants, 113.
 FILAMENTS described, 149.

FILICES, class of, 274. genera, 334.
FILICES, order of, 132. genera, 200.
FLOSCULOSE flowers defined, 121.
FLOSCULI explained, 121.
FLOWERS defined, 84. and distinguished, ib. 85—97, 112, 122.
FOLLICULUS described, 158.
FOOD, botany useful in choosing vegetable, 4—8.
FRAGARIA described, 174.
FRONDES defined, 220.
FRUCTIFICATION defined, 83. and described, 135—172.
FRUCTISTÆ defined, 47.
FULCRA described, 82.
FUNGI, class of, 277. genera, 337.
FUNGI, order of, 130. genera, 200. still a chaos, 218.

G.

GAZA translates Theophrastus, 18.
GEMEINHART adopts Rivinus's method, 37.
GEMMATION defined, 99.
GENERA of plants, parts that distinguish, 135—175. arranged under their classes and orders, 176—200. under the natural orders, 279—338.
GEOFFROY favours the sexual system, 57.
GERMEN described, 152.
GESNER comments on Dioscorides, 18. proposes a new method of arrangement in botany, 19.
GLANVIL, Barth. an ancient English botanist, 17.
GLOSSARY, 343.
GLUMA described, 142.
GRAMINA, class of, 223. genera, 283.
GREW, Dr, gives the first notice of the sexual system, 54.
GRUINALES, order of, 233. genera, 293.
GYMNOSPERMIA defined, 124.
GYNANDRIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 195.

H.

HABIT of plants defined, 98. its circumstances, 99—106.
HASSELQUIST, Dr, extract of his letter to Linnæus, 74.
HEBENSTREIT establishes generic characters, 37.
HECKER adopts Rivinus's method, 37.
hederaceæ, order of, 265. genera, 312.
 his division of
 re flowers de-

B O T A N Y.

defined, 112; and hermaphrodite plants, 113, 114.
HEPTANDRIA class, 115. orders in it, 132, 185.
HERNANDEZ, a writer on botany, 21.
HERODOTUS's account of the treatment of the palm tree, 49.
HESPERIDÆ, order of, 238. genera, 298.
HETERODOX systems of botany, 47.
HEUCHER completes Rivinus's system, 36.
HEXANDRIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 181.
HILL, Sir J. his classification of plants, 46.
HILUM defined, 167.
HIPPOCRATES acquainted with the sexes of some plants, 51.
HOLERACEÆ, order of, 251. genera, 291.
HYBERNACULUM defined, 107. and distinguished, ib.—109.
HYBRID plants, 217.
 J. I.
JATROPHA URENS, experiment on the, 67.
ICOSANDRIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 187. example of a plant in it, 174.
INFLORESCENCE defined, 84. and distinguished, ib. 85—97.
INUNDATÆ, order of, 234. genera, 294.
INVOLUCRUM defined, 85, 139.
JUSSIEU, M. adopts the sexual system, 57.
 K.
KNAUT, Christian, his whimsical system, 40.
KNAUT, Christopher, his division of plants, 30.
KOENIG adopts Rivinus's method, 37.
KRAMER follows Rivinus's plan, 37.
 L.
LEAVES defined, 81. and distinguished, ib.
LEE, Mr James, quoted, 124, 209, 212, 218.
LEGUMEN described, 158.
LINNÆUS, Sir Charles, his opinion of Knaut's method, 40. his division of all former systems and their patrons, ib. introduces the sexual system, 47. forms another system upon the calyx, 48. his experiments in proof of the sexual system, 61—73. his natural method, 219—278.
LOMENTACEÆ, order of, 252. genera, 312.
LUDWIG, C. adopts Rivinus's system, 37, 39.

INDEX.

LURIDÆ, order of, 247. genera, 307.
LUXURIANT flowers defined and distinguished, 96.
 M.
MAGNOL, P. account of his system, 45.
MALE flowers defined, 112. and male plants, 113.
MARCGRAVE, an eminent botanist, 21.
MEDICAGO, phenomena of the, 218.
MEDICINE, botany useful in, 9, 10.
MILLINGTON, Sir T. the first discoverer of the sexual system, 54.
MILNE's account of the fecundation of a female turpentine tree, 75.
MISCELLANÆÆ, order of, 173. genera, 33.
MONADELPHIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 191.
MONANDRIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 176.
MONOCLINIA defined, 115.
MONOECIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 196.
MONOGAMIA order, 127.
MONOGYNIA defined, 123.
MORELAND adopts the sexual hypothesis, 56.
MORISON, Dr, restores scientific arrangement, 20. his method, 22. imperfect, 23. account of his system, 26.
MULE plants, 61, 217.
MULTIPLICATE FLOWERS defined, 96.
MULTISILIQUÆ, order of, 245. genera, 305.
MUSA, Ant. an ancient botanical author, 14.
MUSCI, class of, 275. genera, 335.
MUSCI, order of, 130, 132. genera, 200.
MUTILATUS FLOS explained, 97.
MYLIUS, Mr, his account of the fecundation of a palm tree, 76.
 N.
NATURAL METHOD of classification, 219, 278. the genera arranged according to it, 279—338.
NECTARIUM described, 147. various kinds of, ib.
NETTLE described, 175.
NEUTER flowers defined, 112.
NISSOLE, M. adopts Tournefort's plan, 42.
NUPTIALS of plants, 103, 115.
NUX defined, 170.

INDEX.

O.

OCTANDRIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 183.
ORCHIDÆ, order of, 226. genera, 286.
ORDERS of plants described, 115—130. table of them, 132. natural orders, 220—278.
ORTHODOX systems of botany, 47.

P.

PALMÆ, class of, 220. genera in it, 280.
PALMÆ, order of, 132. genera, 200.
PALM TREES, the sexes of, known to the ancients, 49. Arabian method of fecundating, 74. account of one rendered prolific at Berlin, 76.
PANICLES described, 93.
PAPAVER described, 340.
PAPILIONACEÆ, order of, 251. genera, 311.
PAS, DU, or } his singular method of arrangement, 21.
PASSÆUS, }
PEDUNCLES defined, 82.
PENTANDRIA class, 115. genera in it, 180.
PERIANTHIUM defined, 138.
PERICARPIMUM described, 155. its distinctions, 156—163.
PERSONATÆ, order of, 259. genera, 319.
PETIOLUS explained, 82.
PIPERITÆ, class of, 221. genera in it, 281.
PISO, an eminent botanist, 21.
PISTILLUM described, 151. its parts, 152—154.
PLACENTATION defined, 105.
PLANT, definition of a, 78.
PLANTS, parts of described, 77—144. 135—175.
PLATEARIUS, a botanical author, 17.
PLATES explained, 116, 134, 201, 202, 209.
PLATO APULEIUS, a writer on botany, 16.
PLENUS FLOS explained, 96.
PLINY, account of his botanical work, 15. commentators on it, 18. his notion of sexes, 52.
PLUMIER, F. describes American plants, 42. improves Tournefort's system, 44.
PLUMULA defined, 165.
POLYADELPHIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 193.
POLYANDRIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 188.
POLYGAMIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 198.
POLYGAMIÆ, orders of, distinguished, 127.

B O T A N Y.

POLYGAMOUS plants distinguished, 113, 114.
POLYGYNIA order, 132, 174.
POMACEÆ, order of, 255. genera, 315.
POMUM described, 161.
PONTEDERA adopts Tournefort's system, 43. but makes alterations in it, 44. opposes the sexual plan, 58.
PORTA, his peculiar mode of arrangement, 21.
PRECIÆ, order of, 240. genera, 300.
PROLIFER, FLOS, explained, 96.
PROPAGO defined, 171.
PROPS defined, 82.
PUBES explained, 82.
PUTAMINEÆ, order of, 244. genera, 304.
PYTHAGORAS, an ancient botanist, 11.

R.

RACEMUS explained, 92.
RACHIS defined, 172.
RADICULA, described, 79.
RAY's system, 27. remarks on it, 28. his followers, 29. he illustrates the sexual system, 55.
RECEPTACLES described and distinguished, 85, 172.
RHÆADEÆ, order of, 246. genera, 306.
RHAZIS, an Arabian botanist, 16.
RHEEDE, Mr, author of Hortus Malabaricus, 21.
RHEUM PALMATUM, described, 211.
RIVINUS, A. Q. a great improver of botany, 34. his method, 35. its advantages, 36. his followers, 37—40.
ROOT described, 79.
ROSTELLUM defined, 165.
ROTACEÆ, order of, 239. genera, 299.
RUDBECKIUS, jun. adopts Herman's system, 31.
RUPPIUS, B. his method of arrangement, 38.

S.

SARMENTOSÆ, order of, 230. genera in it, 290.
SCABRIDÆ, order of, 272. genera, 332.
SCAPUS defined, 80.
SCITAMINEÆ, order of, 227. genera, 287.
SEEDS, } defined, 164. described and distinguished, 165—171.
SEMINA, }
SEMINATION defined, 104.
SENTICOSÆ, order of, 254. genera, 314.
SEPIARIÆ, order of, 263. genera, 322.

SERAPION, the earliest Arabian botanist, 16.
SERRE, M. DE LA, experiment made in his garden, 75.
SEXES of plants, 112—114.
SEXUALISTÆ defined, 47.
SEXUAL SYSTEM, history of the, 49—57. proofs of its truth, 58—76. account of it, 77—218.
SHERARD, Dr, adopts Tournefort's system, 42.
SLEEP of plants, 100.
SLOANE, Sir Hans, adopts Ray's method, 29.
SILICULA described and distinguished, 157.
SILICULOSA defined, 125.
SILIQUA distinguished, 157.
SILIQUOSA, order of, 125.
SILIVOSÆ, class of, 258. genera, 318.
SLEEP of plants described, 100.
SOLOMON the most ancient botanist we know of, 11.
SPADICEOUS aggregate described, 85.
SPADIX defined, 85, 172.
SPATHA described, 141, 172.
SPATHACEÆ, order of, 228. genera, 288.
SPECIES of plants defined, 203. how to investigate them, ib. 208, 209. specimen of the application of the terms, 204—207. the species as numerous as at the creation, 208.
SPECIFIC differences of plants, 208, 209. example, 211.
STAMINA described, 148—150.
STELLATÆ, order of, 266. genera, 326.
STIGMA described, 154.
STIPES defined, 80.
STIPULÆ described, 82.
STRAWBERRY described, 174.
STROBILUS defined, 163.
STYLE described, 153.
SUCCULENTÆ, order of, 232. genera, 292.
SYNGENESIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 194.
SYLVATICUS, M. a writer on botany, 17.
SYSTEMS of botany, account of various, 20, 25—46, 48. heterodox and orthodox, 47. sexual, 49—218.

T.

TABLES of the classes, 115. and orders, 132.
TERMINALES explained, 95.
TETRADYNAMIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 190.
TETRAGYNIA explained, 123.
TETRANDRIA class, 115. orders in it, 132. and genera, 179.
H h 2 THALIUS,

THALIUS, and } eminent Ger-
THEODORE, } man botanists,
21.

THEOPHRASTUS, the most an-
cient botanist extant, 12. his
arrangement of plants, *ib.* ac-
quainted with the sexes of
some plants, 51.

THYRSUS defined, 91.

TORTION defined, 102.

TOURNEFORT, his system of bo-
tany, 41. his followers, 42,
43. he opposes the sexual sys-
tem, 58.

TRAGUS, his botanical arrange-
ment, 19.

TRIANDRIA class, 115. orders in
it, 132. and genera, 178.

TRICOCCÆ, order of, 257. ge-
nera, 317.

TRIGYNIA explained, 123.

TRILOBATÆ, order of, 242. ge-
nera, 302.

B O T A N Y.

TRIOECIA order of, 132.

TRIPETALOIDÆ, order of, 224.
genera, 284.

TRUE RHUBARB described, 211.

TRUNKS described, 80.

TULIPS, Linnæus's method of
variegating, 61.

TURPENTINE TREE, fecunda-
tion of a female, 75.

V. U.

VAILLANT forwards the sexual
system, 57.

VALENTIN, C. and M. adopt
Tournefort's system, 43.

VARIATION defined, 106.

VARIETIES of plants defined,
106, 212. causes of them, 212
—217. how to rank them un-
der their species, 218.

VARRO, an ancient botanist, 14.

VEPREULÆ, order of, 250. ge-
nera, 310.

VERNATION defined, 100.

INDEX.

VERTICILLATÆ, order of, 261.
genera, 321.

VERTICILLUS defined, 87.

VEXILLUM defined, 120.

VIRGIL, an early writer on bo-
tany, 14.

UMBELLATÆ, order of, 264. ge-
nera, 324.

UMBELS defined, 85, 172.

VOLVA described, 144.

URTICA described, 175.

W.

WATSON, Dr, Mr Mylius's let-
ter to, 76.

WEDEL follows Ludwig's plan,
39.

WELSCH, adopts Rivinus's me-
thod, 37.

Z.

ZALUZIANSKI, an eminent bo-
tanist, 21.

ZAMBAC publishes Dr Herman's
system, 31.

B O T

BOTANY BAY, a bay of New South Wales,
situated on the E. coast of New Holland, so na-
med by Capt. Cook, from the great variety of
plants he found on the shore. It was originally
fixed on for a colony of convicts from Britain; but
afterwards Port Jackson, 15 m. farther N. was
preferred. See HOLLAND, NEW.

(1.) * BOTARGO. *n. f.* [*botarga*, Span.] A
relishing sort of food, made of the roes of the
mullet fish; much used on the coasts of the Me-
diterranean, as an incentive to drink. *Chambers.*

(2.) BOTARGO is a kind of sausage. The best
kind comes from Tunis in Barbary: It must be
chosen dry and reddish. The inhabitants of the
ci-devant province of Provence use a great deal of
it. The common way of eating it is with olive
oil and lemon juice. There is also a great con-
sumption of it throughout the Levant.

BOTARY, an ancient parish of Aberdeenshire,
now constituting a part of CAIRNY.

BOTACRISIA, in ichthyology, a name given
by Bellonius, Gesner, and other authors, to that
species of the GADUS called by authors the *lota*,
and *muscula fluviatilis*; by us, the eel-pout. It is
distinguished from the other *gadi*, by having two
fins on the back, and the two jaws of equal length,
with beards at the mouth.

BOTAURUS, in ornithology, a name by which
several authors have called the bittern.

* BOTCH. *n. f.* [*bozza*, pronounced *botza*, Ital.]

1. A swelling or eruptive discoloration of the
skin—

Time, which rots all, and makes *botches* pox,
And, plodding on, must make a calf an ox,
Hath made a lawyer. *Donne.*

Botches and blains must all his flesh imbods,
And all his people. *Milton.*

It proves far more incommodious, which, if it
be propelled in boils, *botches*, or ulcers, as in
curvy, would rather conduce to health. *Har-*

B O T

vey. 2. A part in any work ill finished, so as to
appear worse than the rest.—

With him,

To leave no rubs or *botches* in the work,
Fleance, his son, must embrace the fate. *Shake.*

3. An adscitious, adventitious part clumsily ad-
ded.—If both those words are not notorious *botches*,
I am deceived, though the French translator
thinks otherwise. *Dryden.*

A comma ne'er could claim

A place in any British name;

Yet, making here a perfect *botch*,

Thrusts your poor vowel from his notch. *Swift.*

* TO BOTCH. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To
mend or patch clothes clumsily.—Their coats,
from *botching* newly brought are torn. *Dryden.*

2. To mend any thing awkwardly.—

To *botch* up what th' had torn and rent,

Religion and the government. *Hudibras.*

3. To put together unsuitably, or unskilfully; to
make up of unsuitable pieces.—

Go with me to my house,

And hear thou there, how many fruitless pranks
This ruffian hath *botch'd* up, that thou thereby
May smile at this. *Shakef.*

Her speech is nothing,

Yet the unshaped use of it doth move
The hearers to collection; they aim at it,
And *botch* the words up fit to their own thoughts.

Shake.

For treason *botch'd* in rhyme will be thy bane;
Rhyme is the rock on which thou art to wreck.

Dryden.

4. To mark with botches.—

Young Hylas, *botch'd* with stains too foul to
name,

In cradle here renews his youthful frame. *Garth.*

* BOTCHER. *n. f.* [from *botch*.] A mender of
old clothes; the same to a taylor as a cobbler to a
shoemaker.—He was a *botcher's* prentice in Paris,
from

from whence he was whipt for getting the sheriff's fee with child. *Shakes.*—

Butchers left old cloaths in the lurch,
And fell to turn and patch the church. *Hudibras.*
BOTCHESTON, a village in Leicestershire.

* BOTCHY. *adj.* [from *botch*.] Marked with
crotches.—

And those boils did run—say so—Did not the
general run?

Were not that a *botchy* core? *Shakes.*

(1.) * BOTE. *n. f.* [*bote*, Sax. a word now out
of use.] 1. A compensation or amends for a man
dead, which is bound to another. *Cowel.* 2. It
was used for any payment.

(2.) BOTE. See MAN-BOTE.

BOTELESS, *adj. obj.* bootless; without reme-
dy. In the charter of Hen. I. to Thomas, Abp.
of York, it is said, "that no judgment, or sum
of money, shall acquit him that commits sacrilege;
but he is in English called *boteless*, viz. without
expiation."

ROTELLUS, or BUTELLUS, in writers of the
middle age, a small vessel for wine. Hence our
word BOTTLE.

BOTENALKAITOS, a star in the constella-
tion CERUS, called also BATENKETOS.

BOTEREIUS, Rodolphus, advocate in the
Grand Council of Paris, was author of the *Histo-*
ry of Henry IV, in Latin, from 1594 to 1610; in
3 volumes. Mr Bayle is at a loss to determine
whether his French name was *Boterays*, *Boterey*,
or *Boateroue*, &c.

BOTERO, or BOTERUS, John, a native of
Braz in Piedmont, and tutor to the princes of Sa-
voy, the sons of D. Charles Emanuel, was author
of several works in Italian, on Politics, History
and the Government and Forces of several states
of Europe. He died in 1608.

BOTERON. See BOTRYS.

BOTESCARL, *n. f. obj.* a boatswain.

BOTESDALE, a village in Suffolk, near Red-
grave, 1½ m. from Bury.

BOTESTOCK. See BOSTOCK.

BOTETOURT, a large mountainous county
in Virginia, bounded on the N. by the Fluvanna,
which separates it from Rock and Bath counties;
on the N. W. by Green-brier; on the E. by Bed-
ford; S. by Franklin, and S. W. by Montgomery.
Fayette is the chief town. It abounds with
chalk. It is 44 m. long and 40 broad; and con-
tains 9,167 free inhabitants, and 1,259 slaves.

(1.) * BOTH. *adj.* [*batu*, *batua*, Sax.] The
two; as well the one as the other. *Et l'un &*
l'autre, Fr. It is used only of two.—And the
next day, *both* morning and afternoon, he was
capt by our party. *Sidney.*—Moses and the pro-
phets, Christ and his apostles, were in these times
preachers of God's truth; some by word, some
by writing; some by *both*. *Hooker.*—

Which of them shall I take?

But one? or neither? neither can be enjoy'd,
If *both* remain alive. *Shakes.*

Two lovers cannot share a single bed;

As therefore *both* are equal in degree,

The lot of *both* he left to destiny. *Dryden.*

A Venus and a Helen have been seen,

Both perjur'd wives, the goddess and the queen.
Granville.

(2.) * BOTH. *conj.* [from the adjective.] As
well: it has the conjunction *and* to correspond
with it.—A great multitude *both* of the Jews *and*
also of the Greeks believed. *Acts.*—

Pow'r to judge *both* quick *and* dead. *Milton.*

Both the boy was worthy to be prais'd,

And Stimichon has often made me long,

To hear, like him, so sweet a song. *Dryden.*

(3.) BOTH, Andrew, and } Flemish painters,

(4.) BOTH, John, } and both pupils of

Bloemart. The union of these brothers was very
singular: they were inseparable in their studies,
travels and paintings. John painted landscapes in
the manner of Lorrain, and Andrew figures and
animals in the style of Baniboche. They both
died in 1650. John's taste is elegant; his com-
position beautiful; and his execution rich and
masterly, though his light is not always well dis-
tributed. His landscapes are reckoned among the
best extant.

BOTHIA, in old records, a booth or tent.

BOTHAGIUM, boothage, customary dues to
the lord of the market, for the liberty of pitching
booths or tents.

BOTHALL, two villages, viz. 1. in Northum-
berland, near Morpeth: 2. in Staffordshire, N.
of Pagets Bromley.

BOTHEL, a village in Cumberland, between
Cockermouth and Wigton.

BOTHEMSHALL, in the High Peak of Derby.

BOTHENA, BOTHNA, or BUTHNA, in the Scots
law, a park or field wherein cattle are inclosed, and
fed. It is also used for a lordship, or sheriffdom.

BOTHENDEN, the ancient name of BOWDEN.

BOTHENWOOD, a village in Dorsetshire,
near Winborne Minster.

(1.) BOTHER, *adj. obj.* belonging to both. *Ch.*

(2.) BOTHER, *n. f.* an eruption; a pustule.

BOTHERTON, a village in Cheshire.

BOTHKENNAR, a parish of Scotland, in
Stirlingshire, a mile and a half long and equally
broad, containing about 1248 acres, all cultiva-
ted. It is intersected by the Carron, and washed
on the E. by the Forth. The soil is fertile, and
produces large crops of oats, wheat, grass, &c.
The population, in 1793, as stated by the rev. Mr
Dickson, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was a-
bout 600, and had on the whole increased 71 with-
in the last 40 years, though it had sustained a de-
crease of 130 within 10 years preceding. There
are 12 orchards in the parish, which produce
much fruit.

BOTHNA. See BOTHENA.

BOTHNIA, a province of Sweden, at the end
of the gulph of Bothnia. It is divided into two
parts, viz.

1. BOTHNIA, EAST, belonging to Finland: and

2. BOTHNIA, WEST, a mountainous country.
It is sandy, and yet a scarcity of provisions is
seldom known. Cattle and game are common;
salmon and herrings plentiful, and the trade of
skins gainful; so that the inhabitants can com-
mand what they want from their neighbours. The
principal towns are Tornea and Uma. The inha-
bitants of this province are Protestants; and are
civil and well behaved.

BOTHRIAS, or } [*bothriov*,] 1. the ALVEOLUS

BOTHRIION, } or socket of a tooth. 2. A
small

small, narrow, but deepish ulcer of the cornea of the eye, resembling a round puncture.

BOTHUMSAL, a village in Nottinghamshire, N. W. of Tuxford.

(1.) **BOTHWELL**, an ancient barony and parish of Scotland, in Lanarkshire, extending from the Clyde to West Lothian, about $8\frac{1}{2}$ m. in length, and 4 in breadth. It is of an oval form, lies at a medium about 300 feet above the level of the sea, and is all arable, there being neither moss, moor, nor morafs in its whole extent. The soil in general is good, though clayey, and the climate healthy. It is watered by the Clyde and the S. and N. Calders. Wheat, oats, barley, grass, and potatoes are the chief produce. Coals and free-stone are the only minerals. The population, in 1794, as stated by the rev. Mr M'Culloch to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2707; and had increased 1146, within the last 40 years. There are 4 villages, 5 bridges, 6 corn and 2 lint mills, and a bleachfield in the parish. The church is a very ancient structure, and before the reformation was a provostry, with very great endowments. A particular account of its provosts and clergy, is given in the *Stat. Acc. Vol. XVI. p. 322*. The parish is ornamented with much wood.

(2.) **BOTHWELL**, a village in the above parish, (N. 1.) containing with its out farms, &c. 425 inhabitants, in 1794. It is seated on a hill, which commands one of the most beautiful inland prospects in Scotland.

(3.) **BOTHWELL BRIDGE**, an ancient bridge of 4 arches over the Clyde, in the above parish, (N. 1.) memorable for an engagement fought on the S. side of it, in 1679, between the royalists under Monmouth, and the Whigs; wherein the latter, being deceived by the hopes of pacific measures, were defeated, with the loss of 400 slain, and 1200 taken prisoners.

(4.) **BOTHWELL CASTLE**, a very ancient and magnificent structure now in ruins, adjacent to the village, (N. 2.) originally built of polished stones of a red colour. The ruins still occupy a space of 234 feet by 99; but much of it was taken down by the E. of Forfar to build a modern house. The stair of one of its highest towers is still almost entire. This tower is an immense height above the Clyde. Bothwell castle once made a figure in Scottish history.

(5.) **BOTHWELL HAUGH**, a district in the above parish, (N. 1.) about a mile above the bridge, (N. 3.) memorable for having been the property of James Hamilton, who shot the E. of Murray, then regent, at Linlithgow, in 1570.

(1.) **BOTIA**, or **BOTUS**, among chemists, a glass vessel with a round belly and long narrow neck, otherwise called **CUCURBITA**, and **URINALE**.

(2.) **BOTIA**, in medicine, the same with **STRUMÆ**, and **SCROPHULÆ**.

BOTIN, or **BUTINE**, among alchemists, turpentine gathered under the proper influence.

BOTLEY, the name of 4 English villages: viz. 1. in Berkshire, W. of Oxfordshire: 2. in Chesham, Bucks: 3. in Hampshire, 4 m. S. of Bush-Waltham; and 4. in Surry, near Fangrove.

BOTOLPH, ST, in Lincolnshire, N. of Boston.

BOTOLPH'S BRIDGE in Huntingdonshire.

BOTONES,

BOTONTINI, or

BOTONTONE,

} in middle age writers
mounts or hillocks, raised
to serve as land marks
boundaries of grounds.

BOTOTOE, in natural history, a name given by the people of the Philippine islands to a beautiful bird of the parrot kind. It is somewhat smaller than the common parrot, and all over a fine deep blue colour.

BOTRIPHNE, a parish of Scotland, in Banffshire, 24 m. from Banff, extending about $4\frac{1}{2}$ from N. to S. and 3 from E. to W. It is a level country situated between 2 hills, and watered by the river Illa. The soil is chiefly a black loam. Barley, oats and flax are the principal produce. Black cattle and oat meal are exported to the Firth of Forth. The population in 1793, as stated by the rev. Mr Angus, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 620; and had decreased 333, since 1754, owing to the enlargement of farms. Servitudes are not yet abolished, which, with short leases, greatly retard improvements.

BOTRITES. See **BOTRYITES**, N. 2.

BOTRUS. See **BOTRYS**.

(1.) **BOTRYITES**, in natural history, a **GRAPE-STONE**, [from *Botrys*, a grape,] a stone of the gem kind, resembling a branch of young grapes.

(2.) **BOTRYITES**, or **BOTRITES**, a sort of **BUTYRACADIA**, found somewhat in the form of a bunch of grapes adhering to the upper parts of furnaces where the mineral is calcined. It differs from **PLACITES**, which is gathered on the lower part of the furnace; though Schroeder gives a different distinction, viz. into *botrites*, found in the middle of the furnace, *placites* in the upper, and *ostreocites* in the lowest part.

* **BOTRYOID**. *adj.* [*βοτρυοειδής*.] Having the form of a bunch of grapes.—The outside is thickly set with *botryoid* efflorescencies, or small knobs yellow, bluish, and purple; all of a shining metallic hue. *Woodward*.

BOTRYS, **BOTRUS**, or *Bostra*, a town in Phœnicia, on the Mediterranean, built by Saturnus 12 miles N. of Byblus, and 20 S. of Tripolis. It is now almost in ruins, and called **BOTERON**, **BOTURN**. Lon. 37. 30. E. Lat. 34. 6. N.

BOTRYTIS, in botany. See **BYSSUS**.

(1.) * **BOTS**. *n. f.* [*without a singular.*] A species of small worms in the entrails of horses; answering, perhaps, to the *ascarides* in human intestines.—Pease and beans are as dank here as a dog, and that is the next way to give poor jades *bots*. *Shakespeare*.

(2.) **BOTS**. See **BOTTS**.

BOTSBOROUGH, a town in Cornwall.

BOTSEY, a village in Huntingdonshire.

BOTSFIELD, in Salop, 5 m. from Shrewsbury.

BOTSFORD, two villages in Leicestershire: viz. 1. in Belvoir vale: 2. near Normanton.

BOTSHAM HALL, 7 m. from Cambridge.

(1.) **BOTT**, among bone-lace weavers, a round cushion of light matter placed on the knee, whereon they weave their lace with bobbins, &c.

(2.) **BOTT**, Thomas, a learned divine, born at Derby, in 1688. His grandfather was a magistrate during the republic, and Thomas was educated

1557. Walther represents him as an able mathematician, and a collector of rarities; and says that he was possessed of a cabinet, which the emperor Ferdinand II. had a great desire to purchase. He died in 1609.

BOTTRYS, a species of **CHENOPODIUM**.

BOTTS, or **BOTS**, in zoology, a species of short worms, produced and nourished only in the intestines of a horse; where alone they can enjoy the proper temperature of heat, and receive the nourishment necessary for them. See **OESTRUS**. All authors, ancient and modern, who have treated of the diseases of horses, have taken notice of these worms; but M. Vallisnieri is the first who has traced them to the last stage of their transformation, and has seen them change into a hairy kind of fly like the drone. The flies from which these botts are produced inhabit the country, and do not come near houses, at least not near those of great towns; and therefore horses are never liable to have them in their bottles, if they have been kept in the house, especially in a town, during the summer and autumn. It is in summer chiefly that the females of these flies apply themselves to the anus of horses, and endeavour to gain admittance, in order there to deposite their eggs, or perhaps their worms. The precise instant of their entrance will scarce admit of an eye-witness, but by the merest chance; yet M. Vallisnieri says, that Dr Gaspari had attained this very uncommon sight. The Doctor, he says, was one day looking at his mares in the field; and from being very quiet, he observed, that on a sudden they became very restless, and ran about in great agitation, prancing, plunging, and kicking, with violent motions of their tails. He concluded, that these extraordinary effects were produced by some fly buzzing about them, and endeavouring to settle upon the anus of one of them; but the fly not being able to succeed, he observed it to go off with less noise than before, towards a mare that was feeding at a distance from the rest; and now the fly taking a more effectual method to obtain its design, passed under the tail of the mare, and so made its way to the anus. Here at first it occasioned only an itching; by which the intestine was protruded with an increasing aperture of the anus; the fly taking the advantage of this, penetrated farther, and secured itself in the fold of the intestine;—this effected, it was in a situation proper for laying its eggs. Soon after this, the mare became very violent, running about, prancing, and plunging, and throwing herself on the ground; in which she was not quiet, nor returned to feeding, after a quarter of an hour. Thus the fly deposite its eggs, or perhaps its botts, in the fundus of the horse; which once effected, it has all that is necessary for them. If these botts are not hatched when first deposited in the fundus, but are then only eggs, it will not be long before they are hatched; from the nutritive heat they receive. These botts soon make their way into the intestines of the horse; they occupy such parts as are to them most convenient; and sometimes penetrate even to the stomach. All the harm they appear to be exposed to, is that of being driven away from the places they have fixed by the excrement, which may seem likely to drive

thoroughly fine before it be bottled. For want of this, some leave the bottles open a while, or open them after two or three days bottling to give them vent. If one bottle break, through fermentation, it is best to give them all vent, and cork them up again. Mean cyder is apter to break the bottles than rich. Some soak the corks in scalding water, to render them more pliant and serviceable. Another particular to be observed is, to lay the bottles so as that liquor may always keep the cork wet and swelled. Something also depends on the place where the bottles are set, which ought to be such as exposes them as little as possible to the alterations and impressions of the air: the ground is better for this purpose than a frame; sand better than the bare ground, and a running water, or a spring often changed, best of all. To hasten the ripening of bottled liquors, they are sometimes set in a warm place, or even exposed to the sun, when a few days will bring them to maturity.

* **BOTTOM.** *n. f.* [*botm*, Sax. *bodem*, Germ.]

1. The lowest part of any thing. 2. The ground under the water.—

Shallow brooks that flow'd so clear,

The *bottom* did the top appear. *Dryden.*

3. The foundation; the ground-work.—On this supposition my reasonings proceed, and cannot be affected by objections which are far from being built on the same *bottom*. *Atterbury.* 4. A dale; a valley; a low ground.—

In the purheus stands a sheep-cote,

West of this place; down in the neighbour *bottom*. *Shakespeare.*

—On both the shores of that fruitful *bottom*, are still to be seen the marks of ancient edifices. *Addison on Italy.*—Equal convexity could never be seen: the inhabitants of such an earth could have only the prospect of a little circular plain, which would appear to have an acclivity on all sides; so that every man would fancy himself the lowest, and that he always dwelt and moved in a *bottom*. *Bentley.* 5. The part most remote from the view; the deepest part.—His proposals and arguments should with freedom be examined to the *bottom*, that, if there be any mistake in them, no body may be misled by his reputation. *Locke.* 6. Bound; limit.—

But there's no *bottom*, none,

In my voluptuousness. *Shakespeare.*

7. The utmost extent or profundity of any man's capacity, whether deep or shallow.—I will fetch off these justices: I do see the *bottom* of Justice Shallow: how subject we old men are to lying! *Shakespeare.* 8. The last resort; the remotest cause; first motion.—He wrote many things which are not published in his name; and was at the *bottom* of many excellent counsels, in which he did not appear. *Addison.* 9. A ship; a vessel for navigation.—

A bawbling vessel was he captain of,

With which, such scathful grapple did he make
With the most noble *bottom* of our fleet. *Shak.*

My ventures are not in one *bottom* trusted;

Nor to one place. *Shakespeare.*

—We have memory, not of one ship that ever returned, and but of thirteen persons only, at seven-

ral times, that chose to return in our *bottoms*. *Bacon.*—

He's a foolish seaman,

That, when his ship is sinking, will not

Unlade his hopes into another *bottom*. *Danb.*

—He puts to sea upon his own *bottom*; holds the stern himself; and now, if ever, we may expect new discoveries. *Norris.*—

He spreads his canvas, with his pole he steers,

The freights of sitting ghosts in his thin *bottom* bears. *Dryden.*

10. A chance; an adventure; state of hazard.—He began to say, that himself and the prince were too much to venture in one *bottom*. *Clarendon.*—

We are embarked with them on the same *bottom*, and must be partakers of their happiness or misery. *Spectator.* 11. A ball of thread wound up together.—This whole argument will be like *bottom* of thread close wound up. *Bacon.*—Silkworms finish their *bottoms* in about fifteen days. *Mort.*—

Each Christmas they accounts did clear,

And wound their *bottom* round the year. *Prim.*

12. **BOTTOM** of a lane. The lowest end.

13. **BOTTOM** of beer. The grounds, or dregs.

(1.) * **TO BOTTOM.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To

build upon; to fix upon as a support: with *on*.—

They may have something of obscurity, as being

bottom'd upon, and fetch'd from the true nature

of the things. *Hale.*—Pride has a very strong founda-

tion in the mind; it is *bottomed upon* self-love.

Collier.—The grounds *upon* which we *bottom* our

reasoning, are but a part; something is left out,

which should go into the reckoning. *Locke.*—Ac-

tion is suppoed to be *bottomed upon* principles.

Atterbury. 2. To wind upon something; to twine

thread round something.—

Therefore, as you unwind your love for him,

Lest it should ravel, and be good to none,

You must provide to *bottom* it on me. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) * **TO BOTTOM.** *v. n.* To rest upon as a

support.—Find out upon what foundation any

proposition advanced, *bottoms*; and observe the

intermediate ideas, by which it is joined to that

foundation upon which it is erected. *Locke.*

* **BOTTOMED.** *adj.* [from *bottom*.] Having a

bottom; it is usually compounded.—There being

prepared a number of *flat-bottomed* boats, to trans-

port the land-forces, under the wing and protec-

tion of the great navy. *Bacon.*

* **BOTTOMLESS.** *adj.* [from *bottom*.] With-

out a bottom; fathomless.—Wickedness may well

be compared to a *bottomless* pit, into which it is

easier to keep one's self from falling, than being

fallen, to give one's self any stay from falling in-

nitely. *Sidney.*—

Is not my sorrow deep, having no bottom?

Then be my passions *bottomless* with them. *Shakespeare.*

Him the Almighty pow'r

Hurl'd headlong, flaming from th' etherial sky,

To *bottomless* perdition. *Milton.*

(1.) * **BOTTOMRY.** *n. f.* [in navigation and

commerce.] The act of borrowing money on a

ship's bottom; that is, by engaging the vessel for

the repayment of it, so as that, if the ship mis-

carry, the lender loses the money advanced; but

if it arrives safe at the end of the voyage, he is to

repay

repay the money lent, with a certain premium or interest agreed on; and this on pain of forfeiting the same. *Harris.*

BOTTOMARY is allowed to be a valid contract with all trading nations, for the benefit of commerce, and by reason of the extraordinary hazard run by the lender. The ship and tackle, if brought home, are answerable, as well as the person of the borrower, for the money lent. But if the loss is not upon the vessel, but upon the goods or merchandize, which must necessarily be sold or exchanged in the course of the voyage, then the borrower, personally, is bound to answer the contract; who, therefore, in this case, is said to take up the money at *respondentia*. These laws are also applied to contracts for the repayment of money borrowed; not on the ship and tackle, but on the mere hazard of the voyage itself. When a man lends a merchant 1000*l.* to be employed in a beneficial trade, with condition to be repaid with extraordinary interest, in case such a voyage be safely performed; which kind of agreement, is sometimes called *fœnus nauticum*, and sometimes *usuria maritima*. But as this gave an opportunity for usurious and gaming contracts, especially upon long voyages, it was enacted by the Stat. 19 Geo. II. c. 37. that all monies lent on bottomry, or at *respondentia*, on vessels bound to or from the East Indies, shall be expressly lent either upon the ship; or upon the merchandize; that the lender shall have the benefit of salvage; and that if the borrower has not on board effects to the value of the sum borrowed, he shall be responsible to the lender for so much of the principal as hath not been laid out, with legal interest and all other charges, though the ship and merchandize be totally lost.

BOTTOMY. A cross bottomy, in heraldry, terminates at each end in 3 buds, knots, or buttons, resembling, in some measure, the three-leaved grass; on which account Segoin, in his *Trat. Heraldique*, terms it *croix trefle*. It is the badge of the order of St Maurice. See HERALD-
RY, Plates.

BOTTRIGARO, Hercules, a person eminently
 skilled in music, though not a musician, was a
 man of rank in Bologna, and had the title of *Count*.
 He published several controversial pieces on music.
 He retained strong prejudices in favour of the
 ancient music; and attempted to introduce the
 dramatic genus into practice, but with no better
 success than Vincentius and others had done. He
 corrected Gogavino's Latin version of Ptolemy in
 numberless instances, to so good purpose, that Dr
 Wallis has in general conformed to him, in his
 translation of it. He also translated into Italian
Books de Musica, with as much of Porphyry and
 Macrobius as relates to music: and made a com-
 ment upon Aristoxenus, Praetorius, Gassano, Vi-
 centino, Zarlino, Galilei, and almost every musi-
 cal treatise he could lay his hands on: as appears
 by the copies which were once his, and are now
 deposited in many libraries in Italy. His works
 contain greater proofs of his learning and taste in
 music, than of his abilities as a writer: his style
 being remarkably inelegant: nevertheless he dis-
 tinguished the character of a poet; and there is extant
 a collection of poems by him, in 8vo, printed in
 Vol. IV. PART I.

1557. Walther represents him as an able mathematician, and a collector of rarities; and says that he was possessed of a cabinet, which the emperor Ferdinand II. had a great desire to purchase. He died in 1609.

BOTTRYS, a species of **CHENOPODIUM**.

BOTTS, or **BOTS**, in zoology, a species of short worms, produced and nourished only in the intestines of a horse; where alone they can enjoy the proper temperature of heat, and receive the nourishment necessary for them. See **OESTRUS**. All authors, ancient and modern, who have treated of the diseases of horses, have taken notice of these worms; but **M. Vallisneri** is the first who has traced them to the last stage of their transformation, and has seen them change into a hairy kind of fly like the drone. The flies from which these botts are produced inhabit the country, and do not come near houses, at least not near those of great towns; and therefore horses are never liable to have them in their bodies, if they have been kept in the house, especially in a town, during the summer and autumn. It is in summer chiefly that the females of these flies apply themselves to the anus of horses, and endeavour to gain admittance, in order there to deposite their eggs, or perhaps their worms. The precise instant of their entrance will scarce admit of an eye witness, but by the merest chance; yet **M. Vallisneri** says, that **Dr Gaspari** had attained this very uncommon sight. The Doctor, he says, was one day looking at his mares in the field; and from being very quiet, he observed, that on a sudden they became very restless, and ran about in great agitation, prancing, plunging, and kicking, with violent motions of their tails. He concluded, that these extraordinary effects were produced by some fly buzzing about them, and endeavouring to settle upon the anus of one of them; but the fly not being able to succeed, he observed it to go off with less noise than before, towards a mare that was feeding at a distance from the rest; and now the fly taking a more effectual method to obtain its design, passed under the tail of the mare, and so made its way to the anus. Here at first it occasioned only an itching, by which the integument was protruded with an increasing aperture of the anus; the fly taking the advantage of this, penetrated further, and secured itself in the fur of the rectum:—this effected, it was in a better posture for laying its eggs. Soon afterwards the motions became very violent, running, plunging, and kicking, and throwing up the tail. The mare, at first, was not quiet, but after some time, till after a quarter of an hour, it became quite composed, and the fly having deposite its eggs, or worms, in the rectum, the integument of the anus returned to its former situation, and all that remained was a small number of worms, which were not long in coming out of the anus, and were found before it was quite dry.

drive all before it. But they are able to maintain their situation, and to remain in the body of the horse, as long as they please. For according to M. de Reaumur's observations, they have two unequal claws, by which they are enabled to remain in the intestines of the horse in opposition to all his efforts by the excrement to force them out.—These claws are a sort of anchor, differently disposed from those of common anchors, but contrived to produce the same effect. The botts have also a great number of triangular spines or bristles, to arm them against the coats of the intestines, and to resist the force employed to drive them towards the anus, provided the head be directed towards the stomach of the horse. The mares which afforded M. de Reaumur, for several years, those botts on which he made his observations, did not appear to be less in health than those which had none; but it may sometimes happen, that they are in so great a quantity in the body of the horse as to prove fatal to him. M. Vallisnieri supposes these botts to have been the cause of an epidemical disease that destroyed a great many horses about Verona and Mantua in 1713. The observations communicated to him by Dr Gaspari sufficiently confirm his supposition. This gentleman, upon dissecting some horses that died of this distemper, found in their stomachs a surprising quantity of short worms; of which to give us some idea, he compares them to the kernels of a pomegranate opened: each of these, by gnawing on the coat of the stomach, had made to itself a kind of a cell therein, each of which would contain a grain of Indian wheat. It is easy to imagine by this means the stomach must be reduced to a wretched condition; the outer membranes were inflamed, and the inner ones ulcerated and corrupted; a very small quantity of these worms were found in the small intestines, and only a few in the larger, to which last they were found affixed, but had not corroded them. It is only perhaps when these botts are in great numbers, and thereby incommode each other in the intestines of the horse, that they make their way towards the stomach; and indeed a very few flies must be sufficient to overstock the inside of a horse, provided they should deposite all their eggs, and such should all be animated, M. Vallisnieri having counted above 700 in the body of one single fly. When one of these botts has left the anus of the horse, it falls on the ground; and immediately seeks for some place of safety, where it may retire, to prepare for the last stage of its transformation, by which it becomes a fly. And now by degrees the skin hardens and thickens; and at length forms a solid shell, the form of which scarce differs from that of the worm. It is first of a pale red colour, which changes into chesnut; and at length, by the addition of gradual and successive shades of brown, the shell is rendered black. The worm or bott, before it passes into a nymph, is of the form of an oblong ball; it remains in this form much longer than worms of the flesh-fly kind. M. de Reaumur met with worms that retained this figure five or six days; as yet, one can perceive no traces of the legs, wings, and head of a fly. Hence he first learned, that those worms do not become nymphs immediately upon

their first change; but that in order to become flies, they must undergo one change more than caterpillars ordinarily do to become butterflies.—For the cure of horses troubled with botts, see FARRIERY.

BOTULPH, ST. a village in Rutlandshire.

BOTURN. See BOTRYS.

BOTWAR, a town of Germany, in the circle of Suabia, subject to the duke of Wirtemberg; 15 m. S. of Hailbron. Lon. 9. 15. E. Lat. 49. 2. N.

BOTZEN, a town of Austria in Tirol, which was taken by the French under Gen. Buonaparte in March 1797, and retaken in April, by the Austrians under Gen. Laudon.

BOTZENBURG, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Mecklenburg. It had a castle, which was destroyed by the Danes in 1202. It is seated on the Elbe, and the vessels that pass by are obliged to pay a considerable toll. Lon. 10. 48. E. Lat. 53. 34. N.

BOVA, an episcopal town of Naples, seated near the Apennine mountains; 20 m. S. E. of Reggio. Lon. 16. 15. E. Lat. 38. 20. N.

BOVATA TERRÆ, in ancient law writers, signifies an oxgate of land, or so much as may be ploughed in a year with one ox; by some reckoned at 15 acres, by others at 18 or 20; and valued at 13s to 20s yearly rent.

BOVAUGH BRIDGE, a village of Ireland, in the county of Tyrone, Ulster.

BOUCHAIN, a fortified town of France in the department of the North, and ci-devant province of Hainault. It is divided into two parts by the river Scheld. It was taken by the French in 1675; and by the allies under the duke of Marlborough in 1711, which was the last military achievement of that great general; but the following year it was retaken by the French. It has had its share of suffering in the present war, being only 9 miles W. of Valenciennes. Lon. 3. 21. E. Lat. 50. 18. N.

BOUCHART, a town of France, in the department of Indre and Loire, situated in a small island of the river Vienne, 15 m. from Tours.

(1.) **BOUCHE,** *n. f.* {from *bouche*, a mouth, Fr. an allowance of provisions.

(2.) **BOUCHE OF COURT,** the privilege of having meat and drink at court scot-free. The word is also written *bouge*, *bouge*, and *budge*. The French long used the phrase, *Avoir bouche à la cour*; that is, *to have table or diet at court*. This privilege was sometimes only extended to bread, beer, and wine; it was anciently used in the houses of noblemen, as well as in the king's court. Thomas E. of Lancaster retained Sir John de Ewre, to serve him with 20 men at arms in time of war, allowing them *bouge of court*, with livery of hay and oats, horse shoes and nails.

BOUCHEFF, *n. f. obf.* goodness. *Cbauc.*

(1.) **BOUCHET,** John, a French poet and historian who flourished in the 16th century. The best of his writings are his *Annals of Aquitaine*, and his *Chapelet des Princes*.

(2.) * **BOUCHET.** *n. f.* [French] A sort of pear.

BOUCOTT, a down near Burton, N. Lincolshire.

* **BOUD.** *n. f.* An insect which breeds in malt; called also a *weevil*.

(1.) **BOUDRY,** a chatellany of Switzerland in the province of Neuchatel.

(2.) **BOUDRY,**

(2.) **BOUDRY** the capital of the above chatel-
lany, (N. 1.) Lon. 6. 40. E. Lat. 47. 1. N.

BOVERIA, or } *n. f.* in old records, an ox stall;
BOVERIUM, } a cow-house.

BOVERTON, a town of S. Wales in Glamor-
gshire.

BOVETHUS, *n. f.* [old law Lat.] a young ox.

BOVEY COAL, an inflammable fossil found in
England, France, Italy, Switzerland, Germany,
Ireland, &c. Its colour is brown or brownish
black, and of a laminar structure. It is compo-
sed of wood, penetrated by bitumen; and fre-
quently contains pyrites, alum, and vitriol.

BOUFFE, *n. f. obs.* a belch. *Chauc.*

(1.) **BOUFLERS**, a town of France, in the de-
partment of Oise.

(2.) **BOUFLERS**, Lewis Francis, duke of Bou-
lers, a peer and marshal of France, was born
in 1714. He distinguished himself by his valour
and conduct in several sieges and battles, and had
the command of the right wing when the French
were defeated at the bloody battle of Malplaquet.
He died at Fontainebleau in 1711.

(3.) **BOUFLERS**, marshal, the son of the Duke,
(N. 2.) is famous for having been the deliverer of
Genoa, where he died.

BOUGE. See **BOUCHE**, No. 2.

* **To BOUGE**. *v. n.* [from *bouge*, Fr.] To swell
out.

BOUGEANT, William Hyacinth, a famous
Jesuit, who first taught humanity at Caen and Ne-
vers, and afterwards settled at the college of Paris,
where he employed himself in writing several
works, particularly, 1. A collection of physical
observations, extracted from the best authors. 2.
A history of the wars and negotiations which
preceded the treaty of Westphalia. 3. The fe-
male doctor, a philosophical amusement on the
language of beasts, &c. He died in 1743.

BOUGE-RAVEL, in ichthyology, a species of
fish caught in the Mediterranean, and brought
to some of the Italian markets. Its nose is long
and pointed; its back is of a reddish blue, its
sides red, and its belly of a fine silvery white. Its
whole body is shorter and broader than the com-
mon boope. *Willughby.*

(1.) * **BOUGH**. *n. f.* [*bog*, Sax. the *gh* is mute.]
A small or large shoot of a tree, bigger than a
branch, yet not always distinguished from it.—
A vine-labourer, finding a *bough* broken, took a
branch of the same *bough*, and tied it about the
place broken. *Sidney.*

Their lord and patron loud did him proclaim,
And at his feet their laurel *boughs* did throw.

Fairy Queen.

From the *bough*

She gave him that fair enticing fruit. *Milton.*

As the dove's flight did guide Æneas, now
May thine conduct me to the golden *bough*.

Denham.

Under some fav'rite myrtle's shady *boughs*,
They speak their passions in repeated vows.

Roscommon.

See how, on every *bough*, the birds express,
In their sweet notes, their happiness. *Dryden.*

'Twas all her joy the ripening fruits to tend,
And see the *boughs* with happy burdens bend.

Pope.

(2.) **BOUGHS**, GREEN, anciently made a part
of the decoration of altars and temples, especially
on festival occasions. Oaken boughs were offered
to Jupiter; those of laurel, to Apollo; of olive,
to Minerva; myrtle, to Venus; ivy, to Bacchus;
pine, to Pan; and cypress, to Pluto.

(1.) * **BOUGHT**. *n. f.* [from *To bow*.] 1. A
twist; a link; a knot.—

His huge long tail wound up in hundred folds,
Whose wreathed *boughts* whenever he unfolds,
And thick entangled knots adown does slack.

Fairy Queen.

Immortal verse,

Such as the meeting soul may pierce,
In notes, with many a winding *bought*
Of linked sweetness, long drawn out. *Milton.*

2. A flexure.—The flexure of the joints is not the
same in elephants as in other quadrupeds, but near-
er unto those of a man; the *bought* of the fore-
legs not directly backward, but laterally, and
somewhat inward. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

(2.) * **BOUGHT**. *preter.* and *participle* of *To buy*;
which see.—

The chief were these who not for empire
fought,

But with their blood their country's safety
bought. *Pope.*

BOUGHTON, 3 English villages, viz. 1. near
Chester: 2. in Northamptonshire, 2 m. from Ket-
tering: and, 3. in Nottinghamshire, 3 m. S. W. of
Tuxfield.

BOUGHTON-MUNCHELSEY, a town in Kent.

BOUGIE, [Fr. a wax candle,] a machine, which
(as the wax candle formerly was) is introduced in-
to the urethra for removing obstructions. In 1551,
Andreas Lacuna, of Castile, published at Rome
in 12 pages, the method of knowing and extirpa-
ting caruncles in the neck of the bladder; which
he owns he learned from one Philippus, a Por-
tuguese quack, whom he believed to be the in-
ventor of the bougie so employed, and says, he
had cured some people at Rome, by them. Scul-
tetus, about the middle of the 17th century, used
bougies in diseases of the urethra, and M. Daran
probably took the hint from him. Different com-
positions have been used, and generally mercury
was a part of them. Riverius made a plaster as
follows; R. ol. oliv. lb. iv. ceræ citrin. lb. ii. mi-
nii & cerussæ aa lb. iss tereb. venet. & rez. alb. aa
oz. iii. m. The following is recommended by Mr
Hunter:—R. olei olivæ lib. iij. Ceræ flavæ lib.
j. Minii lib. iss. These are to be boiled together
over a slow fire for six hours. Bougies made with
this composition will be found much too soft for
immediate use, but after keeping some months,
will acquire sufficient firmness. The plaster may
be made of a stiffer consistence, by adding 2 or 3
ounces more wax, and the like quantity of mi-
nium, and continuing the boiling till the latter is
dissolved. A tolerable good composition for bou-
gies may also be formed with litharge plaster and
yellow wax, to which may be added, a small
quantity of red sulphurated quicksilver. The fol-
lowing formula is from Swediaur:—R. Ceræ fla-
væ lib. j. Spermat. ceti drach. iii. Cerussæ acc-
tatæ drach. ij. ad. viij. These are boiled
as in the former instance, and the p
acctated ceruse regulated according to

are designed to be of a firm or a weaker consistence. When of a large size, they should always be of the latter description, that they may the more readily conform to the shape of the passage when introduced. Whether the bougies are made up of this or any other composition, they must be of different sizes, from the bigness of a knitting needle to that of a goose quill. They are made of linen rags, spread with a proper matter, and then rolled up as follows:—Having spread any quantity of the linen rag with the composition that is chosen for the purpose, cut it into slips from six to ten inches long, and from half an inch to an inch broad; then roll them on a glazed tile or marble into the form of a wax candle; and as the end of the bougie that is to be entered first into the urethra should be somewhat smaller than the rest, cut the slips a little tapering. When the bougies are rolled up, that side must be outward on which the plaster is spread. Bougies are likewise formed of catgut, a substance well calculated to penetrate a strictured part in the first instance, as it admits of being made smaller than the plaster bougie, and yet possesses a sufficient degree of elasticity and strength to allow of being pushed forward with some force. Catgut bougies are also well calculated to pass through an aperture which takes a winding sort of direction, a case in which the common bougie very frequently fails. They do less however towards dilating the stricture than is generally supposed, as they soon become soft and flabby, and in that state, rather yield to the pressure of the stricture, than produce the effect of dilating it. Mons. Daran, and others, attributed the action of the bougies to the composition they made use of in forming them. Mr Sharp apprehended, that as much of their efficacy was owing to the compression they made on the affected part, as to any other principle; and Dr Aitken very justly says, "As it is evident, that bougies of very different compositions succeed equally well, in curing the same disorders in the urethra, it is plain that they do not act by means of any peculiar qualities in their composition, but by means of some property common to them all. This must be their mechanical form and texture, therefore their mode of action must be simple compression. The efficacy of mere compression in many cases of constriction is well known, from the use of sponge tents for widening parts that are straitened by cicatrices; and admitting obstructions in the urethra to be from a constriction formed by cicatrized ulcers, or a projection of the spongy substance of the urethra into the canal, we may easily conceive, that a gentle continued elastic compression will in time overcome the disease. We may also readily account for the inferior efficacy of metallic and whalebone bougies, from their not having the property of swelling with moisture, and therefore not making so equal a compression." A late invention, in which catgut is involved in elastic gum, is perhaps one of the greatest improvements ever made in the composition of simple bougies. The gum defends the catgut from the moisture of the urethra, and renders the bougie pliant in all its parts, whilst a very suitable degree of firmness results from the intermixture of the catgut. Some injury however is done by

the coat of varnish with which those bougies are sometimes covered, the urethra being very considerably irritated from this cause when the bougie is retained for any length of time. The practice of keeping the bougie in, as formerly directed by Mr Sharp and others, for several hours together has been relinquished of late years on account of the injury supposed to be done by it to the functions of the muscoli acceleratores. It is not the practice to wear a bougie only for a few minutes at a time; but there certainly are cases where this treatment cannot but prove efficacious.

(1.) BOUGUER, John, a good French mathematician and professor royal of hydrography, was author of *A complete treatise on Navigation*. He died in 1713.

(2.) BOUGUER, Peter, a celebrated French mathematician, born at Croisie, in 1698, was the son of the professor, (No. 1.) He learned mathematics from his father, from the time he was able to speak, and thus became a proficient in the science, while he was yet a child. Being sent early to the Jesuits college at Vannes, he instructed the regent in mathematics, at 11 years of age. At 13, he had a public contest with a professor of mathematics, upon an erroneous proposition he had advanced; and gained so complete a victory over him, that he left the country. At 15, upon his father's death, he was, after a public examination, appointed to succeed him in his professorship. In 1727, he obtained the prize given by the academy of sciences, for the best way of measuring ships; in 1729, another for the best manner in observing at sea the height of the stars; and, in 1731, a 3d prize for the most advantageous way of observing the declination of the magnetic needle. In 1730, he was removed to Havre. In 1731, he was appointed geometrician to the academy, and in 1735, pensioner astronomer: when he was also sent along with MM. Godin, Condamine, and Jeussieu, on the commission to S. America, to determine the measure of the degrees of the meridian and the figure of the earth. In this laborious business of 10 years duration, chiefly among the lofty Cordelier mountains, he determined several other new points, besides the main object particularly respecting, 1. the expansion and contraction of metals, &c. by heat and cold; 2. the refraction of the atmosphere by the tops of the mountains; 3. the density of the air at different heights; 4. the effect of the mountains upon the plummet; 5. a method of rectifying the errors committed by navigators in determining the route; and, 6. a new construction of the log for measuring a ship's way, &c. He died, 15th Aug. 1758, aged 60. His chief works are, 1. *The Figure of the Earth, determined by the observations made in S. America*: 1749, 4to.: 2. *Treatise on Navigation and Pilotage*; 1752, 4to. abridged by La Caille, in 1 vol. 8vo.; 1768; 3. *Treatise on ships*, 4to. 1756: and, 4. *On the Gradation of Light*; 1729 and 1760, 4to. He wrote also a vast number of important papers, inserted in the *Memoirs of the Academy*; of which Dr Hutton gives a complete list in his *Mathem. & Philos. Dict.* p. 219, 220.

BOUHOURS, Dominic, a celebrated French

eritic, born at Paris 1628. He was entered into the Society of Jesuits at the age of 16; and was appointed to read lectures upon polite literature in the college of Clermont at Paris, where he had studied: but he was so incessantly attacked with the headach, that he could not pursue the destined task. He afterwards undertook the education of two sons of the Duke of Longueville, which he discharged with great applause. The duke had such a regard for Bouhours, that he wished to die in his arms; and the *Account of the Pious Christian Death* of this great personage, was the first work which Bouhours gave to the public. He was sent to Dunkirk to the Popish refugees from England; and in the midst of his missionary occupations, found means to compose and publish books. Among these were, *Entretiens d'Ariste & d'Eugene*, Dialogues between Aristus and Eugene; a critical work, concerning the French language. It was printed 5 times at Paris, twice at Grenoble, at Lyons, Brussels, Amsterdam, Leyden, &c. and embroiled him in quarrels with a great many censors; with Menage in particular, who, however, lived in friendship with him, before and after. This piece recommended Bouhours so effectually to the celebrated minister Colbert, that he trusted him with the education of his son the Marquis of Segnelai. He wrote afterwards several other works; the chief of which are, 1. Remarks and doubts upon the French language. 2. Dialogues upon the art of thinking well in works of genius. 3. The life of St Ignatius. 4. The art of pleasing in conversation. 5. The life of St Francis Xavier, apostle of the Indies and of Japan. This last work was translated from the French into English by Mr Dryden, and published at London in 1668, with a dedication prefixed to James II.'s queen.

(1.) BOUILLON, a town of France, in the ancient county of Luxemburg; now included in one of the new departments lately annexed to the republic. The French took it so long ago as 1676. The castle is seated on a rock that is almost inaccessible, on the river Semois, 12 m. N. E. of Sedan. Lon. 5. 20. E. Lat. 49. 45. N.

(2.) * BOUILLON. *n. f.* [French.] Broth; soup; any thing made to be supped: a term used in cookery.

(3.) BOUILLON, in the manege, a lump or excrescence of flesh that grows either upon or just by the frush, insomuch that the frush shoots out like a lump of flesh, and makes the horse halt; and this is called the *flesh blowing upon the FRUSH*.

BOVII.'s HALL, in Essex, near Clackton.

BOUIN, an isle of France in the bay of Biscay, on the coast of the department of Vendee.

BOVINA AFFECTIO. See AFFECTIO.

BOVINES, a small town of France, in the ancient Austrian Netherlands, seated on the Meuse, 10 m. S. of Namur; now included in one of the new French departments. Lon. 4. 50. E. Lat. 50. 19. N.

BOVINGTON, 2 villages, viz. 1. in Dorsetsh. near Affpiddle: 2. in Hertfordshire, near Hempstead.

BOVINO, an episcopal town of Naples, in the Capitanata, seated at the foot of the Apennine mountains. Lon. 16. 15. E. Lat. 41. 17. N.

BOVISTA, a name used by ancient botanists for the LYCOPERDON, or puff-ball.

BOVIUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Silures, in Britain, 15 m. S. of Isca Silurum, or Caer-leon, in Monmouthshire: Now called Cow-bridge; or, according to Baudrand, BANGOR in Caernarvonshire.

BOULAINVILLIERS, Henry de, Lord of St Saise, and an eminent French writer, was descended from a very ancient and noble family, and born at St Saise, in 1658. His education was among the fathers of the oratory; where he discovered, from his infancy, those uncommon abilities for which he was afterwards distinguished. He applied himself principally to history; in which his performances are numerous, and considerable. He was author of a history of the Arabians; Fourteen letters upon the ancient parliament of France; a History of France to the reign of Charles VIII.; the State of France, with historical memoirs concerning the ancient government of that monarchy to the time of Hugh Capet; "written (says M. Montesquieu) with a simplicity and honest freedom, worthy of that ancient family from which their author was descended." He died at Paris in 1722; and after his death, was published, his *Life of Mahomet*.

(1.) BOULANGER, John, a French engraver who flourished towards the end of the 17th century. He adopted a manner, which, though not original, he greatly improved: He finished the faces, hands, and all the naked parts of his figures, very neatly with dots instead of strokes, or strokes and dots. The effect is by no means displeasing; only, in some few instances, he has opposed the coarse graving of his draperies, and back ground, so violently to the neater work of the flesh, that the outline of the latter is rendered hard, and the general appearance flat. This style of engraving has been since carried to its greatest perfection in England. His draperies are heavy, and the folds not well marked. However, his best prints possess much merit, and are deservedly held in esteem.

(2.) BOULANGER, Nicholas-Anthony, a very singular Frenchman, was born at Paris, in 1723, and died there, in 1759, aged only 37. He is said to have come out of the college of Beauvais, almost as ignorant as he had entered into it; but struggling hard against his unaptness to learn, he at length overcame it. At 17, he began to study mathematics and architecture; and, in 3 or 4 years made such progress, as to be useful to the baron of Thiers, whom he accompanied to the army in quality of engineer. Afterwards he had the supervision of the highways and bridges; and he executed several public works in Champagne, Burgandy, and Lorrain. The author of his life, in the *Dictionnaire des Hommes celebres*, writes, that in this province a terrible spirit discovered itself in him, which he himself did not suspect before, viz. the spirit of "thinking philosophically." In cutting through mountains, directing and changing the course of rivers, and in the breaking up and turning over the strata of the earth, he saw a multitude of different substances, which (he thought) evinced the great antiquity of it, and a long series of revolutions which it must have undergone. From the revolutions in the globe, he passed to

the changes that must have happened in the manners of men in societies, in government, in religion; and he formed many conjectures upon all these. To be farther satisfied, he wanted to know what, in the history of ages, had been said upon these particulars; and, that he might be informed from the fountain head, he learned first Latin and then Greek. Not yet content, he plunged into Hebrew, Syriac, Chaldaic, and Arabic; and acquired such erudition, that, if he had lived, he would have been one of the most learned men in Europe. His works are, 1. *Traite du Despotisme Oriental*, 2 vols 12mo; a very bold work; but not so bold and licentious as, 2. *L'Antiquite de-voilee*, 3 vols 12mo. This was posthumous. 3. He furnished to the *Encyclopedie* the articles *Deluge*, *Corute*, and *Societe*. 4. He left behind him in MS. a Dictionary which may be regarded as a concordance in ancient and modern language. He is said to have been of a sweet, calm, and engaging temper; which, however, it is very difficult to reconcile with the dark, impetuous, ardent spirit, that appears to have actuated him as a writer.

(1.) BOULAY, a town of France, in the department of the Moselle. Lon. 6. 33. E. Lat. 49. 20. N.

(2.) BOULAY, or BULÆUS, Cæsar Egasse du, was born at St Ellier, in France; and became professor of humanity at the college of Navarre, register, rector, and historiographer of the university of Paris. He died in 1678, after having published several works. The principal of them are, *A History of the University of Paris*, in Latin, 6 vols folio; and the *Treasure of Roman Antiquities*, in 3 vol. folio.

BOULCOLACA, or BOURKOLAKOS, [from *Βουρκο*, mud, and *λακος*, a ditch,] among the modern Greeks, denotes the spectre of some wicked person, who died excommunicated by the patriarch, was reanimated by the devil, and caused great disturbance among the people; of which many strange stories are told.

BOULD, a hamlet of Oxfordshire, in Idbury.

* BOULDER WALLS. [In architecture.] Walls built of round flints or pebbles, laid in a strong mortar; used where the sea has a beach cast up, or where there are plenty of flints. *Build. Dict.*

BOULETTE, in the manege, an epithet of a horse, when the fetlock bends forward out of its natural situation, through violent riding, or by being too short jointed.

BOULGE, a village in Suffolk, 5 m. N. W. of Woodbridge.

BOULIMY. See BULIMY.

BOULINIS, or BOULIGNIS, a copper coin, current at Bologna, equal to the *Baiocco*.

(1.) BOULLOGNE, Bon DE, a painter of eminence, born at Paris, in 1649. From his father Lewis, (No. 3.) he learned the first principles of the art; but went to Rome to perfect himself from the works of the best masters. He abode in Italy 5 years. He excelled in history and portrait. His talents for copying the pictures of the great Italian painters were so very extraordinary, that he frequently deceived the greatest judges. He died at Paris, in 1717, aged 68.

(2.) BOULLOGNE, Lewis DE, was born at Paris,

in 1654, was the younger brother of Bon, (No. 1) and like him, learned from his father, the first principles of painting, and afterwards went to Rome to complete his studies. His works, on his return, were so much esteemed, that Louis XIV made him knight of St Michael, appointed him his principal painter, allowed him several pensions, and raised him to the rank of nobility. He embellished the church of the Invalids, the chapel of Versailles, &c. He chiefly excelled in history and allegory. He died at Paris, 1734, aged 80.

(3.) BOULLOGNE, or } Lewis DE, painter of
BOULLONNE, } the French king, and
professor of the academy of painting, distinguished himself by his art; and died at Paris, in 1677, aged 65. There are three of his pictures in the church of Notre Dame. He left two sons. See No. 1. and 2.

BOULNEHERST, a village in Bedfordshire near Thurley.

BOULNESS, a village in Cumberland, on the Solway Frith, where, by crossing the sands, between Scotland and England, at low water, passengers save a circuit of many miles. At this place was the ancient termination of the Picts Wall.

BOULOGNE. See BOLOGNE.

BOULOGNOIS. See BOLOGNOIS.

BOULSTON, a village in Herefordshire, E. of Aconbury.

* To BOULT. v. a. See To BOLT.

BOULTER, Hugh, D. D. was born in or near London, of reputable and wealthy parents. Before the Revolution, he was admitted a commoner of Christ church in Oxford. Some time after, he was chosen a demy of Magdalen college, at the same election with Mr Addison and Dr Wilcox. From the merit and learning of the persons elected, this was commonly called by Dr Hough, president of the college, the *golden election*. He was invited to London by Sir Charles Hodges, principal secretary of state, in 1700, who made him his chaplain, and recommended him to Dr Tenison, archbishop of Canterbury. By the influence of the E. of Sunderland, he was promoted to the parsonage of St Olave in Southwark, and the archdeaconry of Surry; where he continued discharging faithfully his pastoral office, till he was recommended to attend K. George I. as his chaplain, when he went to Hanover in 1719. He taught prince Frederic the English language; and by his conduct so won the king's favour, that he promoted him to be dean of Christ-church, and bishop of Bristol. Five years afterwards, he received a letter from the secretary of state, acquainting him that the king had nominated him archbishop of Armagh and primate of Ireland. This honour he would gladly have declined; and desired the secretary to use his good offices with his majesty to excuse him from accepting it. Ireland happened to be at this juncture in a great flame, occasioned by Wood's ruinous project; and the ministry thought that the bishop would greatly contribute to quench it by his judgment, moderation, and address. The king therefore laid his absolute commands upon him; to which he at last submitted. When he had taken possession of the primacy, he began to consider that country, in which his lot was cast for life, as his own; and to promote

note his true interest with the greatest zeal and assiduity. Accordingly, in innumerable instances, he exerted himself in the noblest acts of beneficence and public spirit. In seasons of the greatest scarcity, he was more than once instrumental in preventing a famine. On one of these occasions he distributed vast quantities of corn throughout the kingdom, for which the House of Commons passed a vote of public thanks; and at another time 1500 persons were fed at the poor house in Dublin, every morning, and as many every evening, for a considerable time together, mostly at the primate's expence. When schemes were proposed for the advantage of the country, he encouraged and promoted them not only with his counsel but his purse. He had great compassion for the poor clergy of his diocese, who were disabled from giving their children a proper education; and he maintained several of the children of such at the university. He erected 4 houses at Drogheda for the reception of clergymen's widows, and purchased an estate for the endowment of them. His charities for augmenting small livings and buying glebes amounted to upwards of 30,000 l. besides what he devised by will for the like purposes in England. In short, the instances he gave of his generosity, benevolence, virtue, piety, and wisdom, are almost innumerable; and the history of his life is his noblest panegyric. This excellent prelate died at London, on the 2d of June, 1742, and was interred in Westminster-abbey, where a beautiful monument of finely polished marble is erected to his memory.

BOULTERS. See **BOLTERS**, N° 2.

BOULTHAM, a village S. W. of Lincoln.

BOULTINE, in architecture, a convex moulding of one fourth of a circle; placed below the arch in the Tuscan and Doric capital.

BOULTING. See **BOLTING**, § 2 & 3.

BOULTON, Edmund. See **BOLTON**, N° 17.

BOULUKE, in the military orders of the Turks, a body of the janizaries, with an officer in the place of a colonel at their head, sent upon some particular enterprize. They are selected out of the body, and as soon as the business is over, are received again into their former companies.

(1.) **BOUM**, in ancient geography, a town in Ethiopia beyond Egypt, on the W. side of the Nile.

(2.) **BOUM SOLIS STABULA**, in ancient geography, the territory of Mylæ, a peninsula on the E. coast of Sicily, N. of Syracuse; remarkable for its fertility and rich pastures: whence arose the fable of the oxen of the sun feeding there. Pliny and Seneca say, that something like dung is thrown out on the coast of Mylæ and Messina, which gave rise to the fable of the oxen of the sun being stalled there; and the inhabitants still affirm the same thing.

(1.) **BOUNCE**, in ichthyology, the English name of a species of *Squalus*. See **SQUALUS**.

(2.) * **BOUNCE**. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. A strong sudden blow.—

The *bonner* burst ope the door; the scornful fair
Relentless look'd.

Dryden.

2. A sudden crack or noise.—

What cannoneer begot this lusty blood?

He speaks plain cannon fire, and smoke, and *bounce*;
He gives the bastinado with his tongue. *Shakespeare.*

Two hazel-nuts I threw into the flame,
And to each nut I gave a sweetheart's name;
This with the loudest *bounce* me sore amaz'd,
That in a flame of brightest colour blaz'd. *Gay.*

3. A boast; a threat: in low language.

* **To BOUNCE**. *v. n.* [a word formed, says *Skinner*, from the sound.] 1. To fall or fly against any thing with great force, so as to rebound.—

The fright awaken'd Arcite with a start,
Against his bosom *bounc'd* his heaving heart.

Dryden.

2. To spring; to make a sudden leap; a sudden explosion.—High nonsense is like beer in a bottle, which has, in reality, no strength and spirit, but froths, and flies, and *bounces*, and imitates the passions of a much nobler liquor. *Addison.*—

They *bounce* from their nest,

No longer will tarry.

Swift.

Out *bounc'd* the mastiff of the triple head;

Away the hare with double swiftness fled. *Swift.*

3. To make a sudden noise.—Just as I was putting out my light, another *bounces* as hard as he can knock. *Swift.* 4. To boast; to bully: a sense only used in familiar speech. 5. To be bold, or strong.—

Forsooth the *bouncing* Amazon,

Your buskin'd mistress, and your warrior love,
To Theseus must be wedded. *Shakespeare.*

* **BOUNCER**. *n. s.* [from *bounce*.] A boaster; a bully; an empty threatener: in colloquial speech.

(1.) * **BOUND**. *adj.* [a word of doubtful etymology.] Destined; intending to come to any place.

His be that care, whom most it doth concern,
Said he; but whither with such hasty flight
Art thou now *bound*? for well might I discern
Great cause, that carries thee so swift and light.

Fairy Queen.

—To be *bound* for a port one desires extremely, and sail to it, with a fair gale, is very pleasant. *Temple.*—

Willing we sought your shores, and hither *bound*,
The port so long desir'd, at length we found.

Dryden.

(2.) * **BOUND**. *n. s.* [from *bind*.] 1. A limit; a boundary; that by which any thing is terminated.

Illimitable ocean! without *bound*;

Without dimension; where length, breadth,
and height,

And time, and place, are lost. *Milton.*

—Those vast Scythian regions were separated by the natural *bounds*, of rivers, lakes, mountains, woods, or marshes. *Temple.*—

Indus and Ganges, our wide empire's *bounds*,
Swell their dy'd currents with their natives
wounds.

Dryden.

Through all th' infernal *bounds*,

Which flaming Phlegethon surrounds,
Sad Orpheus sought his consort lost. *Pope.*

2. A limit by which any excursion is restrained.—

Hath he set *bounds* between their love and me?
I am their mother, who shall bar me from them?

Shakespeare.

Stronger and fiercer by restraint he roars,
And knows no *bound*, but makes his pow'r his
shores.

Denham.

—Any

Any *bounds* made with body, even adamantine walls, are far from putting a stop to the mind, in its progress in space. *Locke.* 3. [from *To bound*, v. n.] A leap; a jump; a spring.—

Do but note a wild and wanton herd,
Or race of youthful and unhandled colts,
Fetch'ing mad *bounds*, bellowing, and neighing
loud. *Shakespeare.*

The horses started with a sudden *bound*,
And flung the reins and chariot to the ground. *Addison.*

Dext'rous he 'scapes the coach with nimble
bounds,

Whilst ev'ry honest tongue Stop thief resounds. *Gay.*

4. A rebound; the leap of something flying back by the force of the blow.—These inward disgusts are but the first *bound* of this ball of contention. *Decay of Piety.*

(3.) *BOUND*, in dancing, a spring from one foot to the other; by which it differs from a hop, where the spring is from one foot to the same. It also differs from a half coupee, as in the latter the body always bears on the floor, either on one foot or the other; whereas, in the *bound*, it is thrown quite from the floor.

(4.) * *BOUND*. *preterite* and *part. passive* of *bind*.—Nay, said Pamela, none shall take that office from myself, being so much *bound* as I am for my education. *Sidney.*—

This is Antonio,

To whom I am so infinitely *bound*.—

—You should in all sense be much *bound* to him;
For, as I hear, he was much *bound* for you. *Shakespeare.*

The gentleman is learn'd, a most rare speaker,
To nature none more *bound*. *Shakespeare.*
—The bishops of Hungary, being wonderfully rich, were *bound* to keep great numbers of horsemen, which they used to bring into the field. *Knolles.*—They summoned the governor to deliver it to them, or else they would not leave one stone upon another. To which the governor made no other reply, than that he was not *bound* to repair it; but, however, he would, by God's help, keep the ground afterwards. *Clarendon.*

(5.) *BOUND BAILIFFS*. See *BAILIFFS*, § 3.

(6.) *BOUNDS OF LANDS*. See *ABBUTALS*, and *ABUTTAL*.

(1.) * *To BOUND*. v. a. [from the noun.] 1. To limit; to terminate.—

A lofty tow'r, and strong on every side,
With treble walls, which Phlegethon furrounds,
Whose fiery flood the burning empire *bounds*. *Dryden.*

4. To restrain; to confine.—

Take but degree away,
The *boundless* waters
Would lift their bosoms higher than the shores,
And make a top of all this solid globe. *Shakespeare.*

3. Sometimes with *in*.—

My mother's blood
Runs on the dexter cheek, and this sinister
Bounds in my fire's. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) * *To BOUND*. v. a. To make to bound.—
If I might buffet for my love, or *bound* my horse
for her favours, I would lay on like a butcher,
and sit like a jackanapes, never off. *Shakespeare.*

If love, ambitious, sought a match of birth
Whose veins *bound* richer blood than lady Blanch. *Shakespeare.*

(3.) * *To BOUND*. v. n. [*bondir*, Fr.] 1. To jump; to spring; to move forward by leaps.—

Torrismond appear'd,
Gave me his hand, and led me lightly o'er,
Leaping and *bounding* on the billows heads. *Dryden.*
Before his lord the ready spaniel *bounds*,
Panting with hope, he tries the furrow'd grounds. *Pope.*

When sudden thro' the woods a *bounding* stag
Rush'd headlong down, and plung'd amidst the
river. *Ross.*

Warbling to the vary'd strain, advance
Two sprightly youths, to form the *bounding*
dance. *Pope.*

2. To rebound; to fly back by repercussion.—
Mark then a *bounding* valour in our English,
That being dead, like to the bullets grazing,
Breaks out into a second course of mischief. *Shakespeare.*

* * *BOUNDARY*. n. s. [from *bound*.] Limit.
bound.—He suffers the confluence and clamour
of the people to pass all *boundaries* of laws, and
reverence to his authority. *K. Charles.*—Sensation
and reflection are the *boundaries* of our thought;
beyond which the mind, whatever efforts it would
make, is not able to advance. *Locke.*—Great part
of our sins consist in the irregularities attending
the ordinary pursuits of life; so that our reform-
tion must appear, by pursuing them within the
boundaries of duty. *Rogers.*

* *BOUNDEN*. *part. passive* of *bind*. Not now
much in use.—

Hereafter, in a better world than this,
I shall desire more love and knowledge of you.—
—I rest must *bounden* to you: fare you well. *Shakespeare.*

—We also most humbly besought him to accept
of us as his true servants, by as just a right as ever
men on earth were *bounden*. *Bacon.*—To be care-
ful for a provision of all necessaries for ourselves,
and those who depend on us, is a *bounden* duty. *Rogers.*

* *BOUNDING-STONE*. *BOUND-STONE*. n. s.
A stone to play with.—

I am past a boy;
A sceptre's but a play-thing, and a globe
A bigger *bounding-stone*. *Dryden.*

* *BOUNDLESS*. *adj.* [from *bound*.] Unlim-
ed; unconfined; immeasurable; illimitable.—

Beyond the infinite and *boundless* reach
Of mercy, if thou didst this deed of death,
Art thou damn'd, Hubert. *Shakespeare.*

Heav'n has of right all victory design'd;
Whence *boundless* power dwells in a will con-
fin'd. *Dryden.*

—Man seems as *boundless* in his desires, as God
in his being; and therefore nothing but God him-
self can satisfy him. *South.*—Though we make
duration *boundless* as it is, we cannot extend
beyond all being. God fills eternity, and it is hard
to find a reason, why one should doubt that
fills immensity. *Locke.*

Some guide the course of wand'ring orbs
high,

Or roll the planets thro' the *boundless* sky. *Pope.*

* *BOUND*

• **BOUNDLESSNESS.** *n. f.* [from *boundless*.] Exemption from limits.—God has corrected the *boundlessness* of his voluptuous desires, by stinting his capacities. *South.*

• **BOUND-STONE.** See **BOUNDING-STONE.**

• **BOUNTEOUS.** *adj.* [from *bounty*.] Liberal; kind; generous; munificent; beneficent: a word used chiefly in poetry for *bountiful*.—

Every one,

According to the gift, which *bounteous* nature
Hath in him clos'd. *Shakespeare.*

Her soul abhorring avarice,

Bounteous; but almost *bounteous* to a vice. *Dryd.*

• **BOUNTEOUSLY.** *adv.* [from *bounteous*.] Liberally; generously; largely.—

He *bounteously* bestow'd unenvy'd good
On me. *Dryden.*

• **BOUNTEOUSNESS.** *n. f.* [from *bounteous*.] Munificence; liberality; kindness.—He filleth all things living with *bounteousness*. *Psalms.*

• **BOUNTIFUL.** *adj.* [from *bounty* and *full*.] 1. Liberal; generous; munificent.—

As *bountiful* as mines of India. *Shake-sp.*
—If you will be rich, you must live frugal; if you will be popular, you must be *bountiful*. *Taylor.*—
I am obliged to return my thanks to many, who, without considering the man, have been *bountiful* to the poet. *Dryden.*—God, the *bountiful* author of our being. *Locke.* 2. It has of before the thing given, and to before the person receiving.—Our king spares nothing, to give them the share of that felicity, of which he is so *bountiful* to his kingdom. *Dryden.*

• **BOUNTIFULLY.** *adv.* [from *bountiful*.] Liberally; in a *bountiful* manner; largely.—

And now thy alms is given,

And thy poor starv'ling *bountifully* fed. *Donne.*
—It is affirm'd, that it never raineth in Egypt; the river *bountifully* requiting it in its inundation. *Farmer's Errors.*

• **BOUNTIFULNESS.** *n. f.* [from *bountiful*.] The quality of being *bountiful*; generosity.—Enriched to all *bountifulness*. 2 *Corinthians.*

• **BOUNTIHEAD.** } *n. f.* [from *bounty* and
• **BOUNTIHEDE.** } *head, or hood.* See **HOOD.**
• **BOUNTIHOOD.** } Goodness; virtue. It is now wholly out of use.—

This goodly frame of temperance,
Formerly grounded, and fast settled
On firm foundation of true *bountihead*.

Fairy Queen.

How shall frail pen, with fear disparaged,
Conceive such sovereign glory, and great *bountihead*. *Fairy Queen.*

(1.) • **BOUNTY.** *n. f.* [*bonté*, Fr.] 1. Generosity; liberality; munificence.—We do not so far magnify her exceeding *bounty*, as to affirm, that she bringeth into the world the sons of men, adorned with gorgeous attire. *Hooker.*—

If you knew to whom you shew this honour,
I know you would be prouder of the work,
Than customary *bounty* can enforce you. *Shak.*
Such moderation with thy *bounty* join,
That thou may'st nothing give, that is not thine. *Denham.*

Those godlike men, to wanting virtue kind,
Bounty well plac'd prefer'd, and well design'd,
To all their titles. *Dryden.*

VOL. IV. PART I.

griculture; and the consequence hath been, that 2. It seems distinguished from charity, as a *present* from an *alms*; being used, when persons, not absolutely necessitous, receive gifts; or when gifts are given by great persons.—Tell a miser of *bounty* to a friend, or mercy to the poor, and he will not understand it. *South.*—Her majesty did not see this assembly so proper to excite charity and compassion; though I question not but her royal *bounty* will extend itself to them. *Addison.*

(2.) **BOUNTY**, in commerce, a premium paid by government to the exporters of certain British commodities, as sail cloth, gold and silver lace, silk-stockings, fish, corn, &c. The happy influence which bounties have on trade and manufactures is well known; nor can there be a more convincing proof of the good intentions of the British government, than the great care that is taken to give all possible encouragement to those who shall establish or improve any hazardous branch of manufacture or commerce. All undertakings, in respect either to mercantile enterprises, or in the establishment of manufactures, are weak and feeble in their beginnings; and if unsuccessful, either sink entirely, or at least are seldom revived in the same age. Accidents of this nature are not only destructive to private persons, but exceedingly detrimental to the public interest. On this principle, more especially since trade has been cultivated, such attempts have been thought deserving, and have been favoured with public support. This in former times usually flowed from the crown, in the form of letters patent, charters, or other grants of privileges, which, however requisite they might be, were notwithstanding very frequently objects of censure. If such as obtained them failed in their endeavours, they were reputed *projectors*; if, on the other hand, they succeeded, they were considered as *monopolizers*. Corporations, which imply the uniting certain individuals into a body, that they may thereby become more useful to the community, were also created by the crown with this view. Many of these were formed for promoting trade; and, according to the old system of our government, were thought necessary and useful. But they are now degenerated into so many systems of monopoly, and tend only to be of service to the individuals that compose these small bodies. On the same principle, privileges were granted to private persons, thinking, that what was immediately of use to them would terminate in public utility. These also did good in bringing in many arts and manufactures; though, in some cases, tending to private interest more than public emolument, they were liable to legal correction. In later times, and in concerns of moment, a much better method has been adopted, as often as it hath been found practicable, by rejecting private or particular interest, and proposing the designed advantages, to such as should perform the stipulations on which they are granted. These bounties, as they are paid by the public, so they are solely calculated for the benefit of the public. They are sometimes given to encourage industry and application in raising a necessary commodity; which was intended by the bounty on exporting corn. The intention of this bounty was to encourage a-

K k

we

We now grow more than twice as much as we did at the establishment of the bounty; we even consume twice as much bread as we then grew; yet in A. D. 1697, we exported a 15th part of what we grew, of late years a 29th part only. The bounty on this 29th part amounted to somewhat more than 50,000*l.* and the produce to more than 400,000*l.* It is evident that all this is so much clear gain to the nation. But this is far from being all that we have annually gained. For if our cultivation is doubled, as indeed it is, then the rent of lands, the subsistence of working hands, the profits of the tradesmen supplying them with utensils, clothes, the value of horses employed, &c. must all be taken into the account. To these we must add the freight, amounting to half the bounty, to form a complete idea of the advantages gained. Bounties are also occasionally given with a view to promote manufactures, as in the case of those made of silk. Many laws are to be found in our statute books in favour of the silk manufacture, made with great wisdom and propriety, for the encouragement and support of many thousands of industrious persons employed therein. By statute 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. § 1. a bounty was given on the due exportation of ribbons and stuffs, of silk only, of 3*s.* upon a pound weight; silks, and ribbons of silk, mixed with gold and silver, 4*s.* a pound; on silk gloves, silk stockings, silk fringes, silk laces, and sewing silk, 1*s.* 3*d.* a pound; on stuffs of silk and grogram yarn, 8*d.* a pound; on silks mixed with incl or cotton, 1*s.* a pound; on stuffs of silk mixed with worsted, 6*d.* a pound, for 3 years: and, from experience of their utility, these were continued by subsequent acts. Sometimes bounties are given to support a new manufacture against foreigners already in possession of it, as in making linen and sail-cloth. The promoting of the manufacture of British sail-cloth was undoubtedly a very important national object, as the consumption was very large, and of consequence the purchase of it from foreigners an heavy expence on the public. Many methods were therefore devised, and countenanced by law, both here and in Ireland, for introducing and encouraging our own in preference to that of strangers, more especially in the royal navy. By stat. 12 Ann, cap. 16. § 2. a bounty was given of one penny per ell on all that was exported for a term, and continued by subsequent statutes. By 4 Geo. II. cap. 27. § 4. an additional bounty of another penny an ell is granted. These bounties were to be paid out of an additional duty on imported sail-cloth. By the same statute every ship built in Britain, or in the plantations, is under the penalty of 50*l.* to be furnished with a complete suit of sails of British manufacture. The amount of these bounties marks the progress of the manufacture, which is also assisted by the fund on which the payment is assigned. These bounties, however, are never bestowed but on mature deliberation, in virtue of strong proofs, and with a moral certainty of a national benefit. The great intention of bounties is to place the British trader on such ground as to render his commerce beneficial to his country. In order to this, some profit must accrue to himself, otherwise he would not embark in it; and this, whatever it be, must

prove inconsiderable in comparison of what results to the public. For if, by the help of such a bounty, one or many traders export to the value of 1000, 10,000, or 100,000 pounds worth of commodities or manufactures, whatever his or their profit or loss (for the latter, through avidity and overloading the market, sometimes happens,) may be, the nation gains the 1000, 10,000, or 100,000 pounds; which was the object of the legislature in granting the bounty. Upon this consideration, that the entire produce of what is exported accrues to the nation, the legislature, when an alteration of circumstances required it, have made no scruple of augmenting a bounty; as in the case of refined sugar exported, from 3*s.* to 9*s.* per hundred weight. In like manner, the original bounty of 1*l.* per ton in favour of vessels employed in the whale fishing hath been doubled, and many new regulations made, in order to render this fishery more advantageous to the public. As a bounty is given on malt when allowed to be exported, so an equivalent of 3*s.* per ton hath been granted on all British made malt spirits when exported, which is a common benefit to land, manufactures and commerce. It must be admitted indeed, that on whatever account, or to whatever amount, this reward is given, the public seem to pay, and private persons seem to receive. But these private persons receive it as the hire from the public, for performing a service which otherwise they would not perform, the benefit of which accrues to the public, and who can therefore very well afford to pay that reward in reality, which, in fact, they only seem to do. For, the bounty is paid to individuals, who, as such, make a part of the public. But the commodities or manufactures exported are sold to foreigners; and the whole produce of them, be it what it will, comes into the purse of the public. By attending to this self-evident doctrine, every reasonable and public-spirited man will be easily reconciled to bounties; and the 3 following considerations will be sufficient to obviate the most common objections that have been made to the practice of giving them. 1. That no bounty can be desired but on the plea of national utility, which always deserves notice, and cannot be mistaken. It must likewise be alledged and proved, that this is the only means whereby the national benefit can be attained. 2. The sums issued on this account not only show the clear expence of the bounty, but also indicate the profit gained by the public; for as the one cannot exist without the other, that amount must be the incontestable index of both. 3. It must be remembered (and of this too some instances might be given), that if bounties should be improperly bestowed, they will of course prove ineffectual, and after a few fruitless trials will remain unclaimed, and consequently produce no expence. There is indeed another objection which hath been made against the giving of bounties. This is grounded on the frauds to which they are supposed to be liable; and particularly the relanding of the goods on which the bounty hath been paid, and thereby deceiving and cheating the public. But whoever pursues the laws made on this head, and attentively considers the numerous precautions taken

to fix every circumstance relative to the obtaining of the bounty, the checks on the shipping of goods, the securities taken for their due exportation, the certificates required to ascertain their being actually delivered and sold in a foreign market, must be convinced, that to discharge all those securities, in case of an intended fraud, is a thing very difficult, if not altogether impracticable. To these remarks we may add, that bounties are usually granted only for a limited time; are always liable to be suspended; and of course can never be the great cause of any great national loss. There is no doubt that, exclusive of frauds, the immoderate thirst of gain may tempt interested men to aim at converting what was calculated for public benefit to its detriment, for their own private advantage. Thus, on a prospect of short crops in other countries, men may take measures within the letter, but directly against the spirit, of the law, to send so much of our corn abroad, as to endanger a famine at home. For this the wisdom of parliament provides, not barely by suspending the bounty, but by prohibiting exportation and opening the ports for foreign supplies. We cannot with any shadow of justice ascribe scarcity to the bounty on the exportation. If this was the case, suspensions would be frequent, whereas there have been but 5 in a course of 70 years. If the bounty had any share, the larger the exportation, the greater would be the scarcity. In A. D. 1750 we exported more than one fifth of our growth of wheat, which was notwithstanding but at 4 shillings per bushel; whereas a century before, A. D. 1650, when we had neither bounty nor exportation, wheat was at 9s and 6d per bushel. The causes of scarcity are undoubtedly seasons; which though human policy cannot prevent, yet their sad effects have been evidently lessened by our increased growth, since the bounty and exportation were allowed by law.

(3.) BOUNTY OF QUEEN ANNE, for augmenting poor livings under 50*l. per annum*, consists of the produce of the first fruits and tenths, after the charges and pensions payable out of the same are defrayed. A corporation for management of the same was settled, &c. in 1704. See AUGMENTATION, § 4.

(1.) BOURBON, Nicholas, a famous Latin poet in the 16th century, was a native of Vandœuvre near Langres, and the son of a wealthy smith. Margaret de Valois appointed him preceptor to her daughter Jane d'Albret of Navarre, the mother of king Henry IV. At length he retired to Conde, where he had a benefice, and died about 1590. He wrote 8 books of Epigrams; and a poem on the forge, intitled *Ferraria*. He had great knowledge of antiquity and of the Greek language. Erasmus praises his epigrams.

(2.) BOURBON, Nicholas, a celebrated Greek and Latin poet, was nephew of the preceding.

(N. 1.) He taught rhetoric in several colleges of Paris; and cardinal Perron got him appointed professor of eloquence in the Royal College: he was also canon of Langres, and one of the 40 of the French academy. He died in 1644, aged 70. He is esteemed one of the greatest Latin poets France has produced. His poems were printed at Paris in 1630.

(3.) BOURBON, a small county of the United States, in Kentucky, bounded on the S. E. by Clarke county; on the S. W. by Fayette; N. by Harrison, and N. W. by Scott county. Bourbontown is the chief town.

(4.) BOURBON, a river of N. America, in Labrador, which issues from Lake Christianaux, passes through lake Assenipolis, and falls into Hudson's Bay at York Factory.

(5.) BOURBON, or MASCARENHAS, an island in the Indian ocean, lying 300 m. E. of Madagascar. It is about 60 m. long and 45 broad. It is in some places inaccessible, and has no port, but has many good roads for shipping, particularly on the W. and N. E. It is for the most part mountainous, but in some places there are very beautiful and fertile plains. In the S. E. part of the island there is a volcano, which has long thrown out vast quantities of bitumen, sulphur, and other combustible materials; so that the country about it is useless, and is called by the inhabitants *pays brule*, that is, burnt land. The shore is high and rocky all around; and the form of the land is irregular. The air is equally pleasant and wholesome. The people live to a great age, without feeling either infirmities or diseases. The hurricanes, of which they have one or two every year, purify the air, so as to render it highly salubrious. When these fail of making their annual visits, as they sometimes do, diseases occur and cut off many of the inhabitants, who would otherwise soon overstock the island. The climate is hot, but not to such a degree as might be expected from its situation, the breezes from the mountains being constant and refreshing. The tops of these mountains are in winter covered with snow; which, melting in summer, furnishes abundance of rivulets, with which the country is plentifully watered: so that the soil, though not very deep, is wonderfully fruitful, producing Turkey corn and rice twice a-year; and the latter in great abundance. Most sorts of cattle are found here, good in their kind, and very cheap; wild goats, and wild hogs are found in the woods and on the tops of the mountains; also vast quantities of wild fowl of different kinds, fish, and land tortoises, affording at once the most delicate and wholesome food. This island produces bananas, oranges, citrons, tamarinds, and other fruits; also ebony, cotton, white pepper, gum benzoin, aloes, and tobacco; all excellent in their kind. No venomous animals are to be found in it, and only two sorts that are disagreeable to the sight, *viz.* spiders of the size of a pigeon's egg, which weave nets of a surprising strength, reckoned by some capable of being treated so as to become as valuable as silk; and bats of a most enormous size, which are not only eaten, but esteemed a very great delicacy. This island was discovered by the Portuguese in 1545, as appears by a date inscribed by them upon a pillar when they first landed; but when the French settled in Madagascar, this island was totally desolate. Three Frenchmen being banished thither, and left there for 3 years, made such a report of it at their return as surprised their countrymen. They lived most of that time upon pork; and though they were in a manner naked, yet they affirmed that they never had the least pain

Spanish family likewise ascended the throne of the Two Sicilies in 1734. These three branches entered into a treaty offensive and defensive in 1761, which went by the name of the *family compact*, but which the new order of things in Europe has nearly annihilated.

1. BOURBON LANCY, a town of France, in the department of Saone and Loire, and late province of Burgundy. It is remarkable for its cold and hot mineral waters; and has a large marble pavement, called the Great Bath, which is a relic of the Romans. It is 15 miles S. W. of Autun. Lon. 4. 6. E. Lat. 46. 47. N.

2. BOURBON L'ARCHAMBAUD, a small town of France, in the department of Allier, and late province of Bourbonnois. It is situated in a town, near the river Allier, and is remarkable for hot baths, and for giving name to the family of the late unfortunate king of France. It is 15 miles W. of Moulins, and 362 S. of Paris, Lon. 3. 5. E. Lat. 46. 35. N.

3. BOURBON, P. D. of Orleans. See EGALITE.

BOURBONNE-LE-BAINS, a town of France, in the department of Upper Marne and late province of Champagne, famous for its hot baths. It is 17 miles E. of Langres. Lon. 5. 45. E. Lat. 47. 34. N.

BOURBONNOIS, a ci-devant province of France, bounded on the N. by Nivernois and Berry; on the W. by Berry and part of Marche; on the S. by Auvergne, and on the E. by Burgundy and Forez. It is watered by the Loire, the Allier and the Chur; and abounds in corn, fruit, pasture, wood, game, and wine. It now forms the department of Allier.

BOURBONTOWN, a post town of Kentucky, and capital of the county of BOURBON, (N. 3.) situated on the W. side of the river Stony-fork. It is a flourishing town, and contains above 60 houses, a baptist church, a court house, and jail; and has several variable mills adjacent to it. It lies 20 m. N. E. of Lexington, 60 E. of Frankfort, and 174 from Philadelphia. Lon. 9. 42. W. Lat. 38. 15. N.

BOURBOURG, a town of France, in the department of the North, seated on a canal that goes to Dunkirk. Lon. 2. 15. E. Lat. 50. 55. N.

BOURCHIER, John, lord Remars, grandson and heir of a lord of the same name, was created a knight of the Bath, at the marriage of the duke of York second son of Edward IV. and was first known by quelling an insurrection in Cornwall and Devonshire, raised by Michael Joseph, a blacksmith, in 1495, which recommended him to the favour of Henry VII. He was captain of the pioneers at the siege of Therouanne, under Henry VIII. by whom he was made chancellor of the exchequer for life, lieutenant of Calais and Marston, appointed to conduct the lady Mary the king's sister into France on her marriage with Louis XII. and had the extraordinary good fortune to continue in favour with that fickle tyrant for 12 years. He died at Calais in 1532, aged 63. He translated Froissart's Chronicle; printed in 1513, by Richard Pison, the 5th on the list of English printers. His other works were a whimsical medley of translations, from French, Spanish, and Italian novels; viz. The life of Sir Arthur,

an Armorican knight; The famous exploits of Sir Hugh Bourdeaux; Marcus Aurelius; and, The castle of love. He wrote also a book, of the duties of the inhabitants of Calais; and a comedy entitled *Ite in Pineam*, which is mentioned in none of our catalogues of English plays. Wood says it was usually acted at Calais after Vespers.

BOURDALOUE, Lewis, a celebrated preacher among the Jesuits, and one of the greatest orators France has produced, was born at Bourges, on the 20th of August 1632. After having preached at Provence, he, in 1699, went to Paris; and there met with such applause, that the king resolved to hear him; on which he was sent for to court, and frequently preached before Louis XIV. He assisted the sick, visited the prisoners and hospitals, and was liberal in giving alms. He died at Paris on the 13th of May 1704. The best edition of his sermons is in 8vo.

BOURDEAUX, an ancient, large, and rich town of France, in the department of Gironde, and ci-devant province of Guienne. It has an university and an academy of arts and sciences.—It is built in the form of a bow, of which the Garonne is the string. This river is bordered by a large quay, and the water rises 4 yards at full tide, for which reason the largest vessels can come up to it very readily. The castle called the *Trumper* is seated at the entrance of the quay, and the river runs round its walls. Most of the great streets lead to the quay. The town has 12 gates; and near another castle are fine walks under several rows of trees. Though considerable in point of size, it was anciently ill built, badly paved, dangerous, without police or any of those municipal regulations indispensably requisite to render a city splendid or elegant. It has entirely changed its appearance within these last 30 years.—The public edifices are very noble, and all the streets newly built are regular and handsome. The quays are 4 miles in length, and the river is considerably broader than the Thames at London bridge. On the opposite, a range of hills, covered with woods, vineyards, churches, and villas, extends beyond the view. Almost in the centre of the town was a fine equestrian statue in bronze erected to Lewis XV. in 1743; which has probably fallen a sacrifice to the popular rage against royalty. The beauty of the Garonne, and the fertility of the adjoining country, were probably the causes which induced the Romans to lay the foundation of this city. The ruins of a very large amphitheatre yet remain, constructed under the emperor Gallienus; it is of brick, as are most of the edifices of that period, when the empire was verging to its fall, and the arts began rapidly to decline. During the irruptions of the barbarous nations, and particularly in those which the Normans repeatedly made, Bourdeaux was ravaged, burnt, and almost entirely destroyed. It only began to recover again under Henry II. of England, who having united it to the crown by his marriage with Eleanor of Aquitaine, rebuilt it, and made it a principal object of his policy, to restore the city again to its ancient lustre. Edward, the Black Prince received all Guienne, Gascony, and many inferior provinces in full sovereignty from his father Edward III. He brought his royal captive

live, John king of France, to this city, after the battle of Poitiers in 1356; and held his court and residence here during 11 years. His exalted character, his uninterrupted series of good fortune, his victories, his modesty, his affability, and his munificence, drew strangers to Bourdeaux from every part of Europe. His son Richard II. was born in it. In 1453, Charles VII. king of France, re-entered the city, and subjected the whole province of Guienne, which had been near 3 centuries under the English government. Conscious of the importance of such a conquest, he ordered the *Chateau Trompette* to be built to defend the passage of the river; and Lewis the XIV. afterwards employed the celebrated Vauban to erect a new fortress in the modern style of military architecture, on the same spot. Bourdeaux contains upwards of 100,000 inhabitants, and is one of the first cities in France for magnitude, riches, and beauty. The cathedral, and the churches belonging to the late religious orders, the Dominicans and Chartreux, are much admired. The spire of St Michael's was a beautiful Gothic piece till 1768, when more than 100 feet of it was thrown down by a hurricane. Bourdeaux has a considerable trade; and every year 100,000 tons of wine and brandy are exported from it. It is 87 miles S. of Rochelle, and 325 S. W. of Paris. Lon. 0. 30. W. Lat. 44. 50. N.

(1.) BOURDELOT, John, a learned French critic, who lived at the close of the 16th and beginning of the 17th centuries. He distinguished himself by writing notes on Lucian, Petronius, and Heliodorus; by an Universal History; Commentaries on Juvenal; a Treatise on the Etymology of French words; and some other works never published.

(2.) BOURDELOT, Peter, (sister's son to John, (N. 1.) changed his name from Michon to oblige his uncle. He had the title of Abbe, and was a celebrated physician at Paris, and gained great reputation by a *Treatise on the Viper*, and other works. He died in 1685.

BOURDFIELD, a village E. of Lenham, Kent.

BOURDIN, a name given by Bellonius to a genus of univalve shell-fish, commonly known among authors by the name of *AURIS MARINA*.

BOURDINES, a town of France, in the ci-devant Austrian Netherlands, now included in one of the new French departments. It is 10 m. N. E. of Namur. Lon. 5. 0. E. Lat. 50. 35. N.

(1.) BOURDON, Sebastian, a famous painter, born at Montpellier, in 1619. He studied 7 years at Rome; and acquired such reputation, that at his return to France he was made rector of the academy of painting at Paris. He succeeded better in landscapes than in history painting. His pieces are seldom finished; and those that are so, are not always the finest. He once laid a wager with a friend, that he should paint 12 heads after the life, and as big as the life, in one day. He won it; and these are said not to be the worst things he ever did. The most esteemed of all his performances is, The martyrdom of St Peter, drawn for the church of Notre Dame: It is kept as one of the choicest rarities of that cathedral.—Bourdon, though a Calvinist, was much respected, because his life and manners were good. We

have also a great number of his etchings; which are executed in a bold, masterly style, and are justly held in the highest estimation by the generality of collectors. He died in 1673, aged 64.

(2.) BOURDON, *n. f.* a bagpipe drone. *Chauc.*

BOURDONE'E, in heraldry, the same with POMEE.

BOURE, *n. f. obs.* a house or chamber. *Chauc.*

(1.) BOURG, a sea port town of France, in the department of Gironde and ci-devant province of Guienne, with a good harbour on the river Dordogne, near the point of land formed by the confluence of that river with the Garonne, which is called the Bec-d'Ambez, and is thought a dangerous passage. It is 15 miles N. of Bourdeaux. Lon. 0. 30. W. Lat. 45. 5. N.

(2.) BOURG, a town of France, in the department of Ain, and ci-devant province of Bresse. Near this place is the magnificent church and monastery of the late Augustins, in which is the mausoleum of Margaret of Austria, aunt of Charles V. and other fine pieces of sculpture. Bourg is seated on the river Reffouffe, 20 miles S. E. of Maçon, and 233 S. E. of Paris. Lon. 1. 35. E. Lat. 46. 11. N.

(3.) BOURG, the capital of Cayenne, in South America. Lon. 52. 50. W. Lat. 5. 2. N.

BOURGANEUF, a small well built town of France, in the department of Creuse and ci-devant province of Marche. It is remarkable for a very large and lofty tower, faced with stones cut diamond wise. It was erected, toward the end of the 15th century, by Zifim, brother of Bajazet II. emperor of the Turks, when he was obliged to exile himself, after the loss of a decisive battle. It is seated on the river Taurion, 20 miles N. E. of Limoges, and 200 S. of Paris. Lon. 5. 19. E. Lat. 45. 59. N.

BOURGEOISE, *adv.* in the city fashion.

* To BOURGEON. *v. n.* [*bourgeonner*, Fr.] To sprout; to shoot into branches; to put forth buds.—Long may the dew of heaven distil upon them, to make them *bourgeon* and propagate among themselves. *Howel.*—

O that I had the fruitful heads of Hydra,

That one might *bourgeon* whether another fell!
Still would I give thee work! *Dryden.*

BOURGES, an ancient town of France in the department of Cher and late province of Berry. It has a university. Although in extent it is one of the largest cities in France, the inhabitants hardly amount to 25,000, and their trade is inconsiderable. See BERRY, (N. 1.) This city was the birth place of Lewis XI. the Nero of France, and the celebrated preacher Bourdaloue. It is seated on the rivers Auron and Yevre, 25 miles N. W. of Nevers, and 125 S. of Paris. Lon. 1. 28. E. Lat. 47. 5. N.

(1.) BOURGET, a lake of France in the department of Mount Blanc, the ci-devant duchy of Savoy.

(2.) BOURGET, a town of France, 6 miles N. of Chambery, seated on the lake (N. 1.) Lon. 5. 50. E. Lat. 45. 41. N.

(3.) BOURGET, Dominic John, an ingenious French antiquary, was born at the village of Beaumains, near Falaise, in the diocese of Secz, in 1724. He was educated at Caen, and pursued his studies with

with great diligence and success till 1745, when he became a Benedictine monk of the abbey of St Martin de Seez. Some time after, he was appointed prior, and went through several successive promotions till at last he was removed to the abbey of Bec, where he resided till 1764. He was elected an honorary member of the Society of Antiquaries of London, Jan. 10. 1765; in which year he returned to the abbey of St Stephen at Caen, where he continued to the time of his death.—These honourable offices, to which he was promoted on account of his great abilities, enabled him not only to pursue his favourite study of the history and antiquities of some of the principal Benedictine abbeys in Normandy, but likewise gave him access to all their charters, deeds, registers, books, &c. &c. These he examined with great care, and left behind him in MS. large and accurate accounts of the abbeys of St Peter de Jamiges, St Stephen, and the Holy Trinity at Caen (founded by William the Conqueror and his queen Matilda), and a very particular history of the abbey of Bec. These were all written in French. The *History of the Royal Abbey of Bec*, which he presented to Dr Ducarel in 1764, is only an abstract of his larger work. This ancient abbey (which hath produced several archbishops of Canterbury and other illustrious prelates of this kingdom) is frequently mentioned by our old historians. He died 1 Jan. 1776 much regretted.

BOURGOGNE, or **BURGUNDY**, a ci-devant province of France, bounded on the E. by Franche Comte, on the W. by Bourbonnois and Nivernois, on the S. by Lyonois, and on the N. by Champagne. It is fertile in corn, fruits and excellent wines. It is 112 miles in length, and 75 in breadth; and is now formed into the 3 departments of Cote d'Or, Saone and Loire, and Yonne. It is watered by the rivers Seine, Dehune, Brebince, Armancon, Ouche, Souzon, Tille and Saone. Dijon was the capital.

BOURG-SUR-MER. See **BOURG**, No. 1.

BOURGUIGNONS, or **BURGUNDIANS**, one of the northern nations who over-ran the Roman empire, and settled in Gaul. They were of a great stature, and very warlike; for which reason the emperor Valentinian the Great engaged them in his service against the Germans. They lived in tents close to each other, that they might the more readily unite on any unforeseen attack. These conjunctions of tents they called *burghs*; and they loved them for towns. Sidonius Apollinaris tells us, that they wore long hair, took great pleasure in singing, and were fond of praise for their vocal talents. He adds, that they ate great quantities; and anointed their hair with butter, deeming that fashion very ornamental. Their crown was at first elective, and the authority of their kings depended on their success. They were not only accountable for their own misconduct, but likewise for the calamities of nature and fortune. They were deposed if they lost a battle; if they succeeded in any enterprise; or if, in short, any great event had not corresponded with the hopes of the people. They were not more favourably treated in case of a bad harvest or vintage, or if any epidemical distemper ravaged the state. At first they

were governed by many kings, and **HENDIN** was the title of the royal dignity. But in later times they were subjected to one sovereign; and on the introduction of Christianity, they grew humane and civilized. Before that epocha, their religion was much the same with that of the other northern nations. They had many priests, the chief of whom was entitled **SINISTRUS**. He was perpetual, and they paid him great respect.

BOURGUIGNOTTE, a defensive weapon wherewith to cover the head; being a kind of cask, open before, and proof against either pike or musket: its name arose from the Bourguignons, who first introduced it.

BOURIGNON, Antonietta, a famous enthusiastic preacher and pretended prophetess, born at Lisse, in 1616. At her birth she was so deformed, that it was debated some days in the family whether it was not proper to stifle her as a monster; but her deformity diminished, and she was spared; and afterwards obtained such a degree of beauty, that she had her admirers. From her childhood to her old age, she had an extraordinary turn of mind. She set up for a reformer, and published a great number of books filled with very singular notions; the principal of which are intitled, *The light of the World*; *The Testimony of Truth*; and, *The Renovation of the Gospel Spirit*. She was an enemy to reason, which she maintained ought to give place to the illumination of divine faith; and asserted, that whenever any one was born again by embracing her doctrine, she felt the pains and throes of a woman in labour. Of her pretended visions and revelations, we have already given a specimen. See **ADAM**, § 3. With regard to the jarring doctrines of *predestination* and *free-will*, which philosophers, divines, and metaphysicians, in all ages, have puzzled themselves in vain to reconcile, she cut the Gordian knot at once; by asserting, that although God *can* foresee every future event, yet his *power* being equal to his *wisdom*, he *with-holds from himself* the foreknowledge of the actions of those to whom he has given free-will, and thus leaves them entirely free to act as they please; without which, she affirms, he could not be just in punishing their sins. Besides all her extravagances, she had other forbidding qualities: her temper was morose and peevish, and she was extremely avaricious and greedy of amassing riches. She dressed like a hermit, and travelled to France, Holland, England, and Scotland. In the last she made a strong party, and some thousand converts. She died at Franeker in Frise, Oct. 30th, 1680. Her works have been printed in 18 vols 8vo. An apology for her life and her opinions were written by Professor Garden, of Aberdeen.

BOURIGNONISTS, a name given the followers of Antonietta Bourignon, who set up a kind of **QUIETISM**, pretending to be guided by an immediate revelation.

(1.) * **BOURN**. *n. f.* [*borne*, Fr.] 1. A bound; 2. a limit.—

Bourn, bound of land, tilth, vineyard, none.

Shakespeare.

That undiscover'd country, from whose *bound*
No traveller returns.

Shakespeare.

False,

False,

As dice are to be wish'd, by one that fixes
No *bourne* 'twixt his and mine. *Shakespeare.*

I know each lane, and every alley green,
And every bosky *bourne* from side to side. *Milt.*
2. [From *burn*, Saxon.] A brook; a torrent;
whence many towns, seated near brooks, have
names ending in *bourne*. It is now used in either
sense; though the second continues in the Scot-
tish dialect.

Ne swelling Neptune, ne loud thund'ring
Jove,
Can change my cheer, or make me ever mourn :
My little boat can safely pass this perilous *bourne*.
Spenser.

(2.) **BOURN**, a large town in Lincolnshire, seat-
ed on a rivulet that runs through it. It is very
ancient, and had a castle, of which no traces now
remain, but the ditch that surrounded it. K. Ed-
mund was crowned in it. It has a good corn
market, and 3 fairs, March 7, May 6, and Oct.
29. It is 17 m. N. of Peterborough, 35 S. of
Lincoln, and 97 N. of London. Lon. o. 20. W.
Lat. 52. 42. N.

(3.) **BOURN**, a river in Worcestershire.

(4.) **BOURN**, a village in Yorkshire.

BOURNE, *n. s.* See **BOURN**, No. 1.

BOURN-HALL, a village in Cambridgeshire,
8 m. N. W. of Shengay.

BOURNS, a river in Warwickshire.

BOURO, an island in the East Indian ocean,
between the Moluccas and Celebes. It is well
cultivated; and is subject to the Dutch, who have
built a fortress in it. Some of its mountains are
exceedingly high, and the sea on each side is un-
commonly deep. It produces nutmegs, cloves,
ebony, cocoa, and banana trees; besides many
vegetables introduced by the Dutch. It is subject
to earthquakes, and infested with crocodiles; and
is about 50 miles in circumference. Lon. 124. 5.
E. Lat. 3. 30. S.

BOURREE. See **BOREE**.

BOURTHIER-HALL, a village in Essex.

BOURTIE, a parish of Scotland, in Aberdeen-
shire, about 4 m. long and 2 broad, containing
about 4000 acres, of which 600 are inclosed. The
soil is stony but pretty fertile; and produces bar-
ley, oats, potatoes, turnips, and sown grass. The
population in 1793, as stated in the rev. Mr Shep-
herd's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 450, which
was a decrease of 75, within 40 years; but with-
in the last 20 years, it had decreased 110, owing to
the monopoly of farms; one farmer possessing
now what formerly served 4. There are about 130
horses, 500 sheep, and 600 black cattle in the pa-
rish.

BOURTON, 3 English villages, viz. 1. in Dor-
setshire, near Gillingham: 2. *on the hill*, in Glou-
cestershire, 5 m. from Stow and Campden: and,
3. *on the water*, in ditto, about a mile from the
other. It has several good houses and some trade.

* To **BOUSE**. *v. n.* [*busen*, Dutch.] To drink
lavishly; to tope.—

As he rode, he somewhat still did eat,
And in hand did bear a *bousing* can,
Of which he sipt. *Fairy Queen.*

BOUSSAC, a town of France in the depart-

ment of Creuse, seated on a rock; 25 m. N. of
Gueret.

BOUSTROPHEDON, in literature, an ancient
method of writing among the Greeks, wherein
the lines were continued forwards and backwards,
like the furrows in ploughing. See **BOOKS**, § 9.
Pausanias mentions several ancient inscriptions
written in this manner: the laws of Solon are al-
so said to have been thus written; which, as Pau-
sanias explains it, is when the 2d line is turned
on the contrary side, beginning at the end of the
former, thus:

ΕΚ ΔΙΟΣ ΑΡ-
ΒΟΥΣΤΡΟΦΕΔΩΝ

* **BOUSY**. *adj.* [from *bouse*.] Drunken.—
With a long legend of romantic things,
Which in his cups the *bousy* poet sings. *Dryden*
The guests upon the day appointed came,
Each *bousy* farmer with his simp'ring dame. *King*

* **BOUT**. *n. s.* [*botta*, Ital.] A turn; as much
of an action as is performed at one time, without
interruption; a single part of any action carried
on by successive intervals.—

The play began: Pas durst not Cosma chace
But did intend next *bout* with her to meet, *Sidney*

Ladies that have your feet
Unplagu'd with corns, we'll have a *bout*. *Shakespeare*

When in your motion you are hot,
As make your *bouts* more violent to that end,
He calls for drink. *Shakespeare*

If he chance to 'scape this dismal *bout*,
The former legates are blotted out. *Dryden*
—A weasel seized a bat; the bat begged for life:
says the weasel, I give no quarters to birds: say
the bat, I am a mouse; look on my body: so he
got off for that *bout*. *L'Estrange*.—

We'll see when its enough,
Or if it want the nice concluding *bout*. *King*

BOUTADE, in music, an irregular flight or
movement, without art or study.

BOUTAEL, in ichthyology, the name of a
East Indian fish, of the lamprey kind, called also
neegen oogen, and by Mr Ray, *lampetra Indica*.
It is caught in lakes, ponds, and other standing
waters, and is a very wholesome and well tasted
fish. From its general description, it seems to
be rather of the *muscula* than the *lampetra* kind,
but if, as its name expresses, it has several ap-
ertures for the gills, (its Dutch name signifying
eyes,) it is absolutely a new genus.

(1.) **BOUTANT**, or **ARCH-BOUTANT**, in archi-
tecture, an arch, or part of an arch, abutting
against the reins of a vault to prevent its giving
way.

(2.) **BOUTANT**, **PILLAR**, a large chain or pier
of stone, made to support a wall, terrace, or vault.

BOUTE, in the manege, an epithet for a horse
when his legs are in a straight line from the knee
to the coronet: short jointed horses are apt to
boute, but not long jointed ones.

* **BOUTEFEU**. *n. s.* [French.] An incendiary
one who kindles feuds and discontents. Not
disused.—Animated by a base fellow, called John
Chamber, a very *boutefeu*, who bore much swa-
mour

among the vulgar, they entered into open rebellion. *Bacon*.—Nor could ever any order be obtained impartially to punish the known *boute-feux*, and open incendiaries. *King Charles*.—

Besides the herd of *boute-feux*,

We set on work within the house. *Hudibras*.

BOUTH, a village in Lancashire, 4 m. N. of Cartmel.

BOUTHAM, a village near York.

BOUTHIES, in Cheshire, S. of Knutsford.

* BOUTISALE. *n. f.* [I suppose from *bouty* or *bout*, and *sal*.] A sale at a cheap rate, as booty or plunder is commonly sold.—To speak nothing of the great *boutisale* of colleges and chantries. *Sir J. Hayward*.

BOUTON, an island in the East Indian ocean, about 12 miles from the S. E. part of Celebes. The inhabitants are small, but well shaped, and of a dark olive complexion. They speak the Malayan language, and are Mahometans. The principal town is Callasjung. The houses are not built upon the ground, but on posts. Lon. 123. 30. E. Lat. 5. 0. S.

BOUTONNE, a river of France, in the department of Lower Charente, which rises in the c-devant province of Poitou, becomes navigable at St Jean D'Angely and falls into the Charente.

(1.) * BOUTS RIMES. [Fr.] The last words or rhymes of a number of verses given to be filled up.

(2.) BOUTS RIMES are given to a poet, with a subject, to be filled up with verses ending in the same words, and the same order. The invention of the bouts rimes is ascribed to one Du Lot, a French poet, in 1649. In fixing the bouts it is usual to choose such as seem the remotest, and have the least connection. Some authors fancy that these rhymes assist the invention, and furnish the newest thoughts. Sarrafin has a poem on the defect of the bouts rimes. The academy of Lantemits at Tholouse contributed towards keeping up the countenance the bouts rimes, by proposing each year a set of 14 to be filled up on the glories of the grand monarch: the victorious sonnet to be rewarded with a fine medal.—An instance is given in the following, filled up by P. Commire.

*Tout est grand dans le roi ; l'aspect seul de son buste
Rend nos fiers ennemis plus froids que des glaçons.
Et Guillaume n'attend que le tems des moissons,
Pour se voir succomber sous un bras si robuste.
Qu'on ne nous vante plus les miracles d'Auguste;
L'art de bien regner lui seroit des leçons:
Hélas en vain l'écale aux dieux dans ses chansons:
Mieux que mon héros il étoit sage et juste, &c.*

BOUVENEY, a village in Berkshire, near Windsor.

BOUVERIDGE, in Dorsetshire, near Cranborn.

BOUVIERA, in ichthyology, a name given by some to the BUCULCA.

BOUVILLON, a city of France in the ci-devant province of Luxemburg, now included in one of the new departments lately annexed to the republic. Lon. 5. 0. E. Lat. 49. 55. N.

BOVY-TRACEY, a village in Devonshire, near Chudleigh, 5 miles from Ashburnham. It was burnt on Holy Thursday, and July 7.

BOUZONVILLE, a town of France in the de-

partment of the Moselle. Lon. 6. 40. E. Lat. 49. 20. N.

(1.) * BOW. *n. f.* [from the verb. It is pronounced, like the verb, as *now*, *bow*.] An act of reverence or submission, by bending the body.—

Some clergy too she wou'd allow,

Nor quarrel'd at their awkward *bow*. *Swift*.

(2.) * Bow. *n. f.* [pronounced as *grow*, *no*, *lo*, without any regard to the *aw*.] 1. An instrument of war, made by holding wood or metal bent with a string, which, by its spring, shoots arrows with great force.—Take, I pray thee, thy weapons, thy quiver and thy *bow*, and go out to the field, and take me some venison. *Genesis*.—

The white faith of hist'ry cannot show,

That e'er the musket yet could beat the *bow*.

Alleyne's Henry VII.

2. A rainbow.—I do set my *bow* in the cloud, and it shall be for a token of a covenant between me and the earth. *Gen. ix. 13.* 3. The instrument with which string-instruments are struck.—

Their instruments were various in their kind;

Some for the *bow*, and some for breathing wind:

The sawtry, pipe, and hautboy's noisy band,

And the soft lute trembling beneath the touch-

ing hand.

Dryden's Fables.

4. The doubling of a string in a slip-knot. This is perhaps corruptly used for *bought*.—Make a knot, and let the second knot be with a *bow*.

Wisem. 5. A yoke.—As the ox hath his *bow*, fir,

the horse his curb, and the falcon his bells, so

man hath his desire. *Shakesp.* 6. Bow of a saddle.

The *bow* of a saddle are two pieces of wood laid

archwise, to receive the upper part of a horse's

back, to give the saddle its due form, and to keep

it tight. *Farrier's Dict.* 7. Bow of a ship. That

part of her which begins at the loof, and compass-

ing ends of the stern, and ends at the sternmost

parts of the fore-castle. If a ship hath a broad

bow, they call it a *bald bow*; if a narrow thin

bow, they say she hath a *lean bow*. The piece of

ordnance that lies in this place, is called the *bow-*

piece; and the anchors that hang here, are called

her *great* and *little bows*. 8. Bow is also a ma-

thematical instrument, made of wood; formerly

used by seamen in taking the sun's altitude.

9. Bow is likewise a beam of wood or brass, with

three long screws, that direct a lath of wood or

steel to any arch; used commonly to draw

draughts of snips, projections of the sphere, or

wherever it is requisite to draw long arches. *Harris.*

(3.) Bow, (as above defined, § 2. def. 1.) is also

called the LONG BOW, by way of distinction from

the CROSS BOW: (§ 10.) The bow is the most

ancient, and the most universal of all weapons.

It has been found to obtain among the most bar-

barous people, who had the least communication

with the rest of mankind. Barbarous nations of-

ten excel in the fabric of the particular things

which they have the greatest necessity for in the

common offices of life. The Laplanders, who

support themselves almost entirely by hunting,

have an art of making bows, which we, in these

improved parts of the world, have never arrived

at. Their bow is made of two pieces of tough

and strong wood, shaved down to the same size,

and flattened on each side; the two flat sides of the

bow

pieces

pieces are brought closely and evenly together, and then joined by means of a glue made of the skins of pearch, which they have in great plenty, and of which they make a glue superior in strength to any which we have. The two pieces, when once united in this manner, will never separate, and the bow is of much more force to expel the arrow, than it could possibly have been under the same dimensions if made of only one piece. Among the ancients, the bow-string, called *τενὼν*, was made of horses hair, and hence also called *ἵππιον*; though we find Homer's bow-strings frequently made of hides cut into small thongs; whence *τενὼν ἐκ βίου*. The uppermost part of the bow, to which the string was fastened, was called *ἄκρον*, being commonly made of gold, and the last thing towards finishing the bow. The Grecian bows were frequently beautified with gold or silver; whence we have mention of *αὐρεὶ ὄρεος*; and Apollo is called *Ἀρρυσσός*. But the matter of which they were ordinarily composed, seems to have been wood; though they were anciently, Scythian-like, made of horn, as appears from that of Pandarus in *Homer's Iliad*. *β. v. 106*. The invention of the bow is usually ascribed to Apollo, by whom it was communicated to the primitive inhabitants of Crete, who are said to have been the first people who understood the use of bows and arrows. And hence, even in later ages, the Cretan bows were famous, and preferred by the Greeks to all others. Some, however, rather choose to honour Peres, the son of Perseus, with the invention of the bow; while others ascribe it to Scythes, son of Jupiter, and progenitor of the Scythians, who were excellent at this art, and by many reputed the first masters of it. From them it was derived to the Grecians, some of whose ancient nobility were instructed by the Scythians in the use of the bow, which in those days passed for a most princely education. It was first introduced into the Roman army in the second Punic war. The Scythian bow was famous for its incurvation, which distinguished it from the bows of Greece and other nations; being so great as to form a half moon or semicircle: whence the shepherd in Athenæus, in describing the letters in Theophrastus's name, and expressing each of them by some apposite resemblance, compares the *3d* to the Scythian bow; meaning not the more-modern character *z*, but the ancient *C*, which is semicircular, and has the *3d* and *6th* place in *ΘΗΡΕΥΤ*. The Indians still retain the bow. In the repository of the Royal Society there is a West Indian bow two yards long. The use of the bow and arrows was first abolished in France under Louis XI. in 1481, and in their place was introduced the Swiss arms; viz. the halberd, pike, and broad sword. The long bow was formerly in great vogue in England; most of our victories in France were acquired by it; and many laws were made to regulate and encourage its use. See ARCHERY, § 3—5. The parliament under Henry VIII. complain "of the disuse of the long bow, heretofore the safe guard and defence of this kingdom, and the dread and terror of its enemies." (33 Hen. VIII. cap. 6.) The art of using bows is called ARCHERY, and those practised therein, ARCHERS, or BOWMEN. The strength of a bow may be calculated on this

principle, that its spring, i. e. the power whereby it restores itself to its natural position, is always proportionate to the distance or space it is removed therefrom.

(4.) Bow, for taking the sun's altitude, *def. 8.* consisted of a large arch of 90° graduated, a stank or staff, a tide vane, a sight vane, and a horizon vane. It is now out of use.

(5.) Bow, in geography, is the name of,

1. Bow, a river in Shropshire, which runs into the Warren.

2. Bow, or BOWE, a town of Devonshire, near Crediton, 188 miles W. from London. It has a weekly market, and two fairs; in Whitsun week and Nov. 22. The court of the duchy of Lancaster is commonly held in it. It is 14 m. N. W. of Exeter. And,

3. Bow, or STRATFORD LE BOW, a village in Middlesex, near Stratford in Essex, 2 miles N. E. by E. of London. It is memorable for having the first stone bridge ever erected in England; most of the *beams* or arches of which over the Lea, it has its name. It is noted for dyeing scarlet, and has several mills, manufactories and distilleries on the Lea. It has a fair on Whit Thursday.

(6.) Bow, in music, a small machine, which being drawn over the strings of a musical instrument, makes it resound. It is composed of a small stick, to which are fastened 80 or 100 horse hairs, and a screw which serves to give them a proper tension. In order that the bow may touch the strings briskly, it is usual to rub the hair with rosin. The ancients do not appear to have been acquainted with bows of hair: in lieu thereof they touched their instruments with a *PLECTRUM*, over which our bows have great advantage, for giving long and short sounds, and other modifications which a plectrum cannot produce.

(7.) Bow, in navigation, an arch of the horizon comprehended between some distant object and that point of the compass which is right a-head, or to which the ship's stern is directed. The phrase *on the bow* is equally applicable when the object is beheld from the ship, or discovered by trigonometrical calculation: As, we saw a fleet at day-break bearing 3 points *on the starboard-bow*; that is, 3 points from that part of the horizon which is right a-head, towards the right-hand. See BEARING, § 4.

(8.) Bow, in ship-building, [*Epaupe*,] the rounding part of a ship's side forward, beginning at the place where the planks arch inwards; and terminating where they close, at the stem or prow (See § 2. *def. 7.*) It is proved by a variety of experiments, that a ship with a narrow bow is much better calculated for sailing swiftly, than one with a broad bow; but is not so well fitted for a big sea, into which she always pitches or plunges before-part very deep, for want of sufficient breadth to repel the volume of water which she so easily divides in her fall. The former of these is called by seamen a *lean*, and the other a *bluff*, bow. "The bow which meets with the least resistance in a direct course, not only meets with least resistance in oblique courses, but also has the additional property of driving the least to leeward; which is a double advantage gained by forming the bow as to give it that figure which will be least resisted."

is moving through any medium." *Bouguer Traite de Navire.*

(9.) **Bow**, or **Drill-bow**, among artificers, an instrument so called from its figure; used by goldsmiths, gunsmiths, locksmiths, watchmakers, &c. for making a drill go. Among turners it is the name of a pole fixed to the ceiling, to which they fasten the cord that whirls round the piece to be turned.

(10.) **Bow**, **Cross**, or **Arbalest**, consists of a steel bow, set in a shaft of wood, furnished with a string and a trigger; and is bent with a piece of iron fitted for that purpose. It serves to throw bullets, large arrows, darts, &c. The ancients had large machines for throwing many arrows at once, called *balistæ*. See **BALLISTA**, N° 1. and *Fam. XXXV*, fig. 7.

(11.) **Bow**, **Long**. See § 3.

(12.) **Bow of a Saddle**. (See § 2. *def.* 6.) The fore bow which sustains the pommel, is composed of the withers, the breasts, the points or toes, and the cording. The hind bow bears the trosequin or quilted roll. The bows are covered with lewys to make them strong, and strengthened with bands of iron to keep them tight: and on the lower side are nailed the saddle straps, with which they make fast the girths.

(13.) **Bow of the Gills**, a term used by some ichthyologists, to express the convex part of each gill of a fish, each being a long semicircle, terminated by many *laminae*, which form what is called the *leaf*.

(1.) * **To Bow**. *v. a.* [*bugen*, Sax.] 1. To bend, or incline. It sounds as *noax*, or *how*.—

A threepence *bow'd* would hire me,
Old as I am, to queen it. *Shakespeare.*

Orpheus, with his lute, made trees,
And the mountain tops, that freeze,
Bow themselves when he did sing. *Shakespeare.*

Some *bow* the vines, which bury'd in the plain,
Their tops in distant arches rise again. *Dryden.*

—The mind has not been made obedient to discipline, when at first it was most tender and most easy to be *bow'd*. *Locke.* 2. To bend the body in token of respect or submission.—They came to meet him, and *bowed* themselves to the ground before him. 2 *Kings*.—Is it to *bow* down his head as a bulrush, and to spread sackcloth and ashes under him? wilt thou call this a fast, and an acceptable day to the Lord? *Isaiab.* 3. To bend, or incline, in condescension.—Let it not grieve thee to *bow* down thine ear to the poor, and give him a friendly answer. *Ecclesi.* 4. To depress; to crush.—

Are you so gospel'd,
To pray for this good man, and for his issue,
Whose heavy hand hath *bow'd* you to the grave,
And beggar'd yours for ever? *Shakespeare.*

Now wasting years my former strength consumed,
And added woes may *bow* me to the ground.

(1.) * **To Bow**. *v. n.* 1. To bend; to suffer flexure. 2. To make a reverence.—

Rather let my head

Stoop to the block, than these knees *bow* to any
Save to the God of heav'n, and to my king. *Shakespeare.*

—This is the great idol to which the world *bows*;

to this we pay our devoutest homage. *Dryden's Piety.*—

Admir'd, ador'd by all the circling crowd,
For wheresoe'er she turn'd her face, they *bow'd*.

Dryden.

3. To stoop.—The people *bow'd* down upon their knees, to drink. *Judges.* 4. To sink under pressure.—They stoop, they *bow* down together; they could not deliver the burden. *Isaiab.* xlv. 2.

BOWAN's HILLOCK, an ancient fort in Aberdeenshire, 3 miles W. of Peterhead. The moat, parapet, bastions, &c. are very conspicuous.

BOWBARD. See **BOOBY**, N° 1.

(1.) * **BOW-BEARER**. *n. s.* [from *bow* and *bear*.] An under-officer of the forest. *Cowel.*

(2.) **BOW-BEARER**. The bow-bearer is sworn to make inquisition of all trespasses against vert or venison, and to attach offenders.

BOWBEN, a river in Northumberland, which runs into the Till.

* **BOW-BENT**. *adj.* [from *bow* and *bent*.] Crooked.—

A sibyl old, *bow-bent* with crooked age,
That far events full wisely could presage. *Milt.*

BOWCOMB, a village in Dorsetshire, near Buckland Abbas.

BOW-COMPASS, an instrument for drawing arches of very large circles, for which the common compasses are too small. It consists of a beam of wood or brass, with 3 long screws, that govern or bend a lath of wood or steel, to any arch.

(1.) **BOWDEN**, anciently called **BOTHENDEN**, a parish of Scotland, in Roxburghshire, containing about 6700 acres, 6 miles long and 4½ broad. About ¾ are arable and ¼ moss or wood. The surface is hilly and the soil mostly a white clay, best suited for pasture. It produces annually, however, as much barley, oats, wheat, pease, &c. as, after maintaining the inhabitants, admits an export to the value of above 1200 l. besides feeding 160 horses, 340 black cattle, 2300 sheep, and 80 swine. The population, in Jan. 1794, as stated by Mr Blaikie, was 860; and had increased 188, since 1755.

(2—9.) **BOWDEN**, the name of eight English villages: 1. in Cheshire, near Altringham: 2. in Devonshire, near Ilfracomb: 3. in ditto, near Ivy-bridge: 4. **EAST**, in Durham, near Sunderland: 5. **NORTH**, and 6. **WEST**, in ditto, on the road to Shields, N. W. of Sunderland: 7. **MAGNA**, in Leicestershire, on the N. side of the Welland; and, 8. **PARVA**, in Northamptonshire, on the S. side of that river.

BOWDEN-EDGE, } two villages in the High Peak
BOWDEN-HALL, } of Derby.

BOWDITCH, in Dorsetshire, near Chardstock.

BOWDOIN, and } two towns in the United
BOWDOINHAM, } States, in Lincoln County,
in the district of Maine.

BOWDON, a town in Wilts, near Lacock.

BOWDON-HEATH, in Berkshire, between Panghorn and Reading.

BOW DYE, a kind of scarlet red, superior to madder; but inferior to the true scarlet grain for fixedness and duration. It was brought into England, and first practised at the village of Bow, near London, by Kephler, a Dutchman, in 1643.

BOWE. See **Bow**, § 5. N° 2.

* **To BOWEL.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] To pierce the bowels. *Thomson.*—[This article is omitted in Dr Johnson's last folio edition.]

(1.) * **BOWELS.** *n. f.* [*boyaux*, Fr.] 1. Intestines; the vessels and organs within the body.—He smote him therewith under the fifth rib, and shed out his *bowels*. 2 *Sam. xx. 10.* 2. The inner parts of any thing.—

Had we no quarrel else to Rome, but that
Thou art thence banish'd, we would muster all
From twelve to seventy; and pouring war
Into the *bowels* of ungrateful Rome,
Like a bold flood appear. *Shakespeare.*

His soldiers spying his undaunted spirit,
A Talbot! Talbot! cried out amain,
And rush'd into the *bowels* of the battle. *Shak.*
—As he saw drops of water distilling from the rock, by following the veins, he has made himself two or three fountains in the *bowels* of the mountain. *Addison.* 3. The seat of pity, or kindness.—His *bowels* did yearn upon him. *Genesis* 4. Tenderness; compassion—He had no other consideration of money, than for the support of his lustre; and whilst he could do that, he cared not for money; having no *bowels* in the point of running in debt, or borrowing all he could. *Clarendon.* 5. This word seldom has a *plural*, except in writers of anatomy.

(2.) **BOWELS.** See **ANATOMY**, § 286—296.

(1.) **BOWER**, [*i. e.* a valley, Dan.] a parish of Scotland, in the county of Caithness, 7 miles long from E. to W. and 3 broad, from N. to S. The cultivated ground is a long extended vale. The soil is various. The principal produce is oats and barley. About 2000 bolls of oats are annually sold by the proprietors alone; but the produce might be much increased if the commons were cultivated. A gradual abolition of servitudes is taking place. The population, in 1791, as stated by the rev. Mr Smith in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1592, and had increased 305 within 36 years.

(2.) * **BOWER.** *n. f.* [from *bow* or *branch*, or from the verb *To bow* or *bend*.] 1. An arbour; a sheltered place covered with green trees, twined and bent.—

But, O sad virgin, that thy power
Might raise Musæus from his *bower*. *Milton.*

To gods appealing, when I reach their *bow'rs*
With loud complaints, they answer me in *show'rs*.
Waller.

Refresh'd, they wait them to the *bow'r* of
state,

Where; circl'd with his peers, Atrides sat. *Pope.*

2. It seems to signify, in *Spenser*, a blow; a stroke; *bouerrer*, Fr. to fall upon.—

His rawbone arms, whose mighty brawned
bowers.

Were wont to rive steel plates, and helmets hew,
Were clean consum'd, and all his vital powers
Decay'd. *Spenser's Fairy Queen.*

(3.) * **BOWER.** *n. f.* [from the *bow* of a ship.] Anchors so called. See **Bow**.

(4.) **BOWER**, in gardening, a place under covert of trees, differing only from an arbour, as being round or square; and made with a kind of dome or ceiling at top; whereas the arbour is always built long and arched.

(5.) **BOWERS**, in the sea-language, are generally two, called *first* and *second*, *great* and *little*, or *best* and *small* bowers. See **ANCHOR**, § 1—7.

* **To BOWER.** *v. d.* [from the noun.] To embower; to inclose.—

Thou didst *bower* the spirit

In mortal paradise of such sweet *heth*. *Shakes.*

BOWER-LAND, a town near Moldash, Kent.

BOWERS, in Staffordshire, N. of Standon.

* **BOWERY.** *adj.* [from *bower*.] Full of bowers.—

Landskips how gay the *bow'ry* grotto yields,
Which thought creates, and lavish fancy builds.
Tickell.

Snatch'd through the verdant maze, the hurried eye
Distracted wanders: now the *bow'ry* walk
Of covert close, where scarce a speck of day
Falls on the lengthen'd gloom, protracted sweeps.
Thomson.

BOWES, two English villages: 1. in Sussex, E. of New Shoreham; and 2. in Yorkshire, 2 m. from Barnard's castle.

BOWESDEN, a village in Northumberland, between Holyland and the Tweed.

BOWESS, or } in falconry; a young hawk.
BOWET, } when she draws any thing out of her nest; and covets to clamber on the boughs.

* **To BOWGE.** See **To BOUGE**.

BOW-GRACE, in the sea language, a frame or composition of old ropes or junks of cable, used to be laid out at the bows, stems, and sides of ships, to preserve them from great flakes of ice, chiefly when they sail in high N. or S. latitudes.

* **BOW HAND.** *n. f.* [from *bow* and *hand*.] The hand that draws the bow.—Surely he shoots wide on the *bow-hand*, and very far from the mark. *Spenser's Ireland.*

(1.) * **BOWL.** *n. f.* [*buelin*, Welch; which signifies, according to *Junius*, any thing made of horn, as drinking cups anciently were. It is pronounced *bale*.] 1. A vessel to hold liquids, rather wide than deep; distinguished from a cup, which is rather deep than wide.—

Give me a *bowl* of wine;

I have not that alacrity of spirit,
Nor cheer of mind, that I was wont to have.
Shakespeare.

—If a piece of iron be fastened on the side of a *bowl* of water, a loadstone; in a boat of cork, will make unto it. *Brown.*—

The sacred priests, with ready knives, bereave
The beasts of life; and in full *bowls* receive
The streaming blood. *Dryden.*

While the bright Sein, t' exalt the soul,
With sparkling plenty crowns the *bowl*,
And wit and social mirth inspires.

Penton to Lord Gower.

2. The hollow part of any thing.—If you are allowed a large silver spoon for the kitchen, let half the *bowl* of it be worn out with continual scraping. *Swift.* 3. A basin, or fountain.—But the main matter is so to convey the water, as it never stay either in the *bowl* or in the cistern. *Bacon.*

(2.) * **BOWL.** *n. f.* [*boule*, Fr. It is pronounced as *cow*. *bowl*] A round mass, which may be rolled along the ground.—

Like

Like to a *bowl* upon a subtle ground,
I've tumbld past the throw. *Shakesp.*

How finely dost thou times and seasons spin!
And make a twist checker'd with night and day!
Which as it lengthens, winds, and winds us in,
As *twins* go on, but turning all the way. *Herbert.*

—Like him, who would lodge a *bowl* upon a precipice, either my praise falls back, or stays not on the top, but rolls over. *Dryden.*—Men may make a game at *bowls* in the summer, and a game at *whisk* in the winter. *Dennis's Letters.*—Though the piece of wood, which is now a *bowl*, may be made square, yet, if roundness be taken away, it is no longer a *bowl*. *Watt's Logic.*

* To *BOWL*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To roll a *bowl*. 2. To pelt with any thing rolled.—

Abs! I had rather be set quick i' th' earth,
And *bowl'd* to death with turnips.

Merry Wives of Windsor.

BOWLAND FOREST, in Yorksh. near Lancash.

* **BOWLDER-STONES**. *n. s.* Lumps or fragments of stones or marble, broke from the adjacent cliffs, rounded by being tumbled to and away by the water; whence their name. *Woodward.*

1. * **BOW-LEGGED**. *adj.* [from *bow* and *leg*.] Having crooked legs.

2. **BOW-LEGGED**, or **BANDY-LEGGED**. Some children are bow-legged from their birth; others become so from setting them on their feet too early. The tibia of some is crooked; the knees of others are distorted; from a fault in the ankle, the feet of some are turned inwards. These are called *vari*; and in others, who are called *valgi*, they are turned outwards. The best method of preventing these disorders in weakly children is to exercise them duly, but not violently, by tossing them about in one's arms; and not setting them much upon their feet, at least not without properly supporting them; if the disorder attends at birth, or increases after it is begun, apply emollients, then boots of strong leather, wood, &c. and gradually to dispose the crooked legs to a proper form. Other instruments may be used instead of boots, which, when not too costly, are easily to be preferred. Slighter instances of these disorders yield to careful nursing, without instruments. The cold bath has been recommended, and may often be of service; but if the child be very weak, it will do more hurt than good. A strengthening diet will always be of service.

* **BOWLER**. *n. s.* [from *bowl*.] He that plays at *bowls*.

BOWLEY, a village near Raghani, Suffex.

1. * **BOWLINE**. **BOWLING**. *n. s.* [sea term.] A rope fastened to the middle part of the outside of a sail; it is fastened in three or four parts of the sail, called the *bowling bridle*. The use of the *bowling* is to make the sails stand sharp or close to the wind. *Harris.*

2. **BOW-LINES** are only used when the wind is so unfavourable that the sails must be all braced sideways, or close hauled to the wind. In this situation the bow-lines are employed to keep the weather or windward edges of the principal sails tight, forward, and steady, without which they would always be shivering, and rendered incapable of service. To *check* the bow-line is to slacken it, when the force of the wind requires it.

1. **BOWLING**, the art of playing at *bowls*.—This game is practised either in open places, as *bare* and *bowling greens*, or in close *bowling alleys*. The skill of bowling depends much on a knowledge of the ground, and the right choice of a *bowl* suitable to it: for close alleys, the flat *bowl*; for green swards plain and level, the *bowl* as round as a ball is preferred. The terms used in bowling are; to *bowl wide*, which is when the bias does not hold, or is not strong enough; *narrow*, when it is too strong, or holds too much; *finely bowled*, is when the ground is well chosen, and the *bowl* passes near the block, even though it goes much beyond it: *bowling through* or a *yard over*, is done in order to move the block; an *over bowl*, that which goes beyond it; a *bowl laid at hand*, is that put done within the gamester's reach, to be in the way of the next bowler, and hinder his having the advantage of the best ground; *bowling at length*, neither bowling through nor short; a *dead length*, a just or exact one; *throwing* or *flinging*, is discharging a *bowl* with a strength purposely too great for a length, in order to carry off either the block or some near *bowl*; *bowl-room*, or *missing wood*, is when a *bowl* has free passage, without striking on any other; *get off*, is when a *bowl* being narrow, is wanted to be wider; *bowl best at block*, that nearest the block: *drawing a cast or bowl*, is to win it by bowling nearer, without stirring either the *bowl* or block; a *bowl* is said to *rub*, when it meets with some obstacle in the ground, which retards its motion, and weakens its force; *it is gone*, when far beyond the block. *Block* signifies a little *bowl* laid for a mark, also called a *jack*. *Mark*, is a proper bowling distance, not under a certain number of yards; and at least a yard and a half from the edge of the green. *Ground*, a bag or handkerchief laid down to mark where a *bowl* is to go. *Lead*, the advantage of throwing the block, and bowling first. *Cast*, is one best *bowl* at an end. *End*, a hit, or when all the *bowls* are out. The *game*, or *up*, is five casts or best *bowls*.

2. **BOWLING**, in geography, a village in Yorkshire, a mile from Bradford.

3. * **BOWLING**. See **BOW-LINE**, § 1.

BOWLING BAY, a place in the county of Dumbarton, at which the chairman of the committee on the FORTH and CLYDE navigation, after descending the last lock of the great canal into the Clyde, with the assistance of Mr Whitworth, performed the ceremony of joining the eastern and western seas together, by the symbol of launching a hog's head of the water of the Forth into the Clyde, on the 28th July, 1796.

BOWLING BRIDLES, the ropes by which the bow-line is fastened to the leech of the sail.

1. * **BOWLING-GREEN**. *n. s.* [from *bowl* and *green*.] A level piece of ground, kept smooth for bowlers.—A *bowl* equally poised, and thrown upon a plain *bowling-green*, will run necessarily in a direct line. *Bentley.*

2. **BOWLING-GREEN**, in gardening, a kind of parterre in a grove, laid with fine turf, requiring to be frequently mowed, laid out in compartments of divers figures, with dwarf trees and other decorations. *Bowling-greens* are of English origin, but have been adopted by the French and Italians,

Italians, who have them only for ornament; being unacquainted with, or not fancying the exercise, on account of which they were first made in England.

(3.) BOWLING-GREEN, THE D. OF ARGYLL'S, a name ironically given to the western range of the Grampian mountains in Argyllshire, on account of their uncommonly rugged and craggy appearance. *Stat. Acc. Vol. V. p. 538.*

BOWLTON, a village in Derbyshire, W. of Alveston.

BOW-MAKER. See BOWYER, § 2.

* BOWMAN. *n. f.* [from *bow* and *man*.] An archer; he that shoots with a bow.—The whole city shall flee, for the noise of the horsemen and bowmen. *Jerem. iv. 29.*

BOWMERE, a village in Northumberland, N. of Aylmouth.

(1.) BOWMORE, a thriving village of Argyllshire, in the isle of Islay. It was only begun in 1768, but being laid out on a regular plan, and an elegant church and steeple built in it, (which cost L 1000,) fronting the quay, it is already become very populous. In 1793, it contained 500 people, and 110 houses; of which 50 were covered with blue slates and 20 with tiles.

(2.) BOWMORE. See KILLARROW.

BOWNESS, a village of Westmoreland, pleasantly seated on the lake Winandermere.

BOW-NET, or BOW-WHEEL, an engine for catching fish, chiefly lobsters and craw-fish, made of two round wicker baskets, pointed at the end, one of which is thrust into the other; at the mouth is a little rim, 4 or 5 inches broad, somewhat bent inwards. It is also used for catching sparrows.

BOWOOD, a village in Dorsetshire, 2 m. W. of Netherby.

* BOW-PIECES, pieces of ordnance at the bow of a ship.

BOWSDEN, a village in Hertfordshire, 3 m. S. W. of Buntingford.

To BOWSE, *v. n.* in the sea language, to *bale* or *pull*. Thus *bowsing upon a tack*, is hailing upon a tack; *Bowse away*, Pull away all together.

BOW'S-FARM, a village in Middlesex, near Hornsey.

* BOW-SHOT. *n. f.* [from *bow* and *shot*.] The space which an arrow may pass in its flight from the bow.—Though he were not then a *bow-shot* off, and made haste; yet, by that time he was come, the thing was no longer to be seen. *Boyle.*

(1.) * BOWSPRIT. *n. f.* [from the *bow* of a ship.] This word is generally spelt BOLTSPRIT; which see.

(2.) BOWSPRIT carries the sprit-sail, sprit-top-sail, and jack-staff; and its length is usually the same with that of the fore-mast.

* To BOWSSEN. *v. a.* [probably of the same original with *bouso*, but found in no other passage.] To drench; to soak.—The water fell into a close walled plot; upon this wall was the frantick person set, and from thence tumbled headlong into the pond; where a strong fellow tossed him up and down, until the patient, by foregoing his strength, had somewhat forgot his fury: but it there appeared small amendment, he was *bowssened* again and again, while there remained in him any hope of life, &c. *Carraw's Survey of Cornwall.*

BOWSTEAD, a village in Cumberland, n. Burgh-Marsh.

BOWSTERTON, in Yorkshire 9 m. N. of Barnsley.

* BOWSTRING. *n. f.* [from *bow* and *string*.] The string by which the bow is kept bent.—had twice or thrice cut Cupid's *bowstring*, the little hangman dare not shoot at him. *Shakspeare*.—Sound will be conveyed to the ear, by strike upon a *bowstring*, if the horn of the bow be to the ear. *Bacon.*

BOWTELL, a village in Cumberland, S. E. of Seaton.

BOWTHORP, 2 villages; viz. 1. in Gloucester, N. of Fairford: 2. in Norfolk, W. of Norwich.

BOWTON, 2 villages: 1. in Norfolk, S. of W. Dereham: 2. in Northumberland, 3 m. of Alnwick.

BOW-WHEEL. See BOW-NET.

(1.) * BOWYER. *n. f.* [from *bow*.] An archer one that uses the bow.—

Call for vengeance from the *bowyer* king. *Dante*.
2. One whose trade is to make bows.

(2.) A BOWYER, or BOW-MAKER, was and is a distinct business from a FLETCHER, or arrow maker. The company of Bowyers was incorporated so late as 1620, and consists of 2 masters, 12 assistants, and 30 on the livery.

(3.) BOWYER, William, the most learned printer of his age, was born at White Friar London, Dec. 17, 1699. His father, whose name also was William, had been eminent in the profession; and his maternal grandfather, Isaac Dawks, was employed in printing Bp. Wake's celebrated Polyglott bible. Having acquired grammatical education under Mr Ambrose Bonwicke, he made great advances in literature, and a firm attachment commenced betwixt him and his master. On the 30th Jan. 1713, his father's whole property being destroyed by fire, Mr Bonwicke generously undertook the education of his pupil for another year. In 1716, young Bowyer was admitted a sizar at St John's college, Cambridge, where he continued under Dr Newcome till Jun. 1722. Soon after this he had an opportunity of repaying Mr Bonwicke's kindness, by assisting some time after his death, as a schoolmaster for the benefit of his family. He next entered into the printing business along with his father. One of the first books which received the benefit of his correction was the complete edition of Selden's 3 vols fol. by Dr David Wilkins. It was begun in 1722, and finished in 1726; and Mr Bowyer's great attention to it appeared in his drawing up an epitome of Selden's *de Synedriis*, as he read the proof sheets. In 1727, he drew up an excellent sketch of W. Baxter's Glossary of the Roman Antiquities; called "A view of a book intitled *Rerum quæ Baxterianæ*: in a letter to a friend;" 1 sheet 8vo. By this first public proof of his abilities, Dr Wotton and Mr Clarke were highly pleased; but as it was never published, and very few copies printed, it is very seldom found with the glossary. In Oct. 1728, he married Miss Ann Prudom, his cousin, a very accomplished lady, by whom he had two sons; of whom, William survived him. In 1729, he published a curious treatise, intitled "A Pattern for young Students in the University."

At forth in the Life of Ambrose Bonwicke, some time Scholar of St John's College, Cambridge;" which was generally ascribed to Mr Bowyer, though it was in reality wrote by Mr Bonwicke the elder. About this time Mr Bowyer had written a pamphlet against the Separatists, though neither the title nor the occasion of it are now remembered. The same year, through the friendship of the R. H. Arthur Onslow, he was appointed printer of the Votes of the House of Commons; which office he held, for near 50 years. In 1731, he published, and, it is believed, translated Voltaire's Life of Charles XII. This year also his wife dying, he remained a widower till 1747, when he married a worthy woman, Mrs Elizabeth B., by whom he had no children. In 1733, he published in two sheets 4to, "The Beau and the Academic;" being a translation from a Latin piece recited that year at the Sheldonian theatre; and in 1736, he was admitted into the Society of Antiquarians, where he became an useful member. In 1742, he published a translation of Tapp's Latin Lectures on Poetry, in which he was assisted by Mr Clarke. In 1750, he annexed a satirical critical dissertation and some notes to Lett's Treatise *De usu verborum mediocrium*; a 2d edition of which, with farther improvements, appeared in 1773. He wrote likewise about the same time a Latin preface to Leedes's *Veteres poete* &c.—Being soon after employed to print a edition of Col. Bladen's translation of Cæsar's Commentaries, that work received considerable improvements from Mr Bowyer's hands, with the addition of such notes in it as are signed TYPOCR. In the subsequent editions of this work, though printed by another person during the author's lifetime, the same signature, though contrary to justice, was still retained. In 1751, he wrote a long preface to Montesquieu's "Reflections on the rise and fall of the Roman Empire;" translated the dialogue between Sylla and Socrates; made several corrections to the work from the Baron's "Art of Laws;" and improved it with his own notes. A new edition, with many new notes, was printed in 1759. In 1751, he also published the first translation that ever was made of Rousseau's paradoxical oration, which gained the prize of the academy of Dijon in 1750; and which first announced that singular genius to the attention and admiration of Europe. On the publication of the 3d edition of Lord Orrery's Remarks on the Life and Writings of Dr Swift, in 1752, Mr Bowyer wrote and printed, but never published, "Two Letters from Dr Bentley in the Shades below, to Lord Orrery in a Land of thick darkness." The notes signed B. in the 9th 4to vol. of Swift's works are extracted from these Letters. In 1753, he endeavoured to allay the ferment occasioned by the Jew bill; with which view he published, in 4to, "Remarks on the speech made in common council, on the bill for permitting persons professing the Jewish religion to be naturalized, so far as prophecies are supposed to be affected by it." This little tract was written with spirit, and well received by all who were superior to narrow prejudices. Its design was to show, that Christianity was in no danger of being prejudiced by the intended protection promised to the Jews. The

same year some of Mr Bowyer's notes were annexed to Bishop Claton's translation of "A journal from Grand Cairo to mount Sinai and back again." In 1761, Mr Bowyer was appointed printer to the Royal Society, through the interest of the E. of Macclesfield; and enjoyed that office till his death. In 1763, Mr Bowyer published an excellent edition of the Greek Testament, in two vols 12mo, which sold with great rapidity: the Conjectural Emendations were well received by the learned, and are thought valuable. The president and fellows of Harvard college in Cambridge expressed their approbation of this edition in very high terms; and reckoned it, "of more value than many large volumes of the commentators." A second edition of the Conjectures on the New Testament, with enlargements, was published, in one vol. 8vo, in 1772. Dr Warburton's Divine Legation received very considerable advantage from Mr Bowyer's corrections; and this even in an edition which was necessarily given to another press. In 1761 he printed his Doctrine of Grace. In 1765, at the request of Thomas Hollis, Esq; Mr Bowyer wrote a short Latin preface to Dr Wallis's *Grammatica Lingue Anglicanæ*. He wrote also a large English preface for it, which, however, still remains unprinted. In 1766 he wrote an excellent Latin preface to *Joannis Harduini, Jesuitæ, ad Censuram Scriptorum veterum Prolegomena. Juxta Autographum*. In 1767 he was appointed to print the Journals of the House of Lords, and the Rolls of Parliament. This year he printed Mr Clarke's learned work on "The Connection of the Roman, Saxon, and English Coins;" and wrote some notes upon it, which are interspersed with those of the author. Part of the Dissertation on the Roman sesterce was likewise Mr Bowyer's production; and the index, which is an uncommonly good one, was drawn up by him entirely. In 1771, he printed a small pamphlet, intitled, "Remarks, occasioned by a late Dissertation on the Greek and Roman money." In 1773, he published 3 little tracts entitled, "Select Discourses. 1. Of the correspondence of the Hebrew months with the Julian, from the Latin of Professor Michaelis. 2. Of the Sabbatical years, from the same. Of the years of jubilee, from an anonymous writer in Masson's *Histoire Critique de la Republique des Lettres*." In 1774 he corrected a new edition of Schrevelius's Greek Lexicon; to which he has added a number of words, distinguished by an asterisk, which he had collected in the course of his studies. Considerable additions, still in M. S. were made by him to the lexicons of Hederic and Buxtorf, the Latin ones of Faber and Littleton, and the English Dictionary of Bailey; and he left behind him many other proofs of his critical skill in the learned languages. In 1774 was published, "The Origin of printing, in two essays. 1. The substance of Dr Middleton's Dissertation on the Origin of Printing in England. 2. Mr Meerman's Account of the Invention of the Art at Haarlem, and its progress to Mentz, with occasional Remarks; and an Appendix." The original idea of this valuable tract was Mr Bowyer's, but it was completed by Mr Nicholas. During the last ten years of his life, he was afflicted with the palsy and stone; yet he not only

only preserved a remarkable cheerfulness of temper, but was enabled to support the labour of almost incessant reading; and he regularly corrected the learned works, especially the Greek books, which came from his press. This he continued to do till near his death, which happened in Nov. 1777, in his 78th year. For more than half a century Mr Bowyer was unrivalled as a learned printer; and many of the most masterly productions of this kingdom have come from his press. To his literary and professional abilities he added an excellent moral character; and he was particularly distinguished by his inflexible probity, and an uncommon alacrity in relieving the necessitous.

(1.) * BOX. *n. f.* [*bock*, a cheek, Welch.] A blow on the head given with the hand.—For the box o' th' ear that the prince gave you, he gave it like a rude prince. *Shakespeare*.—If one should take my hand perforce, and give another a box on the ear with it, the law punisheth the other. *Bramball*.—There may happen concussions of the brain from a box on the ear. *Wifeman's Surgery*.—Olphis, the fisherman, received a box on the ear from Thestylis. *Addison's Spectator*.

(2.) * Box. *n. f.* [*box*, Sax. *buxte*, Germ.] 1. A case made of wood, or other matter, to hold any thing. It is distinguished from *chest*, as the *less* from the *greater*. It is supposed to have its name from the box wood.—A magnet, though but in an ivory box, will, through the box, send forth his embracing virtue to a beloved needle. *Sidney*.—
About his shelves

A beggarly account of empty boxes. *Shakespeare*.—The lion's head is open to a most wide voracious mouth, which shall take in letters and papers. There will be under it a box, of which the key will be kept in my custody, to receive such papers as are dropped into it. *Steele*.

This casket India's glowing gems unlocks,
And all Arabia breathes from yonder box. *Pope*.
2. The case of the mariners compass. 3. The chest into which money given is put.—

So many more, so every one was used,
That to give largely to the box refused. *Spenser*.
4. The seats in the playhouse, where the ladies are placed.

'Tis left to you, the boxes and the pit
Are sovereign judges of this sort of wit. *Dryd.*
She glares in balls, front boxes, and the ring,
A vain, unquiet, glittering, wretched thing.

Pope.
(3.) Box is also used for an uncertain quantity or measure: thus a box of quicksilver contains from one to two lb.; a box of prunellas only 14 lb.; a box of rings for keys, two gross, &c. See also Dice Box, and similar compounds of Box, in their order.

(4.) * Box: *n. f.* [*box*, Sax. *buxus*, Lat.] A tree.—The leaves are pinnated, and evergreen; it hath male flowers: that are produced at remote distances from the fruit, on the same tree; the fruit is shaped like a porridge-pot, inverted, and is divided into three cells, containing two seeds in each, in which, when ripe, are cast forth by the elasticity of the vessels. The wood is very useful for engravers, and mathematical instrument-makers; being so hard, close, and ponderous, as to sink in water. *Müller*.—Box, there are two sorts of it;

the dwarf box, and a taller sort. The dwarf box is very good for borders, and is easily kept in order, with one clipping in the year. It will increase of slips set in March, or about Bartholomew tide, and will prosper on the declivity of cold, dry, barren, chalky hills, where nothing else will grow.

(5.) Box, in botany. See BUXUS.

(6.) Box, in geography, a village in Wiltshire, between Bath and Chippenham.

(7.) Box, in ichthyology, a name given by some zoologists to the BOOPS.

(8.) BOX AND NEEDLE, the small compass of a theodolite, circumferentor or plain table.

(9.) BOX, AFRICAN. See MYRSINE.

(10.) BOX, LOW. See POLYGALA.

(1.) * To Box. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To inclose in a box.—

Box'd in a chair, the beau impatient sits,
While spouts run clatt'ring o'er the roof by fits. *Swift*.

(2.) * To Box. *v. a.* To strike with the fist.

(3.) * To Box. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To fight with the fist.—The als very fairly looked on, till they had boxed themselves a-weary, and then left them fairly in the lurch. *L'Estrange*.—A leopard is like a cat; he boxes with his forefeet, as a cat doth her kittens. *Grew*.—The fighting with man's shadow consists in brandishing two sticks, loaded with plugs of lead; this gives a man all the pleasure of boxing, without the blows. *Spectator*.—He hath had six duels, and four and twenty boxing matches, in defence of his majesty's title. *Spectator*.

* BOXEN. *n. f.* [from box.] 1. Made of box.—The young gentlemen learned, before all other things, to design upon tablets of boxen wood. *Dryden*.—

As lads and lasses stood around,
To hear my boxen hautboy sound. *Gay*.
2. Resembling box.—

Her faded cheeks are chang'd to boxen hue,
And in her eyes the tears are ever new. *Dryden*.

(1.) * BOXER. *n. f.* [from box.] A man who fights with his fist.

(2.) BOXERS, among the Romans were called PUGILES. The ancient boxers battled with great force and fury, insomuch as to dash out each others teeth, break bones, and often kill each other. The strange disfigurements these boxers underwent were such that they frequently could not be known, and rendered them the subject of many raileries. In the Greek anthology there are 4 epigrams of Lucilius, and one of Lucian, wherein their disfigurements are pleasantly enough exposed. See BOXING, § 1.

BOXFORD, 1. a town in Essex, 4 S. W. from Hadley: 2. a village in Berkshire, near Winterborn.

BOXGROVE, a town in Suffex, near Chichester, N. E. of Stour; 4 m. S. W. of Hadley, 8 N. of Colchester, 12 S. W. of Ipswich. It has fairs on Easter Monday and St Thomas's day.

BOX-HAULING, in sea language, a particular method of veering a ship, when the swell renders tacking impracticable.

BOX-HILL, a town in Surry, near Dorking.

BOXHORNIIUS, Marc Zuerius, a learned critic; born at Bergen-op-Zoom, in 1612, was professor of eloquence at Leyden, and at length of politics

politics and history in the room of Heinſius. He published, 1. *Theatrum urbium Hollandiæ*. 2. *Scriptura: hiſtoriæ Auguſtæ, cum notis*. 3. *Poetæ ſatyrici ævioreſ, cum comment.* 4. Notes on Juſtin, Tacitus; and a great number of other works: He died in 1653, aged 41.

1.) **BOXING**, the exerciſe of fighting with the fiſts, either naked or with a ſtone or leaden ball graſped in them. It coincides with the *pugilatus* of the Romans, and what on our amphitheatres is ſometimes called trial of manhood. When the champions had *ſquæſæ*, or balls, whether of lead or ſtone, it was properly denominated *SPHEROMACHIA*. The ancient boxing differed from the *pugna caſtrum*, in which the combatants had leathern thongs in their hands, and balls to hurt their antagoniſts; though this diſtinction is frequently overlooked, and fighting with the *caſtus* marked as a part of the buſineſs of *pugiles*. There were 3 ſpecies of boxing, viz. 1. where both the head and hands were naked; 2. where the hands were armed, and the head naked; and, 3. where the head was covered with a kind of cap called *œnæotides*, and the hands alſo furniſhed with the *caſus*. Boxing is an ancient exerciſe, having been in uſe in the heroic ages. Thoſe who prepared themſelves for it, uſed all the means that could be contrived to render themſelves fat and fleſhy, that they might be better able to endure blows: whence corpulent men or women were uſually called *pugiles*. In modern times this art has been in a manner appropriated by the Engliſh. Above half a century ago, it formed as regular an exhibition as we now ſee at any of the places of public amuſement, the theatres alone excepted. It was encouraged by the firſt ranks of the nobility, patroniſed by the firſt ſubject in the realm, and tolerated by the magiſtrates. Before the eſtabliſhment of Broughton's amphitheatre, a booth was erected at Tottenham Court, in which the proprietor Mr George Taylor, invited the profeſſors of the art to diſplay their ſkill, and the public to be preſent at its exhibition. The bruſers then had the reward due to their proweſs, in a diviſion of the entrance-money, which was ſometimes L. 100 or L. 150. The general mode of ſharing was for two-thirds to go to the winning champion, while the remaining third was the right of the loſer; though ſometimes by an expreſs agreement of the parties, the conqueror and the vanquiſhed ſhared alike. The nobility and gentry having complained of the inconveniences ſuſtained at Taylor's Booth, prevailed on Mr Broughton, who was then riſing into note as the firſt bruſer in London, to build a place better adapted for ſuch exhibitions. This was accordingly done in 1742, principally by ſubſcription, behind Oxford road. The building was called Broughton's New Amphitheatre; and, beſides the ſtage for the combatants, had ſeats correſponding to the boxes, pit, and galleries. After a courſe of years, however, theſe exhibitions became gradually leſs patroniſed and frequented, owing probably to the refinement of our manners. Lately, indeed, they ſeemed to be revived, and for ſome time conſiderably engaged the attention of the public; but a fatal iſſue which attended one of them, brought the practice again into diſrepute. One of the combatants was killed.

VOL. IV. PART I.

ed on the ſpot. The Prince of Wales was preſent, and declared he would have ſome ſettlement made on the neareſt relation of the deceaſed, but that on account of the dreadful example he had then witneſſed, he would never more either ſee or patroniſe another ſtage fight.

(2.) **BOXING**, among ſailors, is uſed to denote the rehearſing the ſeveral points of the compaſs in their proper order.

(3.) **BOXING** is alſo uſed for the tapping of a tree to make it yield its juice. The boxing of mapple is performed by making a hole with an ax or chisel into the ſide of the tree about a foot from the ground; out of it flows a liquor of which ſugar is made.

BOXLEY, a village near Maidſtone, Kent.

BOXLEYS, in Surry, near Chertſey.

BOXTED, in Eſſex, W. of Dedham, near Maningtree: It has a fair Whiſſun. Tueſ.

BOXTED-CUM-HARTEST, in Suffolk, 5 m. W. of Lavenham.

BOXTEHUDE, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Bremen, and circle of Lower Saxony, ſubject to the Danes. It is ſeated on the rivulet Eſſe. Lon. 9. 35. E. Lat. 53. 40. N.

BOXTEL, a town in Dutch Brabant, with ſluices, ſeated on the river Bommel; 8 m. S. of Bois-leduc. Lon. 5. 15. E. Lat. 51. 30. N.

BOXTHUDE. See **BOXTEHUDE**.

BOXWELL, a village in Glouceſterſhire, 6 m. W. from Tetbury.

BOXUS, a name given by ſome to the Miſletoe.

BOXWORTH, a town 7 m. W. of Cambridge.

* **BOY**. *n. ſ.* [*boy*, Germ. The etymology is not agreed on.] 1. A male child; not a girl.—The ſtreets of the city ſhall be full of *boys* and *girls* playing. *Zeebs*. 2. One in the ſtate of adolescence; older than an infant, yet not arrived at puberty or manhood.—

Speak thou, *boy*;

Perhaps thy childliſneſs will move him more
Than can our reaſons. *Shakeſp. Coriolanus*.

Sometimes forgotten things, long caſt behind,
Ruſh forward in the brain, and come to mind:
The nurſe's legends are for truths receiv'd,
And the man dreams but what the *boy* believ'd.

Dryden.

3: A word of contempt for young men, as noting their immaturity.—Men of worth and parts will eaſily admit the familiarity of *boys*, who yet need the care of a tutor. *Locke*.—

The pale *boy* ſenator yet tingling ſtands;
And holds his breeches cloſe with both his hands.

Pope.

* **To BOY**. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To treat as a boy:—

Anthony

Shall be brought drucken forth, and I ſhall ſee
Some ſqueaking Cleopatra *boy* my greatneſs,
I' th' poſture of a whore. *Shakeſpeare*

BOYAR, a grandee of Ruſſia and Tranſylvania! Becman ſays, that the Boyars are the upper nobility; and have precedence of the **WAYWODES**.

BOYAU, in fortification, a ditch covered with a parapet, which ſerves as a communication between two trenches. It runs parallel to the works of the body of the place; and ſerves as a line of contravallation, not only to hinder the ſallies of

M m

the

the besieged, but also to secure the miners. But when it is a particular cut that runs from the trenches to cover some spot of ground, it is drawn so as not to be enfiladed or scoured by the shot from the town.

BOYCOT, a village in Shropshire, 3 m. S. E. of Westbury.

(1.) **BOYD**, Mark Alexander, an extraordinary genius, was son of Robert Boyd, and grandson of Adam Boyd of Pinkhill, brother to Lord Boyd. He was born in Galloway in 1562, and came into the world with teeth. He learned the rudiments of the Latin and Greek languages at Glasgow under two grammarians; but was of so high and untractable a spirit, that they despaired of ever making him a scholar. Having quarrelled with his masters, he beat them both, burnt his books, and forswore learning. While yet a youth, he followed the court, and did his utmost to push his interest there; but the fervour of his temper soon precipitated him into quarrels, from which he came off with honour and safety, though frequently at the hazard of his life. He went to serve in the French army, and carried his little patrimony with him, which he soon dissipated at play. He was shortly after roused by that emulation which is natural to great minds, and applied himself to letters with unremitting ardour, till he became one of the most consummate scholars of his age. He is said to have translated Cæsar's Commentaries into Greek in the style of Herodotus, and to have written many Latin poems, little inferior to the first productions of the Augustan age. He also left several MSS. on philological, political, and historical subjects, in the Latin and French, languages as familiar to him as his native tongue. He could with facility dictate to three amanuenses at the same time, in different languages, and on different subjects. He was also one of the best Scottish poets of the age. And his personal beauty and accomplishments were equal to his mental superiority. He died at Pinkhill, in 1601. The following works, which are all that have been printed, were published in *Delicia Poetarum Scotorum*; Amstel. 1637, 12mo. 1. *Epigrammata*, lib. ii. 2. *Heroidum Epistolæ* XIV. lib. i. 3. *Hymni* XIV.

(2.) **BOYD**, Zachary, a clergyman of the church of Scotland, who flourished in the 16th century, about the time of the reformation. We have looked in vain for an account of him in the *Biographia Britannica*, the different *Encyclopædiæ*, *Bayle's Dictionary*, and similar works. He is not even mentioned in *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* of the University of Glasgow, which is the more surprising that he was a liberal Donor to it, as an evidence of which his statue is erected on the front of it. It is a current tradition, that he was very learned and pious, but that his piety led him to the very excentric length of turning the whole bible into rhyme, in the vulgar dialect of the country, to be published for the benefit (as he intended) of the lower ranks; and that he left a large sum of money to build the college on the express condition of having his metrical version printed; but that his executors were of so very different an opinion, from the reverend author, of the tendency of his work, that it has been ever

since kept carefully locked up under several keys, held by the different professors, and only shown as a curiosity to particular friends. Indeed if the work be of a piece with some verses, which we have heard retailed as quotations from this extraordinary MS. the executors and their successors have certainly acted very wisely in keeping it from the public eye; as the versification is so homely and often so indelicate, that the publication would be a complete burlesque on sacred scripture.

BOYDON, a village in Essex, 4 miles from Epping and Waltham.

(1.) **BOYER**, Abel, an eminent glossographer and historiographer, born at Castres in France, in 1664. On the revocation of the edict of Nantz, he went first to Geneva, then to Franeker, and finally to England, where he applied himself closely to the study of the English language, and made so great a proficiency therein, that he became an author of considerable note in it, being employed in several periodical and political works. He, for many years, had the principal management of a newspaper, called the *Post-boy*. He likewise published a monthly work, intitled, the *Political State of Great Britain*. He wrote a life of queen Anne in folio, which is esteemed a very good chronicle of that period of the English history.—But he is most famed for his excellent Dictionary and Grammar of the French language, which have been long esteemed the best of their kind. He also wrote, or rather translated from the French of M. de Racine, the tragedy of Iphigenia, which he published under the title of *The Victim*. It was performed with success at the theatre of Drury Lane, and affords a strong proof of the abilities of its author. Writing with any degree of correctness, even in prose, in a foreign language, is an excellence not often attained; but to attain such perfection, as to be even sufferable in poetry, and especially in the Drama, in which the diction and manner of expression require a peculiar dignity and force, and in a language so difficult to attain the perfect command of, as the English, is what has been very seldom accomplished. He died in 1729.

(2.) **BOYER**, in navigation, a kind of Flemish sloop, or small vessel of burden, having a boltsprit, a castle at each end, and a tall mast: chiefly fit for the navigation of rivers, and in many of its parts resembling a smack.

BOYES, idolatrous priests among the savages of Florida. Every boye attends a particular idol, and the natives address themselves to the priest of that idol to which they intend to pay their devotion. The idol is invoked in hymns, and his usual offering is the smoke of tobacco.

BOYEUPECANGA, in zoology, a large and remarkably thick serpent, mentioned by Ray, distinguished by prominences on its back. Its poison is fatal.

* **BOYHOOD**. *n. s.* [from *boy*.] 1. Belonging to a boy; the part of life in which we are boys. This is perhaps an arbitrary word.—If you should look at him, in his *boyhood*, through the magnifying end of a perspective, and, in his manhood, through the other, it would be impossible to spy any difference; the same air, the same strut. *Swift*.

* **BOYISH**.

viscount Dungarvan and earl of Cork; and in 1631, was made lord treasurer of Ireland, an office, that was made hereditary to his family. In 1603, he married Mrs Catherine Fenton, daughter of Sir George Fenton, then Secretary of State. He afterwards distinguished himself by the noble stand he made, when the fatal rebellion broke out in that kingdom, under Charles I; and in his old age acted with as much bravery and military skill, as if he had been trained from his infancy to arms. He turned the castle of Lismore, his capital seat, into a fortress; armed and disciplined his servants and protestant tenants; and by their assistance, and a small army raised and maintained at his own expence, which he put under the command of his four sons, defended the province of Munster, and in the space of a year took several strong castles, and killed upwards of 3000 of the enemy: during which time he paid his forces regularly; and when all his money was gone, like a true patriot, converted his plate into coin. This great man died in 1634, aged 78.

(4.) **BOYLE**, Richard, earl of Burlington and Cork, son to the former, (N^o 3.) was a nobleman of unblemished loyalty and untainted integrity, in times of rebellion and general corruption. He was born at Youghall in 1612. He distinguished himself by his loyalty to king Charles I. He not only commanded troops, but raised and for a long time paid them, and continued to stand up for the king, as long as any one place held out for him in England; till at last he was forced to compound for his estate. He contributed all in his power to the Restoration; on which Charles II. raised him to the dignity of earl Burlington, in 1663. He died Jan. 15, 1697-8, aged 86.

(5.) **BOYLE**, Robert, one of the greatest philosophers as well as best men that any nation has produced, was the 7th son and the 14th child of Richard earl of Cork, (N^o 3.) and born at Lismore, Jan. 25, 1626-7. Before he went to school, he was taught to write a very fair hand, and to speak French and Latin, by one of the earl's chaplains, and a Frenchman that he kept in the house. In 1635, his father sent him over to England, in order to be educated at Eaton school, under Sir Henry Wotton, who was the earl of Cork's old friend and acquaintance. Here he soon discovered a force of understanding which promised great things, and a disposition to cultivate and improve it to the utmost. While he remained at Eaton, several extraordinary accidents befel him, three of which were very near proving fatal to him. The first was, the sudden fall of the chamber where he was lodged, while he was in bed; when, besides the danger he run of being crushed to pieces, he had certainly been choked with the dust during the time he lay under the rubbish, if he had not had presence of mind enough to have wrapped his head up in the sheet, which gave him an opportunity of breathing without hazard. A little after this, he had been crushed to pieces by a starting horse that rose up suddenly, and threw himself backwards, if he had not happily disengaged his feet from the stirrups, and cast himself from his back before he fell. The 3d accident proceeded from the carelessness of an apothecary's servant, who, bringing him a

strong vomit instead of a cooling julep. In 1638, he attended his father to London; and remained with him at the Savoy, till his brother Mr Francis Boyle espoused Mrs Elisabeth Killigrew; and then, towards the end of October, within four days after the marriage, the two brothers, Francis and Robert, were sent abroad upon their travel, to France and Geneva, under the care of Mr Marcombes. Mr Boyle, during his stay at Geneva, resumed his acquaintance with the mathematics, or at least with the elements of that science, of which he had before gained some knowledge. For he tells us in his memoirs, that while he was at Eaton, and afflicted with an ague, before he was ten years old, by way of diverting his melancholy, they made him read *Amadis de Gaul*, and other romantic books, which produced such a restlessness in him, that he was obliged to apply himself to the extraction of the square and cube roots, and to the more laborious operations of algebra, in order to fix and settle the volatile operations of his fancy. In Sept. 1641, he quitted Geneva, after having spent 21 months in that city; he returned to the continent, and spent the winter at Florence. Here he employed his spare hours in reading the modern history in Italian, and the works of the celebrated astronomer Galileo, who died in a village near this city during Mr Boyle's residence in it. At Florence he acquired the Italian language; which he understood perfectly, though he never spoke it so fluently as the French. Of this indeed he was such a master, that he passed for a native of that country in more places than one during his travels. About the end of March, 1642, he began his journey from Florence to Rome, which took up but five days. He surveyed the numerous curiosities of that city; among which, he tells us, "he had the fortune to see Pope Urban VIII. at chapel, with the cardinals, who severally appearing mighty princes, in that assembly looked like a company of common friars." He returned to Florence; from thence to Leghorn; and so by sea to Genoa: then passing through Nice, he crossed the sea to Antibes, where he fell into danger from refusing to honour the crucifix: from thence he went to Marseilles by land. He was in that city, in May, 1642, when he received his father's letters, which informed him that the rebellion had broken out in Ireland, and how difficultly he had procured the 250l. then remitted to them in order to help them home. They never received this money; and were obliged to go to Geneva with their governor Marcombes, who supplied them with as much at least as carried them thither. They continued there a considerable time, without either advice or supplies from England; upon which Marcombes was obliged to take up some jewels upon his own credit, which were afterwards disposed of with a little loss as might be; and with the money thus raised, they continued their journey for England, where they arrived in 1644. On their arrival, Mr Boyle found his father dead; and though the earl had made an ample provision for him, by leaving him his manor of Stalbridge in England, as well as other considerable estates in Ireland, yet it was some time before he could receive any money. However, he procured protections for his estate.

gion or philosophy. In 1665 came forth, 8. Occasional reflections upon several subjects; 8vo. This piece is addressed to *Sophronia*, under whose name he concealed that of his beloved sister the viscountess of Ranelagh. The thoughts themselves are on a vast variety of subjects, written many years before; some indeed upon trivial occasions, but all with great accuracy of language, much wit, more learning, and in a wonderful strain of moral and pious reflection. Yet this exposed him to the only severe censure that ever was passed upon him; and that too from no less a man than the celebrated Dean Swift, who, to ridicule these discourses, wrote *A pious meditation upon a broomstick, in the style of the honourable Mr Boyle*. But as his noble relation Lord Orrery said, "To what a height must the spirit of sarcasm arise in an author, who could prevail on himself to ridicule so good a man as Mr Boyle? The sword of wit, like the scythe of time, cuts down friend and foe, and attacks every object that lies in its way. But, sharp and irresistible as the edge of it may be, Mr Boyle will always remain invulnerable." The same year, he published an important work, intitled, 9. New experiments and observations upon cold, 1665, 8vo. In 1666, he published, 10. Hydrostatical paradoxes made out by new experiments, for the most part physical and easy, in 8vo. 11. The origin of forms and qualities, according to the corpuscular philosophy, illustrated by considerations and experiments. This treatise did great honour to Mr Boyle, whether we consider the quickness of his wit, the depth of his judgment, or his indefatigable pains in searching after truth. At this time he also communicated to his friend Mr Oldenburgh, who was secretary to the royal society, several excellent short treatises of his own, upon a great variety of subjects, and others transmitted to him by his learned friends both at home and abroad, which are printed and preserved in the Philosophical Transactions. In 1668, Mr Boyle resolved to settle in London for life; and removed for that purpose to the house of his sister, the lady Ranelagh, in Pall-Mall. This was to the infinite benefit of the learned in general, and particularly to the advantage of the royal society, to whom he gave great and continual assistance, as the several pieces communicated to them from time to time, and printed in their Transactions, abundantly testify. Those who applied to him, either to desire his help, or to communicate to him any new discoveries in science, he had his set hours for receiving; otherwise it is easy to conceive that he would have had very little of his time for himself. But, besides these, he kept a very extensive correspondence with persons of the greatest figure, and most famous for learning, in all parts of Europe. In 1669, he published, 12. A continuation of new experiments touching the weight and spring of the air; to which is added, A discourse of the atmospheres of consistent bodies: and the same year he revised and made many additions to several of his former tracts, some of which were now translated into Latin, to gratify the curious abroad. 13. Tracts about the cosmical qualities of things; cosmical suspicions; the temperature of the subterraneous regions; the bottom of the sea; to

which is prefixed an introduction to the history of particular qualities. This book occasioned much speculation, as it seemed to contain a vast treasure of knowledge which had never been communicated to the world before; and this too grounded upon actual experiments, and arguments justly drawn from them, instead of that notional and conjectural philosophy which in the beginning of the 17th century had been so much in fashion. In 1671, he published, 14. Considerations on the usefulness of experimental and natural philosophy; part 2d, 4to. 15. A collection of tracts upon several useful and important points of practical philosophy, 4to. 16. An essay about the origin and virtues of gems, 1672, 8vo. 17. A collection of tracts upon the relation between flame and air; and several other useful and curious subjects: besides furnishing, in this and the former year, a great number of short dissertations upon a vast variety of topics, addressed to the royal society, and inserted in their Transactions. 18. Essays on the strange subtilty, great efficacy, and determinate nature, of effluvia; to which were added a variety of experiments on other subjects; 1673, 8vo. 19. A collection of tracts upon the saltness of the sea, the moisture of the air, the natural and preternatural state of bodies; to which is prefixed a dialogue concerning cold; 1674, 8vo. 20. The excellency of theology compared with philosophy, 1673, 8vo. This discourse was written in 1665, while Mr Boyle, to avoid the great plague which then raged in London, was forced to go from place to place in the country, and had little or no opportunity of consulting his books. It contains a great number of curious and useful, as well as just and natural, observations. 21. A collection of tracts containing suspicions about hidden qualities of the air; with an appendix touching celestial magnets; animadversions upon Mr Hobbes's problem about a vacuum; a discourse of the cause of attraction and suction; 1674, 8vo. 22. Some considerations about the reconcileableness of reason and religion. By T. E. a layman. To which is annexed a discourse about the possibility of the resurrection. By Mr Boyle, 1675, 8vo. Both these pieces were of his writing, only he thought fit to mark the former with the final letters of his name. Among other papers that he communicated this year to the royal society, there were two connected into one discourse on quicksilver growing hot with gold. Both of them contained discoveries of the utmost importance. In 1676, he published, 23. Experiments and notes about the mechanical origin or production of particular qualities, in several discourses on a great variety of subjects, and among the rest on electricity. In 1678, he communicated to Mr Hook a short memorial of some observations upon an artificial substance that shines without any preceding illustration; which that gentleman thought fit to publish in his *Lectiones Cutlerianæ*. 24. Historical account of a degradation of gold made by an antilelixir. This made a great noise both at home and abroad, and is looked upon as one of the most remarkable pieces that ever fell from his pen; since the facts contained in it would have been esteemed incredible, if they had been related by a man of less integrity and piety than Mr Boyle. The regard

regard which the great Newton had for Mr Boyle, appears from a very curious letter, which the former wrote to him, at the latter end of this year, for the sake of laying before him his sentiments of that ethereal medium, which he afterwards considered in his Optics as the cause of gravitation. This letter is to be found in Dr Birch's Life of Mr Boyle. In 1680, he published, 25. The aerial noctiluca; or some new phenomena, and a process of a factitious self-shining substance, 8vo. This year the royal society, as a proof of the just sense of his great worth, and of the constant and particular services which through a course of many years he had done them, made choice of him for their president; but he being extremely tender in point of oaths, he declined the honour, by a letter addressed to "his much respected friend Mr Robert Hooke, professor of mathematics at Gresham College." 26. Discourse of things above reason; inquiring, whether a philosopher should admit any such; 1681, 8vo. 27. New experiments and observations upon the icy noctiluca: to which is added a chemical paradox, grounded upon new experiments, making it probable that chemical principles are transmutable, so that out of one of them others may be produced, 1682, 8vo. 28. A continuation of new experiments, physico-mechanical, touching the spring and weight of the air, and their effects, 1682, 8vo. In 1683, he published nothing but a short letter to Dr Beale, in relation to the making of fresh water out of salt. In 1684, he published two very considerable works, viz. 29. Memoirs for the natural history of human blood, especially the spirit of that liquor, 8vo; and, 30. Experiments and considerations about the porosity of bodies, &c. In 1685, Mr Boyle obliged the world with, 31. Short memoirs for the natural experimental history of mineral waters, with directions as to the several methods of trying them; including abundance of new and useful remarks, as well as several curious experiments. 32. An essay on the great effects of even languid and unheeded motion; whereunto is annexed an experimental discourse of some hitherto little regarded causes of the salubrity and insalubrity of the air and its effects. None of his treatises, it is said, were ever received with greater or more general applause than this. 33. Of the reconcileableness of specific medicines to the corpuscular philosophy; to which is annexed a discourse about the advantages of the use of simple medicines; 8vo. Besides these philosophical tracts, he gave the world the same year, an excellent theological one, 34. Of the high veneration man's intellect owes to God, peculiarly for his wisdom and power, 8vo. In 1686, came abroad his, 35. Free inquiry into the vulgarly received notion of nature; a piece which was then, and will always be, greatly admired by those who have a true zeal and relish for pure religion and philosophy. In 1687, he published, 36. The martyrdom of Theodora and Didymia; a work he had drawn up in his youth. 37. A disquisition about the final causes of natural things; wherein it is inquired, whether, and (if at all) with what caution, a naturalist should admit them; with an appendix about vitiated light; 1688, 8vo. In May this year he complained to the public of some incon-

veniences under which he had long laboured; This he did by an advertisement, about "the loss of many of his writings addressed to J. W. to be communicated to those of his friends that are virtuous; which may serve as a kind of preface to most of his mutilated and unfinished writings." He complains in this advertisement of the treatment he had met with from plagiaries both at home and abroad; and though it might have been difficult in any other man to have done so, without incurring the imputation of self-conceit and vanity, yet Mr Boyle's manner is such as only to raise in us a higher esteem and admiration of him. This advertisement is inserted at length in his life by Birch. He began now to find that his health, and strength, notwithstanding all his care and caution, gradually declined, which put him upon using every possible method of husbanding his remaining time. With this view, he no longer communicated particular discourses, or new discoveries, to the royal society; because this could not be done without withdrawing his thoughts from tasks which he thought of still greater importance. The more steadily to attend to these, he resigned his post of governor of the corporation for propagating the gospel in New England; nay, he went so far as to signify to the world that he could no longer receive visits as usual, in an advertisement, which begins in the following manner: "Mr Boyle finds himself obliged to intimate to those of his friends and acquaintance, that are wont to do him the honour and favour of visiting him, 1. That he has by some unlucky accidents, namely, by his servant's breaking a bottle of oil of vitriol over a chest which contained his papers, had many of his writings corroded here and there, or otherwise so maimed, that, without he himself fill up the lacunæ out of his memory or invention, they will not be intelligible. 2. That his age and sickness have for a good while admonished him to put his scattered and partly defaced writings into some kind of order, that they may not remain quite useless. And, 3. That his skillful and friendly physician, Sir Edmund King, seconded by Mr Boyle's best friends, has pressingly advised him against speaking daily with so many persons as are wont to visit him, representing it as what cannot but waste his spirits, &c. He ordered likewise a board to be placed over his door, with an inscription signifying when he did, and when he did not, receive visits." Among the other great works, which by this means he gained time to finish, there is reason to believe, that one was a collection of elaborate processes in chemistry; concerning which he wrote to a friend, that "he left it as a kind of hermetic legacy to the studious disciples of that art." Besides these papers he left many others relating to chemistry; which, by a letter to one of his executors, he desired might be inspected by 3 physicians whom he named, and that some of the most valuable might be preserved. In the mean time, he published, 38. *Medicina Hydrostatica*; or, Hydrostatics applied to the materia medica, showing how, by the weight that divers bodies used in physic have in water, one may discover whether they be genuine or adulterated. To which is subjoined a previous hydrostatical way of estimating ores, 1690, 8vo. 39. The Christian virtuo-

to; shewing, that, by being addicted to experimental philosophy, a man is rather assisted than indisposed to be a good Christian. To which are subjoined, 1. A discourse about the distinction that represents some things as above reason, but not contrary to reason. 2. The first chapters of a discourse intitled *Greatness of mind promoted by Christianity*. The last work which he published himself, was in the spring of 1691; and is intitled, 40. *Experimenta et Observationes Physicæ*: wherein are briefly treated several subjects relating to natural philosophy in an experimental way. To which is added a small collection of strange reports, 8vo. On the 18th of July, 1691, he signed and sealed his last will. In October, his distempers increased; on the 31st Dec. 1691, he died aged 65. He was buried at Westminster, on the 7th Jan. and his funeral sermon was preached by Bp. Burnet. The bishop made choice upon this occasion of a text very apposite to the subject; namely, "For God giveth to a man that is good in his sight, wisdom, knowledge, and joy. *Eccles. xi. 26.*" After explaining the words, he applied the doctrine to the honourable person deceased; of whom, he tells us, he was the better able to give a character from the many happy hours he had spent with him in the course of 29 years. He gives a large account of Mr Boyle's sincere and unaffected piety; and more especially of his zeal for the Christian religion, without having any narrow notions concerning it, or mistaking, as so many do, a bigotted heat in favour of a particular sect, for that zeal which is an ornament of a true Christian. He mentions, as a proof of this, his noble foundation for lectures in defence of the gospel against infidels of all sorts; the effects of which have been so conspicuous in many volumes of excellent discourses which have been published in consequence of that pious foundation. He was at the charge of the translation and impression of the New Testament into the Malayan tongue, which he sent over all the East Indies. He gave a noble reward to him that translated Grotius's incomparable book "Of the truth of the Christian religion," into Arabic; and was at the charge of a whole impression, which he took care should be dispersed in all the countries where that language was understood. He was resolved to have carried on the impression of the New Testament in the Turkish language; but the company thought it became them to be the doers of it, and so suffered him only to give a large share towards it. He spent 700l. on the edition of the Irish bible, which he ordered to be distributed in Ireland; and he contributed liberally to the impression of the Welsh bible. He gave, during his life, 300l. to advance the propagation of the Christian religion in America; and as soon as he heard that the East India company were entertaining propositions for the like design in the east, he sent 100l. for a beginning, as an example, but intended to carry it much farther when it should be set on foot to purpose. In other respects his charities were so bountiful and extensive, that they amounted to upwards of 1000l. a-year. To this extract from the bishop, we may add a short eulogium by the celebrated Dr Herman Boerhaave; who, after having declared lord Bacon to be the father

of experimental philosophy, says, that "Mr Boyle, the ornament of his age and country, succeeded to the genius and inquiries of the great chancellor Verulam. Which of all Mr Boyle's writings shall I recommend? All of them. To him we owe the secrets of fire, air, water, animals, vegetables, fossils: so that from his works may be deduced the whole system of natural knowledge." It is worth remarking, that Mr Boyle was born the same year in which lord Bacon died. As to his person he was tall, but slender; and his countenance pale and emaciated. His constitution was so delicate, that he had different cloaks to put on when he went abroad, according to the temperature of the air; and in this he governed himself by his thermometer. He escaped indeed the small-pox; but for almost 40 years he laboured under such feebleness of body, and such lowness of strength and spirits, that it was astonishing how he could read, meditate, make experiments, and write, as he did. He had likewise a weakness in his eyes; which made him very tender of them, and extremely apprehensive of such distempers as might affect them. He imagined likewise, that if sickness should confine him to his bed, it might raise the pains of the stone to a degree which might be above his strength to support; so that he feared his last minutes should be too hard for him. This was the ground of all the caution and apprehension with which he was observed to live; but as to life itself, he had that just indifference for it which becomes a philosopher and a Christian. However, his sight began to grow dim not above 4 hours before he died; and when death came upon him, he had not been above 3 hours in bed before it made an end of him, with so little pain that the flame appeared to go out merely for want of oil to maintain it. Mr Boyle was never married; but Mr Evelyn was assured, that he courted the beautiful and ingenious daughter of Cary earl of Monmouth, and that to this passion was owing his *Seraphic Love*. In the memorandum of Mr Boyle's life set down by Bp. Burnet, it is remarked that he abstained from marriage, at first out of policy, afterwards more philosophically. His posthumous works, are, 1. "The general History of the air designed and begun. 2. "General heads for the natural history of a country, great or small; drawn out for the use of travellers and navigators." 3. "A paper of the honourable Robert Boyle's, deposited with the secretaries of the Royal Society, Oct. 14th, 1687, and opened since his death; being an account of his making the phosphorus, Sept. 30th, 1680." Printed in the Philosophical Transactions. 4. "An account of a way of examining waters, as to freshness or saltness." 5. "A free discourse against customary swearing, and a dissuative for curling," 1695, 8vo. 6. "Medicinal experiments, or a collection of choice remedies, chiefly simple and easily prepared, useful in families, and fit for the service of the country people. The 3d and last volume, published from the author's original M. S. whereunto is added several useful notes explanatory of the same," 1698, 12mo. Beautiful editions of all his works have been printed at London, in 5 vols folio, and 6 vols 4to.

(6.) BOYLE, Roger, earl of Orrery, the 5th son of

of earl Richard, (N^o 4.) was born in 1611; and by the credit of his father with the lord deputy Falkland, raised to the dignity of *baron Broghill*, when only 7 years old. He was educated at the college of Dublin, where he soon distinguished himself as a promising genius. He afterwards made the tour of France and Italy; and at his return assisted his father in opposing the rebellious Irish; in which he behaved with all the spirit of a young, and all the discretion of an old, officer. Upon the death of the king, he retired to Marston, in Somersetshire, and hid himself; but being at length ashamed to sit the tame spectator of all the mischief that appeared round him, he resolved to attempt something in favour of the king; and under the pretence of going to Spa for his health, he determined to cross the seas, and apply to king Charles II. for a commission to raise what forces he could in Ireland, in order to restore his majesty, and recover his own estate. To this purpose, he prevailed on the earl of Warwick to procure a licence for his going to the Spa; and having raised a considerable sum of money, came up to London to prosecute his voyage: but he had not been long in town when he received a message from Cromwell, who was then general of the parliament's forces, that he intended to wait upon him. Lord Broghill was surprised at this message, having never had the least acquaintance with Cromwell; and desired the gentleman to let the general know, that he would wait upon his excellency. But while he was waiting the return of the messenger, Cromwell entered the room; and after mutual civilities, told him, that the committee of the state were apprised of his design of applying to Charles Stuart for a commission to raise forces in Ireland; and that they were determined to make an example of him, if he himself had not diverted them from that resolution. Lord Broghill assured him, that the intelligence which the committee had received was false, and that he neither was in a capacity, nor had any inclination to raise disturbances in Ireland: but Cromwell, instead of making any reply, drew out of his pocket copies of several letters, which lord Broghill had sent to those in whom he most confided, and put them into his hands. Broghill, upon the perusal of these papers, finding it to no purpose to dissemble, asked his excellency's pardon for what he had said, returned him thanks for his protection against the committee, and intreated his direction how to behave in such a delicate conjuncture. Cromwell told him, that though till this time he had been a stranger to his person, he was not so to his merit and character: he had heard how gallantly his lordship had behaved in the Irish wars; and therefore, since he was named *lord lieutenant of Ireland*, and the reducing that kingdom was now become his province, he had obtained leave of the committee to offer his lordship the command of a general officer, if he would serve in the war; and he should have no oaths or engagements imposed upon him, nor be obliged to draw his sword against any but the Irish rebels. Broghill was infinitely surprised at so generous and unexpected an offer. He saw himself at liberty, by all the rules of honour, to serve against the Irish, whose rebellion and barbarities

were equally detested by the royal party and the parliament. He desired, however, some time to consider of what had been proposed to him. But Cromwell briskly told him, that he must come to some resolution that very instant: that he himself was returning to the committee who were still sitting; and if his lordship rejected their offer, they had determined to send him to the tower. Upon this, lord Broghill, finding that his liberty and life were in the utmost danger, gave his word and honour that he would faithfully serve him against the Irish rebels; on which Cromwell once more assured him, that the conditions which he had made with him would be punctually observed; and then ordered him to repair to Bristol, adding, that he himself would soon follow him into Ireland. Lord Broghill, therefore, went over into that country; where, by his conduct and intrepidity, he performed many important services, and fully justified the opinion Cromwell had conceived of him. By his own interest he now raised a gallant troop of horse, consisting chiefly of gentlemen attached to him by personal friendship; which corps was soon increased to a complete regiment of 1500 men. These he led into the field against the Irish rebels; and was speedily joined by Cromwell, who placed the highest confidence in his new ally, and found him of the greatest consequence to the interest of the commonwealth. Among other considerable exploits performed by Lord Broghill, the following deserves to be particularly mentioned. Whilst Cromwell laid siege to Clonwell, Broghill being detached to disperse a body of 5000 men who had assembled to relieve the place, he, with 2000 horse and dragoons, came up with the enemy at Maecrooms on the 10th of May 1650; and without waiting for the arrival of his foot, immediately attacked, and routed them, making their general prisoner. Then proceeding to the castle of Carrigdroghid, he sent a summons to the garrison to surrender before the arrival of his battering cannon, otherwise they were to expect no quarter. His own army was surprised at this summons, knowing he had not one piece of heavy cannon; but Broghill had ordered the trunks of several large trees to be drawn at a distance by his baggage horses; which the besieged perceiving, and judging from the slowness of the motion that the guns must be of a vast bore, immediately capitulated. He afterwards relieved Cromwell himself at Clonwell, where that great commander happened to be so dangerously situated, that he confessed, nothing but the seasonable relief afforded him by lord Broghill could have saved him from destruction. When Ireton sat down before Limeric, he gave Broghill 600 foot and 400 horse, with orders to prevent lord Muskerry's joining the pope's nuncio, who had got together a body of 8000 men, and was determined to attempt the relief of Limeric. Muskerry was at the head of 1000 horse and dragoons, and about 2000 foot: notwithstanding which lord Broghill fell resolutely upon him. The Irish, having the advantage of the ground and numbers, would have conquered, but for a stratagem of lord Broghill. In the heat of the action he desired those about him to repeat what he said; and then cried out as loud as he could, "They run, they run." The first line

of the Irish looked round to see if their rear was broke; and the rear seeing the faces of their friends, and hearing the shouts of the enemy, imagined that the first line was routed, and fled. The taking of Limeric, which put an end to the war in Ireland, was the consequence of this defeat. When Cromwell became protector, he sent for lord Broghill, merely to take his advice occasionally. And we are told, that, not long after his coming to England, he formed a project for engaging Cromwell to restore the old constitution. The basis of the scheme was to be a match between the king (Charles II.) and the protector's daughter. As his lordship maintained a secret correspondence with the exiled monarch and his friends, it was imagined that he was beforehand pretty sure that Charles was not averse to the scheme, or he would not have ventured to have proposed it seriously to Cromwell; who at first seemed to think it not unfeasible. He soon changed his mind, however, and told Broghill that he thought his project impracticable: "For (said he) Charles can never forgive me the death of his father." In fine, the business came to nothing, although his lordship had engaged Cromwell's wife and daughter in the scheme; but he never durst let the protector know that he had previously treated with Charles about it. On the death of the protector, lord Broghill continued attached to his son Richard, till he saw that the honesty and good nature of that worthy man would infallibly render him a prey to his many enemies; and he did not think it adviseable to sink with a man whom he could not save. The dark clouds of anarchy seemed now to be hovering over the British island. Lord Broghill saw the storm gathering, and he deemed it prudent to retire to his command in Ireland, where he shortly after had the satisfaction of seeing things take a turn extremely favourable to the design he had long been a well-wisher to, viz. that of the king's restoration. In this great event lord Broghill was not a little instrumental; and, in consideration of his eminent services in this respect, Charles created him Earl of Orrery by letters patent bearing date September 5, 1660. He was soon after made one of the lords justices of Ireland; and his conduct, while at the head of affairs in that kingdom, was such as greatly added to the general esteem in which his character was held before. His lordship's active life at length brought upon him some diseases and infirmities which gave him much pain and uneasiness; and a fever which fell into his feet, joined to the gout with which he was often afflicted, abated much of that vigour which he had shown in the early part of his life: but his industry and application were still the same, and bent to the same purposes; as appears from his letters, which show at once a capacity, and an attention to business, which do honour to that age. Notwithstanding his infirmities, on the king's desiring to see him in England, he went over in 1665. He found the court in some disorder, the king being on the point of removing the great earl Clarendon, lord high chancellor; and there being also a great misunderstanding between the two royal brothers. Lord Orrery reconciled the king with the duke of York, by prevailing on the lat-

ter to ask his majesty's pardon for some steps he had taken in support of the lord chancellor. On his return to Ireland, he found himself called to a new scene of action. The Dutch war was then at its height; and the French, in confederacy with the Hollanders, were endeavouring to stir up rebellion in Ireland. The duke de Beaufort had formed a scheme for a descent upon Ireland; but this was rendered abortive by the extraordinary diligence, military skill, and prudent measures, of lord Orrery. But in the midst of all his labours, a dispute arose, founded on a mutual jealousy of each other's greatness, betwixt him and his old friend the duke of Ormond, then lord lieutenant; the bad effects of which were soon felt by both disputants, who resorted to England to defend their respective interests and pretensions, both having been attacked by secret enemies who suggested many things to their prejudice. This quarrel, though of a private beginning, became at last of a public nature; and producing first an attempt to frame an impeachment against the duke of Ormond, occasioned in the end, by way of revenge, an actual impeachment against the earl of Orrery. He defended himself, however, so well against a charge of high crimes, and even of treason itself, that the prosecution came to nothing. He nevertheless lost his public employments; but not the king's favour: he still came frequently to court, and sometimes to council. After this he made several voyages to and from Ireland; was often consulted by the king on affairs of the utmost consequence; and on all occasions gave his opinion and advice with the freedom of an honest plain-dealing man and a sincere friend; which the king always found him, and respected him accordingly. In 1673, being attacked more cruelly than ever by his old enemy the gout, he gave the strongest proofs of Christian patience, manly courage, and rational fortitude, and breathed his last on the 16th Oct. 1679, in the 59th year of his age. He wrote, 1. A work intitled *The Art of War*. 2. *Parthenissa*, a romance, in one volume folio. 3. Several Poems. 4. Dramatic pieces, in two volumes. 5. State tracts, in one volume folio, &c. Mr Walpole, speaking of this nobleman, says, he never made a bad figure but as a poet. As a soldier, his bravery was distinguished, his stratagems remarkable. As a statesman it is sufficient to say, that he had the confidence of Cromwell. As a man he was grateful, and would have supported the son of his friend: but like Cicero and Richelieu, he could not be content without being a poet; though he was ill qualified, his writings of that kind being flat and trivial.

(7.) BOYLE. See ABBEY-BOYLE.

BOYLE'S LECTURES, a course of 8 sermons or lectures preached annually; set on foot by the hon. R. BOYLE (Nº 5.) by a codicil annexed to his will in 1691; whose design, as expressed by the instructor, is, to prove the truth of the Christian religion against infidels, without descending to any controversies among Christians; and to answer new difficulties, scruples, &c. For the support of this lecture he assigned the rent of his house in Crooked Lane to some learned divine within the bills of mortality, to be elected for a term not exceeding 3 years, by the late Abp. Tennyson and others.

others. But the fund proving precarious, the salary was ill paid; to remedy which inconveniences, the archbishop procured a yearly stipend of 50*l.* for ever, to be paid quarterly, charged on a farm in the parish of Brill in the county of Bucks. To this appointment we are indebted for many defences of natural and revealed religion.

BOYLSTON, a village 10 m. SW. of Derby.

BOYN, a river of Scotland, in Banffshire.

BOYNDIE, a parish of Scotland, in Banffshire.

BOYNDLIE, a district in Aberdeenshire.

BOYNE, a river in Ireland, which rises in Queen's county, and runs NE. by Trim and Cavan, falling at last into the Irish channel a little below Drogheda. It is memorable for a battle fought on its banks between James II. and William III. in which the former was defeated.

BOYNTON, a village in Yorkshire, near Bridlington.

BOYOLO, a town of Italy, in Mantua.

(1.) BOYS, } or Bois, John, one of the trans-
BOYSE, } lators of the Bible in the reign of James I. was the son of William Bois, rector of West Stowe, and born at Nettlestead in Suffolk, in 1560. He was taught the rudiments of learning by his father; and his capacity was such, that at 5 years of age he read the Bible in Hebrew.—At 14 he was admitted of St John's college, Cambridge, where he distinguished himself by his skill in Greek. Happening to have the small-pox when he was elected fellow, he, to preserve his seniority, caused himself to be carried in blankets to be admitted. He for some time studied medicine; but, finding himself affected with every disease he read of, he quitted that science. He was ten years chief Greek lecturer in his college, and read every day. He voluntarily read a Greek lecture for some years at 4 in the morning, in his own chamber, which was frequented by many of the fellows. On the death of his father, he succeeded him in the rectory. At the age of 36, he married the daughter of Mr Holt, rector of Boxworth, whom he succeeded in that living Oct. 13, 1596. On his quitting the university, the college gave him *l.*100. His young wife proved a bad economist, and he himself being wholly addicted to his studies, he soon became so much involved in debt, that he was obliged to sell his choice collection of books, consisting of almost every Greek author then extant. When a new translation of the Bible was by K. James I. directed to be made, Mr Bois was elected one of the Cambridge translators. He performed not only his own, but also the part assigned to another, with great reputation; though with no profit, for he had no allowance but his commons. He was also one of the six who met at Stationers Hall to revise the whole; which task they went through in 9 months, having each from the company of stationers, during that time, 30*s.* a-week. He afterwards assisted Sir Henry Saville in publishing the works of St Chrysostom. In 1615, Dr Lancelot Andrews, Bp. of Ely, bestowed on him, unasked, a prebend in his church. He died 14th Jan. 1643, aged 84. He left many MSS. particularly a commentary on almost all the books of the New Testament.—When he was a young student at Cambridge, he received from the learned Dr Whitaker three rules

for avoiding those distempers which usually attend a sedentary life, to which he adhered with equal constancy and success. The first was, To study always standing; the second, Never to study in a window; and the third, Never to go to bed with his feet cold.

(2.) BOYSE, Joseph, a late eminent dissenting minister in Dublin, much respected not only for learning and abilities, but for extensive humanity and undissembled piety. During his ministerial charge at Dublin, he published many sermons, which compose several folio volumes, a few poems, and other tracts; but what chiefly distinguished him as a writer, was the controversy he carried on with Dr King, archbishop of Dublin, and author of the *Origin of Evil*, concerning the office of a scriptural bishop. This controverted point was managed on both sides with great force of argument and calmness of temper. The bishop asserted, that the episcopal right of jurisdiction had its foundation in the New Testament; Mr Boyse, consistent with his principles, denied that any ecclesiastical superiority appeared there, with the greatest candour and good manners.

(3.) BOYSE, Samuel, the son of Joseph, (N^o 2.) was a man remarkable for the fineness of his genius, the lowness of his manners, and the wretchedness of his life. He was born in 1708, and received the rudiments of his education in Dublin. When he was 18 years old, his father sent him to the university of Glasgow, to finish his education. He had not been a year at the university, when he fell in love with a daughter of a tradesman of that city, and interrupted his education by marrying her before he had entered his 20th year. His extravagance soon exposed him to want; and obliged him to quit the university, and go over with his wife and her sister to Dublin, where they relied on the old gentleman for support. Young Boyse had no graces of person, and fewer still of conversation. Never were three people of more libertine characters, than young Boyse, his wife, and sister-in law; yet the two ladies wore such a mask of decency before the old gentleman, that his fondness never abated. The estate his father possessed in Yorkshire was sold to discharge his debts; and when the old man lay in his last sickness, he was entirely supported by presents from the congregation, and buried at their expence. We have no farther account of Mr Boyse till we find him soon after his father's death at Edinburgh, where his poetical genius raised him many friends, and some patrons of eminence. He published a volume of poems in 1731, to which he subjoined *The Tablature of Cebes*, and *A Letter upon Liberty*, inserted in the *Dublin Journal*, 1726; and by these he obtained a very great reputation. They were addressed to the countess of Eglinton. This amiable lady was the patroness of all men of wit, and greatly distinguished Mr Boyse while he remained in Scotland. Upon the death of the viscountess Stormont, Mr Boyse wrote an elegy, which was very much applauded by her ladyship's relations. This elegy he intitled *The Tears of the Muses*, as the deceased lady was a woman of the most refined taste, and a great admirer of poetry.—Lord Stormont was so much pleased with this mark of esteem paid to the memory

lady, that he ordered a very handsome present to be given to Mr Boyse by his attorney at Edinburgh. The notice which lady Eglinton and lord Stormont took of him, recommended him likewise to the duchess of Gordon; who was so solicitous to raise him above necessity, that she employed her interest in procuring the promise of a place for him. She gave him a letter, which he was next day to deliver to one of the commissioners of the customs at Edinburgh. It happened that he was then some miles distant from the city; and the morning on which he was to have rode to town with her grace's letter of recommendation proved to be rainy. This slender circumstance was enough to discourage Boyse, who never looked beyond the present moment: he delayed going to town on account of the rainy weather; and while he let slip the opportunity, the place was bestowed upon another, after the commissioner had kept it for some time vacant, in expectation of seeing a person recommended by the duchess. Boyse at last, having defeated all the kind intentions of his patrons, fell into contempt and poverty, which obliged him to quit Edinburgh. He communicated his design of going to London to the duchess of Gordon, who having still a very high opinion of his poetical abilities, gave him a letter of recommendation to Mr Pope, and obtained another for him to Sir Peter King the lord chancellor of England. Lord Stormont recommended him to the solicitor-general his brother, and to many other persons of the first fashion. Upon receiving these letters, he, with great caution, quitted Edinburgh, regretted by none but his creditors. Upon his arrival in London, he went to Twickenham, to deliver the duchess of Gordon's letter to Mr Pope; but that gentleman not being at home, Mr Boyse never gave himself the trouble to repeat his visit. He wrote poems; but those, though excellent in their kind, were lost to the world, by being introduced with no advantage. He had so strong a propensity to grovelling, that his acquaintance were generally of such a cast as could be of no service to him; and those in a higher life he addressed by letters, not having sufficient confidence or politeness to converse familiarly with them. Thus unfit to support himself in the world, he was exposed to various distresses, from which he could invent no means of extricating himself but by writing mendicant letters. It will appear amazing, that a man of so abject a spirit was voluptuous and luxurious; he had no taste for any thing elegant, and yet was to the last degree expensive. Often when he had received a guinea in consequence of a supplicating letter, he would go into a tavern, order a supper to be prepared, drink of the richest wines, and spend all the money that had just been given him in charity, without having any one to participate the regale with him, and while his wife and child were starving at home! About 1740, Mr Boyse, reduced to the last extremity of human wretchedness, had not a shirt, a coat, or any kind of apparel, to put on; the sheets in which he lay were carried to the pawn-brokers, and he was obliged to remain to his bed with no other covering than a blanket. He had little support but what he derived from writing letters to his friends in the most

abject style; but was perhaps ashamed to let this instance of his distress be known, which probably was the occasion of his remaining six weeks in that situation. During this time he had some employment in writing verses for the magazines; and whoever had seen him in his study, must have thought the object singular enough; he sat up in bed with the blanket wrapt about him, through which he cut a hole large enough to admit his arm, and placing the paper upon his knee, scribbled in the best manner he could the verses he was obliged to make: whatever he got by these, or any other of his begging letters, was but just sufficient for the preservation of life. And perhaps he would have remained much longer in this distressful state, had not a compassionate gentleman, upon hearing this circumstance related, ordered his clothes to be taken out of pawn, and enabled him to appear again abroad. About the year 1745, Mr Boyse's wife died, and he pretended much concern when he heard of her death. He was then at Reading, compiling a Review of the most material transactions at home and abroad during the war; in which he included a short account of the rebellion. Upon his return from Reading, his behaviour was more decent than it had ever been before; and there were some hopes that a reformation, though late, would be wrought upon him. He was employed by a bookseller to translate *Fenelon on the Existence of God*; during which time he married a second wife, a woman in low circumstances, but well enough adapted to his taste. He began now to live with more regard to his character, and supported a better appearance than usual; but while his circumstances were mending, and his irregular appetites losing ground, his health declined. He had the satisfaction, while in this lingering illness, to observe a poem of his, intitled *The Delity*, recommended by two eminent writers, the ingenious Mr Fielding, and the Rev. Mr Harvey, author of the *Meditations*. Mr Boyse's mind was often ridiculously exposed; and he probably suffered much from remorse of conscience. The early impressions of his good education were never entirely obliterated; and his whole life was a continued struggle between his will and his reason. It was in consequence of this war in his mind, that he wrote a beautiful poem called *The Recantation*. In May 1747, he died in obscure lodgings in Shoe-lane; but in sentiments very different from those in which he had spent the greatest part of his life. An old acquaintance of his endeavoured to collect money to defray the expences of his funeral, so that the scandal of being buried by the parish might be avoided: but in vain; the remains of this son of the muses were, with very little ceremony, hurried away by the parish officers. Never was a life spent with less grace, and never were distinguished abilities given to less purpose. His genius was not confined to poetry only. He had a taste for painting, music, and heraldry. His poetical pieces, if collected, would make six moderate volumes. Many of them are scattered in *The Gentleman's Magazine* marked with the letter Y, and *Alceus*. Two volumes were published in London. An ode, in the manner of Spenser, intitled *The Olive*, was addressed to Sir Robert Walpole, which procured him

him a present of 10 guineas. He translated a poem from the High Dutch of Van Haren, in praise of peace, upon the conclusion of that made at Aix-la-Chapelle; but the poem which procured him the greatest reputation was that upon the attributes of the Deity. He was employed by Mr Ogle to translate some of Chaucer's tales into modern English, which he performed with great spirit, and received at the rate of three pence a line for his trouble. Mr Ogle published a complete edition of that old poet's *Canterbury Tales modernized*; and Mr Boyse's name is put to such tales as were done by him. In 1743, Mr Boyse published, without his name, an ode on the battle of Dettingen, intitled *Albion's Triumph*.

BOYSTLY, *adv. obs.* Rudely; roughly. *Chauc.*

BOYTHORP, a village in Yorkshire, NE. of Butterwick.

BOYTON, the name of 2 English villages, viz. 1. in Cornwall, near Tamerton: 2. in Norfolk, NE. of Blowfield: 3. in Suffolk, E. of Woodbridge: and, 4. in Wiltshire, 6 m. N. of Hindon.

BOYUNA, in zoology, the name of an American species of serpent. It is very long and slender, and all over of a black colour. It has exactly the smell of a fox, but so strong that nobody can endure to be near it. *Ray*.

BOZEZ, a rock in Judza.

BOZIET, a village in Northamptonshire, near Outney.

BOZOLA. See BOZZOLO.

(1.) BORRAH, BEZER, or *Bostra*, a city of Judza, seated on a plain, about the SE. border of the land of Reuben, near the source of the Arnon. It was a city of refuge, (Josh. xx. 8.) and was taken by the Moabites, during the declension of the kingdom of Israel. It was afterwards ravaged by the Chaldeans. It was rebuilt however, and a Christian church early planted in it, which continued till the Arabians took it under Mahomet's successors. The emperor Trajan favoured it, and called it PHILIPPOLIS.

(2.) BOZRAH, the capital of Edom, situated about 150 m. from the former, (N° 1.) It was very ancient, and was the birth place of Jobab, king of Edom. It was ravaged by the Assyrians; afterwards by the Chaldeans, and at last by Judas Maccabæus. It is mentioned in that remarkable prophecy, in Isa. lxiii. 1. Not a vestige of it now remains.

(3.) BOZZOLO, or BOZOLA, a territory of Mantua, which was subject to the house of Austria, till Feb. 1797, when Mantua was taken by the French republican army.

(4.) BOZZOLO, the capital of the above territory, 12 miles SW. of Mantua. Lon. 11. 5. E. Lat. 45. 42. N.

* BP. An abbreviation of bishop.

B QUADRO, QUADRATO, or *Durale*, in music, called by the French, *bquarre*, from its square figure, See Plate XLVI. fig. 3. This is what we call B natural or *sharp*, in distinction to B mol or *flat*. See FLAT and SHARP. If the flat, fig. 4. be placed before a note in the thorough bass, it intimates, that its third is to be minor; and if placed with any cypher over a note in the bass, fig. 5 or 6, it denotes, that the fifth or sixth there-
of are to be flat. But if the quadro be placed o-

ver any note, or with a cypher, in the thorough bass, it has the contrary effect: for thereby the note or interval thereto is raised to its natural order.

BRAABIN, a hill in Caithness.

BRAAN, or BAAN, a river of Scotland, in Perthshire, which falls into the Tay, a little above Dunkeld.

BRAB. See BOMBAY, § 12.

BRABANCIONES, in writers of the middle age, a kind of Netherland soldiery, infamous for rapine, being little better than commissioned banditti, who hired themselves to fight for any that could pay them best. The word is written in various forms by the historians of those days; but all derived from Brabant, which was the chief nursery of these troops. They are also frequently confounded with the *Routiers*, *Raturiers*, *Ruparii*, *Ruterarii*, *Corteraux*, &c.

BRABANT, a large ci-devant province of the Netherlands, now incorporated with the French republic, and constituting, (we suppose,) the new department of DYLE; BRUSSELS being the capital of that department, as it was formerly of the province. The greatest part of it was subject to the house of Austria: the remainder, of which BREDA is the capital, belonging to the Dutch. It was bounded on the W. by Flanders and Zealand; on the N. by Holland; on the NE. by Guelderland; on the E. by Liege; on the S. by Namur; and on the SW. by Hainault. It contains 26 fortified towns, and the country is very fertile. Its principal rivers are the Scheldt, the Dommel, and the Lys.

* BRABBLE. *n. s.* [*brabbelen*, Dutch.] A clamorous contest; a squabble; a broil.—

Here in the streets, desperate in shame and state,

In private *brabble* did we apprehend him.

Shakespeare.

* To BRABBLE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To clamour; to contest noisily.

* BRABBLER. *n. s.* [from *brabble*.] A clamorous, quarrelsome, noisy fellow.

BRABE, an herb mentioned by Oribasius, which grows a cubit high, shooting forth branches on each side, with leaves resembling those of the LEPIDIUM, but softer and whiter, and at the top bearing an umbel of flowers like the elder.

BRABEJUM, the AFRICAN ALMOND: a genus of the monœcia order, belonging to the polygamia class of plants. In the male, the corolla is four-parted: there are 4 stamina inverted in the throat; the style is bifid and abortive: The female has a four-parted corolla, revolved upwards, with 4 stamina, one pistil with two stigmas; the fruit is a roundish drupa with a globular seed. Of this genus there is but one species, viz.

BRABEJUM STELLATIFOLIUM, the star-leaved African almond, a native of the Cape of Good Hope. In Europe it seldom grows above 8 or 9 feet high, but in its native soil is a tree of a middling growth. It rises with an upright stem, which is soft, and full of pitch within, and covered with brown bark. The leaves come out all round the branches at each joint: they are indented at their edges, standing on very short foot-stalks. The flowers are produced towards the end of their shoots,

shoots, which are of a pale colour inclining to white. They may be propagated, though with difficulty, by layers made in April: but they are often two years before they produce roots strong enough to be taken from the plants. When the branches are laid down, it is proper to slit them at the point, to promote their taking root. In winter they should have a good greenhouse; but in summer they should be placed abroad in a sheltered situation.

BRABEUTÆ, or } [from *Brabeutæ*, a prize,] in
BRABEUTES, } antiquity, officers among the Greeks, who presided at the public games, and decided controversies that happened among the antagonists in the gymnistical exercises. The number of Brabeutæ was not fixed; sometimes there were only one, but more commonly they amounted to nine or ten. Some authors confound them with the Agonothetæ, but they were different. See **AGONOTHEA**.

BRABORN, a town in Kent, 5 miles E. of Ashborn.

BRABROOKE, a village in Northamptonshire, between Kettering and Harborough.

BRABSTER, a district of Caithness, in which there are the ruins of an ancient chapel.

BRABY, a village in Yorkshire, between New Malton, and Kirby-Moorfield.

BRACADALE, a parish of Scotland, on the coast of Inverness, extending about 26 miles in length, and from 6 to 10 in breadth. The surface is hilly; the climate healthy, though moist, and the soil pretty fertile, but fitter for pasturage than agriculture. It produces oats, barley, potatoes, and much natural grass; upon which black cattle, sheep, and horses are fed. The breed of these last are small. The population in 1791, by the rev. Mr Roderick M'Leod's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2250, and had increased 343, since 1755, notwithstanding repeated emigrations. Four harbours and as many islands belong to the parish.

BRACCÆ, [Lat.] The ancient Highland *truisb* or trousers. Hence some derive the English word, *breeches*.

(1.) **BRACCIANO**, a lake of Italy, 12 miles N. of Rome.

(2.) **BRACCIANO**, a town in the pope's dominions, seated on the W. side of the lake, N^o 1. Lon. 13. 4. Lat. 42. 6.

BRACCIOLINI, Francis, an Italian poet, a native of Postolia, and the friend of Pope Urban VIII. He wrote 1. an epic poem, intitled, The cross reconquered, under the emperor Heraclius. 2. The mockery of the Pagan gods: a heroic poem. 3. The election of Pope Urban VIII. in 23 books. He died about 1644, aged 80.

BRACCO, in old records, a large hound.

(1.) * **BRACE**. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. Cincture; bandage. 2. That which holds any thing tight.—The little bones of the ear-drum do in straining and relaxing it, as the *braces* of the war-drum do in that. *Derham*. 3. **BRACE**. [In architecture.] Is a piece of timber framed in with bevil joints, used to keep the building from swerving either way. *Builder's Dict.* 4. **BRACES**. [a sea term.] Ropes belonging to the yards, except the mizen. They have a pendant to the yard-arm, two *braces* to each yard; and, at the end of the pendant,

a block is seized, through which the rope called the *brace* is reeved. The *braces* serve to square and traverse the yards. *Sea Dict.* 5. **BRACES** of a Coach. Thick straps of leather on which it hangs. 6. Harness. 7. **BRACE**. [in printing.] A crooked line inclosing a passage, which ought to be taken together, and not separately; as in a triplet.—

Charge Venus to command her son,
Where ever else she lets him rove,
To shun my house, and field and grove;
Peace cannot dwell with hate or love.

Prior.

8. Warlike preparations; from *bracing* the armour; as we say, *girded* for the battle.—

As it more concerns the Turk than Rhodes,
So may he with more facile question bear it;
For that it stands not in such warlike *bracc*,
But altogether lacks th' abilities
That Rhodes is dress'd in. *Shakespeare*.

9. Tension; tightness.—The most frequent cause of deafness is the laxness of the tympanum, when it has lost its *brace* or tension. *Holder*.

(2.) * **BRACE**. *n. s.* [of uncertain etymology, probably derived from *two braced together*.] 1. A pair; a couple. It is not *braces*, but *brace*, in the plural.—

Down from a hill, the beasts that reign in
woods,
First hunter then, pursu'd a gentle *brace*,
Godliest of all the forest, hart and hind.

Paradise Lost.

Ten *brace* and more of greyhounds, snowy
fair,
And tall as stags, ran loose and cours'd around
his chair. *Dryden's Fables*.

2. It is generally used in conversation as a sportsman's word.—He is said, this summer, to have shot with his own hands fifty *brace* of pheasants. *Addison*. 3. It is applied to men in contempt.—

But you, *brace* of lords, were I so minded,
I here could pluck his highness' frown upon
you. *Shakespeare*.

(3.) **BRACE**, in architecture. (See § 1. *def.* 3.) When the brace is framed into the kingsties or principal rafters, it is by some called a *strut*.

(4.) **BRACE**, in sea language. (See § 1. *def.* 4.) To brace the yard, is to bring it to either side. All braces come aftward on; as, the main brace comes to the poop, the main top sail brace comes to the mizen top and thence to the main shrouds; the fore and fore top-sail braces come down by the main and main top-sail stay, and so of the rest. But the mizen bowline serves to brace to the yards, and the cross-jack braces are brought forwards to the main shrouds, when the ship sails close by a wind.

(5.) **BRACE**, or **BRASSE**, a foreign measure, answering to our fathom. See **FATHOM**.

* **To BRACE**. *v. a.* [*embrasser*, Fr.] 1. To bind; to tie close with bandages.—The women of China, by *bracing* and binding them from their infancy, have very little feet. *Locke*. 2. To intend; to make tense; to strain up.—The tympanum is not capable of tension that way, in such a manner as a drum is *braced*. *Holder*.—The diminution of the force of the pressure of the external air, in *bracing* the fibres, must create a debility in muscular motion. *Aschwinot on Air*.

BRACEBY.

BRACEBY, a village in Lincolnshire, W. of Fellingham.

BRACED, in heraldry, is used in speaking of chevrons which are intermingled.

(1.) * **BRACELET**. *n. f.* [*bracelet*, Fr.] 1. An ornament for the arms.—Both his hands were cut off, being known to have worn *bracelets* of gold about his wrists. *Sir J. Hayward*.—

Tie about our tawny wrists

Bracelets of the fairy twists.

Ben Jonson.

—A very ingenious lady used to wear, in rings and *bracelets*, store of those gems. *Boyle*. 2. A piece of defensive armour for the arm.

(1.) **BRACELETS** were much used among the ancients. They were made of different materials, and in different fashions, according to the age and quality of the wearer. Menage derives the word from **BRACELETUM**, a diminutive of *brace*, a word occurring in writers of the Justinian age; all formed from the Latin *brachium*, *arm*. It amounts to the same with what was called by the ancients, *armilla*, *brachiale*, or *occabus*; in the middle age, *boga*, *bouga*, and *armijpatbu*. *Bracelets* are much worn by the savages of Africa, who are said to be so excessively fond of them, as to give the richest commodities, and even their fathers, wives, and children, in exchange for those made of no richer materials than shells, glass-beads, and the like. They form also, in modern civilized countries, a very common part of the ornaments of the ladies.

BRACELETUM. See last article.

BRACEMEAL, a village in Shropshire, S. of Shrewsbury.

BRACENARIUS, *n. f.* in old records, a huntsman; the master of the hounds.

* **BRACER**. *n. f.* [from *brace*.] 1. A cincture; a bandage.—When they affect the belly, they may be restrained by a *bracer*, without much trouble. *Wifeman*. 2. A medicine of constringent power.

BRACETUS, *n. f.* [old law Lat.] a beagle.

* **BRACH**. *n. f.* [*braque*, Fr.] A bitch hound.—Truth's a dog much to kennel; he must be whipped out, when the lady *brach* may stand by the ear, and stink. *Shakespeare*.

BRACHERIUM, or } a steel bandage, used for
BRACHERIOLUM, } the retention and cure
of ruptures.

BRACHIÆUS. See **BRACHIALIS**.

(1.) * **BRACHIAL**. *adj.* [from *brachium*, an arm, Lat.] Belonging to the arm.

(2.) **BRACHIAL NERVES**, the nerves of the arm. See **ANATOMY**, § 500—506, and *Plate VIII. fig. 5.* with § 527.

BRACHIALIS, or **BRACHIÆUS**, the name of a muscle. See **ANATOMY**, § 212.

BRACHIONUS, in entomology, a genus of animalcules of the class of **ARTHRODIA**, comprehending all the **VORTICELLÆ**, or **WHEEL** species. See **ANIMALCULES**, § 16. and *Plate XI. fig. 11—14.*

BRACHITÆ, a branch of the sect of **MANICHÆANS**, who appeared in the third century.

(1.) **BRACHIUM**, in anatomy, the **ARM**. See **ANATOMY**, § 148. 211—213.

(2.) **BRACHIUM**. See **BOTANY**, **GLOSSARY**.

BRACHMA. See **BRAMA**, and next article.

BRACHMANS, or } a branch of the ancient
BRACHMINS, } **Gymnosophists**, or philo-

sophers of India, remarkable for the severity of their lives and manners. See **GYMNOSOPHISTS**. Some say they derive their name from the patriarch Abraham, whom they call in their language **BRACHMA**, or **BRAMA**. Others deduce it from the name of their god **BRACHMA**; which some again take to be the same with Abraham: whence Postel calls them *Abrachamanes*. F. Thomassin derives it from the Hebrew *barach*, to fly or escape; because the Brachmans retire into the country and live in deserts; or, to bless or pray; as this is their principal occupation. The Greeks ascribed to them the doctrine of the immortality of the soul, and certain notions concerning the nature of the Supreme Being, and future rewards and punishments. To this species of knowledge the Brachmans added an infinite number of religious observances, which were adopted by Pythagoras in his school; such as fasting, prayer, silence, and contemplation. They were looked upon as the friends of the gods, because they affected to pay them so much regard; and as the protectors of mankind, because they paid them no regard at all. No bounds was therefore set to the respect that were shown them: princes did not scruple to consult these recluses upon any critical conjuncture, from a supposition that they were inspired; since it was impossible to imagine that they had the advantages of experience. There might, however, be among them some men of real virtue, who relished the pure delights of science; and who were capable of raising their thoughts to the contemplation of the First Being. There appear still some remains of the ancient brachmans in the east, under the denomination of **Bramins**. See **BRAMINS**.

BRACHURUS, in zoology, a name given by Dr Hill to a genus of animalcules of a roundish figure, with tails shorter than their bodies: Their skin is perfectly smooth, thin, and colourless. They are frequent in water-ponds in pepper-water, and other infusions of vegetable substances. See **ANIMALCULES**, § 5.

BRACHYCATALECTION, in poetry, [from *βραχυς*, short, and *καταληγη*, to end,] a verse wanting a syllable at the end.

BRACHYCOLON, [from *βραχυς*, and *κολον*, a member,] a period wherein one member is shorter than another.

(1.) * **BRACHYGRAPHY**. *n. f.* [*βραχυς*, short, and *γραφω*, to write.] The art or practice of writing in a short compass.—All the certainty of those high pretenders, bating what they have of the first principles, and the word of God, may be circumscribed by as small a circle as the creed, when *brachygraphy* had confined it within the compass of a penny. *Granville*.

(2.) **BRACHYGRAPHY**. See **SHORT HAND**.

BRACHYLOGY, [from *βραχυς*, and *λογος*, expression,] in rhetoric, the expressing any thing in the most concise manner. This, so far as is consistent with perspicuity, is a beauty; but if obscurity be the consequence, which is often the case, it becomes an inexcusable defect.—Quintilian gives an instance of brachylogy from Sallust: *Mithridates corpore ingenti perinde armatus*; “Mithridates, as it were, armed with the hugeness of his stature.”

BRACHY-

from Justinian. It was printed at London in 1569, folio; and in 1640, 4to. The first is very incorrect.

BRACYD, *adj. obs.* braced; elapsed. *Cbauc.*

(1.) BRAD, a town of Sclavonia, seated on the N. side of the river Save. Lon. 18. 40. E. Lat. 45. 30. N.

(2.) * BRAD, being an initial, signifies *broad*, *spacious*, from the Saxon, *brud*, and the Gothick, *brud*. *Gibson.*

(3.) * BRAD. *n. s.* A sort of nail to floor rooms with. They are about the size of a tenpenny nail, but have not their heads made with a shoulder over their shank, as other nails, but are made pretty thick towards the upper end, that the very top may be driven into, and buried in the board they nail down; so that the tops of these *brads* will not catch the thrums of the mops, when the floor is washing. *Moxon.*

(4.) BRADS are distinguished by iron-mongers by different names; as *joiner's brads*, *flooring brads*, *batten brads*, *bill brads*, or *quarter brads*, &c. Joiner's brads are for hard wainscot; batten brads are for soft wainscot; bill brads are used when a floor is laid in haste, or for shallow joists subject to warp. See NAIL.

BRADBORN; a village in Derbyshire, 4 miles from Wirksworth.

BRADBORN, in Kent, 5 miles from Maidstone.

BRADBURY, a town in Durham, 4 miles E. of Bishop's Auckland.

BRADEL, a village of Dorsetshire, in Purbeck Isle, SW. of Corfe castle.

BRADEN, a lake in Ayrshire, in which there is an island, with an old castle.

(1.) BRADENHAM, a village in Buckinghamshire, W. of Missenden.

(2.) BRADENHAM, EAST, } two villages in Nor-

(3.) BRADENHAM, WEST, } folksh. E. of Swaffham.

BRADENSTOKE, in Wiltshire, between Christian Maford and Lyneham.

BRADESLEY, in Worcestershire, near Bromsgrove.

(1.) BRADFIELD, a river in Shropshire.

(2.) BRADFIELD, a town of Essex, near Manningtree. Lon. 0. 30. E. Lat. 51. 14. N.

(3-7.) BRADFIELD is also the name of 5 English villages; viz. 1. in Berks, NW. of Theale; 2. in Hertfordshire, near Hide-Hall; 3. in Northfolkshire, NW. of Walsham; 4. in Wiltshire, near Malmesbury; and, 5. in Yorkshire W. Riding, near Doncaster. It also makes part of the names of 7 other villages: viz.

(8.) BRADFIELD BRAND, or } 4 miles SE. of

BRADFIELD-COMBUST, } Edmundsbury.

(9.) BRADFIELD-COULD, near Oulney, Bucks.

(10.) BRADFIELD, LITTLE, and } in Essex, near

(11.) BRADFIELD, MAGNA, } Thaxted, 38 miles from London. The latter has a market on Thursday, and a fair June 22.

(12.) BRADFIELD, MONKS, on a hill; and

(13.) BRADFIELD, ST CLARE, SE. of it; both in Suffolk.

(14.) BRADFIELD, SALING, in Essex, SE. of Eaton Magna.

(1.) BRADFORD; a river in Derbyshire.

(2.) BRADFORD, a town in Wiltshire, the centre of the greatest fabric of superfine cloths in Eng-

land; which it shares with the surrounding towns, Trowbridge, Melksham, Corsham, and Chippenham. It is seated on the Avon, 11 miles W. of Devizes, and 102 W. of London. It has a market on Monday, and fairs Trinity Monday and Nov. 29. Lon. 2. 20. W. Lat. 51. 20. N.

(3.) BRADFORD, a town in Yorkshire, seated on a branch of the Aire, between Leeds and Halifax. It has a considerable trade in shalloons, everlastings, &c. It is 36 miles SW. of York, and 193 NNW. of London. Lon. 1. 40. W. Lat. 53. 49. N.

(4-8.) BRADFORD is also the name of 5 English villages; viz. 1. in Devonshire, between Honiton and Samford; 2. in Ditto, E. of Houlsworth; 3. in Northumberland, SW. of Bamburgh Castle; 4. in Shropshire; and, 5. in Somersetshire, between Wellington and Taunton.

(9.) BRADFORD, John, an eminent divine, and martyr to the reformation, was born in the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII. at Manchester. He was at first secretary to Sir John Harrington, who was several times employed by king Henry, and his successor Edward VI. as paymaster to the troops abroad. Bradford at this time was a gay man, and to support his extravagance made free with the king's money; but conscience checking him, he determined to make restitution, and actually repaid the money. Quitting his employment of secretary about A. D. 1547, he took chambers in the inner temple, and for some time studied the law; but finding an inclination to preach the gospel, he removed, in 1547, to Catharine-hall in Cambridge, and there applied with such uncommon assiduity to the study of divinity, that in a much shorter time than usual he was admitted to the degree of M. A. Bishop Ridley, who, in 1550, was translated to the see of London, charmed with Bradford's application and zeal, now sent for him to the metropolis, ordained and appointed him his chaplain. In 1553, he was also made chaplain to Edward VI. during which time he became one of the most popular preachers in the kingdom. Such a reformer was too dangerous to be suffered in the succeeding reign. Mary was hardly in possession of the crown, before Bradford's persecutions began. He was first confined in the tower for sedition, where he continued a year and a half; during which time he wrote several epistles that were dispersed in various parts of the kingdom. He was afterwards removed to other prisons, and at last brought to his trial before that infernal court of inquisition, in which Gardiner sat as chief inquisitor, where he defended his principles to the last in contempt of their utmost power. They condemned him to the flames; and he was accordingly burnt alive in Smithfield, where he behaved with uncommon heroism, on July 1, 1555. His works are, 1. Seventy-two letters, written to various people, whilst the author was in prison; printed in bishop Coverdale's collection. 2. Ten letters, printed in Foxe's acts and monuments. 3. Complaint of Verity, 1559, 8vo. 4. Three examinations before the commissioners, and his private talk with the priests, with the original of his life; 1562, 8vo. 5. Two notable sermons: 1574, 8vo, 1638. 6. Godly meditation and prayers; 1614, 24to. 7. Treatise

the above *Chronicon*) extracted from Bede, Malmshbury, Geraldus, and others.

(2.) BRADSHAW, John, president of the Council who condemned Charles I. an event which brought upon his memory all the opprobrium that the ingenious friends of the party that triumphed over the republicans of that day could devise. Neither have there been wanting historians, so far the dupes of vulgar clamour as to put upon record, and hand down to posterity in their writings, many doubtful stories respecting the motives of his political conduct, as well as of his birth and origin; for the execrations of party confound all distinctions, and blacken with one promiscuous touch, all the objects against whom their ungovernable fury happens to be directed. It is not wonderful indeed that the biography of a man, whom it was the fashion of those times to consider as a vice even to *name*, should be mutilated and imperfect; or that the direct traces of his family descent should be inscrutable to the investigations of the herald or the antiquary. Those, whose aversion held forth him as a sanguinary regicide, were able to indulge, without danger of contradiction, in any reveries they thought proper, respecting his low birth and the impurity of his motives; for it may be supposed none of his family or friends would dare to oppose the current of popular odium, by attempting a vindication, to which, however conformable to truth, few would be prevailed on to attend. As no thinking person will call *just* or *expedient* the catastrophe in which Bradshaw took so conspicuous a share, we leave the subject to those who adhere to, or who impugn the political tenets of the Stuart race. The late Lord Gardenstone rashly ventured to stile it "a great act of national justice." But we shall content ourselves with repelling a great calumny which one writer has copied from another, and which involves the president Bradshaw in the common reproach of having been the tool of the usurper Cromwell. Whether he was or not, will appear from the following extracts, taken from the memoirs of that honest *historian* of his *own times*, Ludlow, who, though implicated himself in the death of Charles, was never accused, even by his enemies, of having recorded a falsehood. These are taken from the 4th edition published in 1771, and are as follows: P. 118. "On the 10th Jan. 1648, the High Court of Justice established by an act of the parliament for the trial of king Charles I. chose serjeant Bradshaw to be the president, and Mr Lisle and Mr Spay to be his assistants." P. 211. "In England they better understood the design that was carrying on, inasmuch, that many persons of known virtue and integrity were chosen to sit in this assembly (the new parliament), in particular the lord president Bradshaw, sir Arthur Hazelrig, &c. &c. P. 240. "Cromwell summons him and others to council, and is obeyed. As soon as Cromwell saw the lord president, he required him to take out a new commission for his office of chief justice of Chester, which he refused, alledging that he held that place by a grant from the parliament of England, to continue *quandiu se bene gesserit*. And whether he had carried himself with that integrity which his enemies exacted from him, he was willing to

submit to a trial by 12 Englishmen, to be chosen even by Cromwell himself." P. 244. "The president Bradshaw, notwithstanding what had passed, resolved to go his circuit, as chief justice of Chester, unless he should be prevented by force. But Cromwell thought it more advisable to permit him to execute his office, than, by interrupting his circuit, to make a breach with those of the long robe, whose assistance was so necessary to the carrying on his design. By the intrigues of Cromwell, he and other steady favourers of the commonwealth lost their seats." P. 261. "In the parliament called by Richard Cromwell, the president Bradshaw was returned for the county of Chester, by the sheriff." P. 277. "And the better to shew the consideration the parliament had for some eminent persons who were not of their body, it was agreed that the lord president Bradshaw, the lord Fairfax, and others, should be members of the council of state." P. 282. "The lord president Bradshaw, serjeant Fountain, and serjeant Tyrell, were made commissioners of the broad seal." P. 307. "During those disorders, the council of state still assembled at the usual place and at one of their meetings, colonel Sydenham, who was one of them, made a speech, wherein he endeavoured to justify these proceedings of the army, undertaking to prove that they were necessitated to make use of this last remedy, by a particular call of the Divine Providence. But the lord president Bradshaw, who was then president, though by long sickness very weak and much extenuated, yet animated by his ardent zeal and constant affection to the common cause, upon hearing these words, stood up and interrupted him, declaring his abhorrence of that detestable action, and telling the council, that being now going to his God, he had not patience to sit there to hear his great name so openly blasphemed; and thereupon departed, and withdrew himself, from public employment." Gutbrie, speaking of those with whom Bradshaw acted, makes the following remarks: "They who brought Charles to the block were men of different persuasions and principles, but many of them possessed most amazing abilities for government. They omitted no measure that could give perpetual exclusion to kingly power in England; and it cannot be denied, that, after they erected themselves into a commonwealth, they did prodigious things for retrieving the glory of England by sea. They were joined by many of the presbyterians, and both parties hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards against the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced, as it were by magic, all at once, a fleet superior to any that had ever been seen in Europe." Bradshaw's descendants are still in existence. There is a Bradshaw of Pennington in Lancashire, who is of the president's family: and he has also lineal descendants, of another name, in London and Liverpool:

(3, 4.) BRADSHAW, two English villages; 1. in the High Peak of Derby, called also BRADSHAW-EDGE: 2. in Lincolnshire, near Bury.

BRADSTONE, 3 villages; 1. in Devonshire, near

near Launceston: 2. in Gloucestershire, near Berkeley: 3. in Shropshire, near Hungerford.

BRADWALL, in Staffordshire, N. of Newcastle under Line.

BRADWARDIN, Thomas, Abp. of Canterbury, was born at Hartfield in Sussex, about the close of the 13th century. He was educated at Merton College, Oxford, where he took the degree of D. D. and was esteemed a profound scholar, a skilful mathematician, and consummate divine. Pitt says he was a professor of divinity at Oxford. From being chancellor of the diocese of London, he became a courtier and confessor to Edward III. whom he constantly attended during his war with France, assisting that victorious prince with his advice, animating the troops, and fervently praying for their success. After his return he was made prebendary of Lincoln, and Abp. of Canterbury. He died at Lambeth in 1349, forty days after his consecration. His works are, 1. *De Causa Dei*, printed, London, 1618, published by J. H. Savil. 2. *De geometria speculativa*, &c. Paris, 1495, 1512, 1530. 3. *De arithmetica practica*, Paris, 1502, 1512. 4. *De proportionibus*, Paris, 1495. Venice, 1505, folio. 5. *De quadratura circuli*, Paris, 1495, folio.

BRADWAY, two English villages: 1. in Gloucester, S. of Campden: 2. ten m. from Worcester.

(1-6.) **BRADWELL**, 8 villages: viz. 1. in Bucks, 2 m. from Stony Stratford: 2. in Cheshire, N. of Sandbach: 3. in the High Peak of Derby: 4. in Essex, near Coggeshall; which has a fair, 24 June: 5. in Suffolk, between Laystoff and Yarmouth: 6. in Warwickshire, near Granborough:—

(7.) **BRADWELL-GROVE**, in Oxfordshire: and

(8.) **BRADWELL JUXTA MARE**, [*i. e.* nigh the sea] in Essex, near Fillingham.

BRADWIN, N. of Towcester, Northamptonsh.

(1.) **BRADWOOD**, in Durham, near Stanhope.

(2.) **BRADWOOD**, in Lanark, near Carlisle.

BRADWORTHY, 5 m. NE. of Stratton, Devonshire.

(1.) **BRADY**, Nicholas, an excellent divine and poet, born at Bandon, in Cork, in 1659. He studied at Westminster, and afterwards at Oxford and Dublin colleges. He was a zealous promoter of the revolution; and, in 1690, when the troubles broke out in Ireland, by his interest with McCarty, king James's general, he thrice prevented the burning of the town of Bandon. Having quitted several preferments in Ireland, he settled in London, where he was successively promoted to several livings; and at the time of his death was rector of Clapham, minister of Richmond, and chaplain to the D. of Ormond's troop of horse guards. He wrote part of the new version of the Psalms, now sung in many churches in England and Ireland; the *Æneids* of Virgil, in 4 vols; and 3 vols of sermons. He died May 20th, 1716.

(2.) **BRADY**, Robert, born in Norfolk in 1643, was master of Caius college, Cambridge, regius professor, and twice representative of that university in parliament. In 1689, he was made keeper of the records in the Tower, and was physician in ordinary to James II. He wrote, *An introduction to the Old English history*; *An history of*

England, from the time of the Romans to the end of the reign of Richard II. and, *A treatise on English boroughs*. He died in 1700.

BRADYPEPSIA, [from *βραδύς*, slow, and *πepsis*, digestion,] slow of digestion.

BRADYPUS, the *SLOTH*, a species of quadrupeds, belonging to the order of bruta. The characters are these: They have no fore teeth in their jaw; the dog teeth are blunt, solitary, and longer than the grinders; they have 5 grinders on each side. The body is covered with hair. There are only two species, viz.

1. **BRADYPUS DIDACTYLUS** has only two toes on each foot, and no tail: The head is round; the ears are large; and it has no mammæ on the breast: The body is covered with ash-coloured hair. It is a native of Ceylon. See *Plate XLI. Fig. 5.*

2. **BRADYPUS TRIDACTYLUS**, or American Sloth, has a short tail, and 3 toes on each foot. It is about the size of a fox. The body is covered over with hair of a grey colour; the face is naked; the throat is yellowish; the fore feet are longer than the hind feet; the claws are compressed, and very strong. It has no mammæ on the breast; nor any external ears, but only two winding holes. It is the most sluggish of all animals, and seems to move with the utmost pain. Its food is fruit, or the leaves of trees. If it cannot find fruit on the ground, it looks out for a tree well loaded, and with great pain climbs up: to save the trouble of descending, it flings off the fruit, and, forming itself into a ball, drops from the branches, continues at the foot till it has devoured all, nor ever stirs till compelled by hunger. It never drinks, and is terrified at rain. The following wonderful account of this animal, from Kircher's *Misur-gia*, is quoted by Mr Stillingfleet in his miscellaneous tracts. "The description (says Kircher) I had from father Torus, who resided in America, who had animals of this kind in his possession, and made many experiments in relation to their nature and qualities. Its figure is extraordinary; it is about the bigness of a cat, of very ugly countenance, and has claws extended like fingers. The hinder part of the head and neck are covered with hair. It sweeps the ground with its fat belly, never rises upon its feet, and moves so slowly, that it would scarce go the length of a bow-shot in 15 days, though constantly moving, and it is therefore called the *Sloth*. It lives generally upon tops of trees, and employs two days to crawl up, and as many to get down again. Nature has doubly guarded this animal against its enemies. First, by giving it such strength in its feet, that whatever it seizes, it holds so fast, that it never can be freed from its claws, but must there die of hunger.—2dly, By giving it such a moving aspect, when it looks at any man who should be tempted to hurt it, that it is impossible not to be touched with compassion; besides, that at the same time it sheds tears, and upon the whole persuades one, that a creature so defenceless, and of so unhappy a body, ought not to be tormented. To make an experiment of this, the above mentioned father procured one of these animals to be brought to our college at Carthagen. He put a long pole under its feet, which it seized upon very firmly, and would

would not let go again. The animal, therefore, thus voluntarily suspended, was placed between two beams along with the pole, and there it remained without meat, drink, or sleep, 40 days; its eyes being always fixed on people that looked at it, who were so touched, that they could not forbear pitying it. At last being taken down, they let loose a dog on it, which after a little while the sloth seized with his feet, and held him four days till he died of hunger. This was taken from the mouth of the father. They add (continues Kircher), that this creature makes no noise but at night, but that very extraordinary. For by interruptions, that last about the length of a sigh or semipause, it goes through the six vulgar intervals of music, Ut, re, mi, fa, sol, la, La, sol, fa, mi, re, ut, ascending and descending, and these perfectly in tune: So that the Spaniards, when they first got possession of this coast, and heard these notes, imagined that some people brought up to our music were singing. This animal is called by the natives *haut*; certainly because, going through these musical intervals, it repeats, Ha, ha, ha, ha, ha, &c." To this account Linnaeus seems, in his *Systema Naturæ*, to give credit: For he says, in his short way of description, among other things, "It utters an ascending hexachord: its noise is horrible; its tears are piteous." He quotes Musgrave, Clusius, Gesner, &c.

(1.) BRAE-MAR, or } a mountainous district
(1.) BRAE-MARR, } of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, situated in the middle of the Grampian hills, about 50 miles W. of Aberdeen, and one of the 3 divisions of that extensive territory called MARR. Geographers have strangely mistaken it, by representing it as a valley. The Rev. Dr Ogilvy of Mid-Marr, styles it the *highest* part of the country; and the Rev. Mr M'Hardy gives a similar description of it. See N° 2. The mistake seems to have arisen from confounding it with MID-MARR.

(2.) BRAE-MARR, a parish of Scotland, in the above district, (N° 1.) anciently called CEAN-ANDROCHAIT, and long united with that of Crathy. It is "more elevated," says Mr M'Hardy, "above the level of the sea, and farther removed in every direction from the coast, than any other parish in Scotland." By that gentleman's report to Sir J. Sinclair, it contained 1227 inhabitants, 466 horses, 9200 sheep, and 930 black cattle, in 1793. For other particulars, see CRATHY.

(1.) BRAE-MORAY, a parish in Murrayshire. See EDENKEILLIE.

(2.) BRAE-MORAY, KNOCK OF. See KNOCK.

(3.) BRAY-MORAY, or } a mountainous and
BRAE-MURRAY, } woody district of Scotland, in the counties of Elgin and Nairn.

BRAES, an eminence in Stirlingshire, in the parish of Dunipace, on which there is an ancient Danish fort.

BRAESBRIDGE, a village S. of Lincoln.

BRAFFERTON, two villages; 1. in Durham, 3 m. N. of Darlington: 2. in Yorkshire, NE. of Boroughbridge.

(1.) BRAG, a game at cards, wherein as many may partake as the cards will supply; the eldest hand dealing 3 to each person at one time, and turning up the last card all round. This done, the dealer puts down 3 stakes, one for each

card.—The first stake is won by the best card turned up in the dealing round; beginning from the ace, king, queen, knave, and so downwards. When cards of the same value are turned up to two or more of the gamesters, the eldest hand gains; but the ace of diamonds wins, to whatever hand it be turned up.—The second stake is won by what is called the *brag*, which consists in one of the gamesters challenging the rest to produce cards equal to his. A pair of aces is the best brag, a pair of kings the next, and so on; and a pair of any sort wins the stake from the most valuable single card. In this part consists the great diversion of the game; for, by the artful management of the looks, gesture, and voice, it frequently happens, that a pair of fives, treys, or even deuces, out-brags a much higher pair, and even some pairs royal, to the no small merriment of the company. The knave of clubs is a principal favourite, making a pair with any other card in hand, and with any other two cards a pair royal.—The third stake is won by the person who first makes up the cards in his hand 31; each dignified card going for ten, and drawing from the pack, as usual in this game.

(1.) * BRAG. *n. f.* [from the verb] 1. A boast; a proud expression.—

A kind of conquest

Cæsar made here; but made not here his *brag*
Of came, and saw, and overcame. *Shakespeare.*

—It was such a new thing for the Spaniards to receive so little hurt, upon dealing with the English, as Avallaneda made great brags of it, for no greater matter than waiting upon the English afar off. *Bacon.*

2. The thing boasted.—

Beauty is nature's *brag*, and must be shewn
In courts, at feasts, and high solemnities,
Where most may wonder. *Milton.*

* To BRAG. *v. n.* [*braggeren*, Dutch.] 1. To boast; to display ostentatiously; to tell boastful stories.—

Thou coward! art thou *bragging* to the stars?
Telling the bushes that thou look'st for wars,
And wilt not come? *Shakespeare.*

—Mark me, with what violence she first loved the Moor, but for *bragging*, and telling her fantastical lies. *Shakespeare.*—In *bragging* out some of their private tenets, as if they were the established doctrine of the church of England. *Sanderon.*—They rebels were grown so strong there, that they intended then, as they already *bragged*, to come over and make this the seat of war. *Clarendon.*—Mrs Bull's condition was looked upon as desperate by all the men of art; but there were those that *bragged* they had an infallible ointment. *Arbutnot.* 2. It has *of* before the thing boasted.—Knowledge being the only thing *whereof* we poor old men can *brag*, we cannot make it known but by utterance. *Sidney.*—

Verona *brags of* him,

To be a virtuous and well-govern'd youth.

Shakespeare.

Ev'ry busy little scribbler now
Swells with the praises which he gives himself,
And taking sanctuary in the crowd,
Brags of his impudence, and scorns to mend.

Restoration.

3. *Use*

3. *On* is used, but improperly.—

Yet lo! in me what authors have to *brag on*!
Reduc'd at last to his in my own dragon.

Pope.

BRAGA, a city of Portugal, the capital of the province of Entre-duero-e-minho, situated on the river Cavado, 33 miles N. of Porto Port. Lon. 8. 29. W. Lat. 41. 42. N.

BRAGAN'S-TOWN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Louth, 35 m. from Dublin.

(1.) **BRAGANZA**, a duchy of Portugal.

(2.) **BRAGANZA**, the capital of the above duchy (Nº 1.) seated on an eminence near the rivulet Fervenza; and divided into the old city and the new town. The former is upon an eminence, and fortified with a double wall. That part next the town has 5 bastions, but no ditch; the citadel is on the opposite side joined to the wall. The town is in a plain, and defended by a fort with 4 bastions. It is seated near the river Sabor, on the frontiers of Galicia; 55 miles NE. of Villa Real; and carries on a silk manufacture. Lon. 6. 15. W. Lat. 41. 27. N.

BRAGER-END, a village in Hertfordshire, N. of Datchworth, and W. of Watton.

* **BRAGGADOCIO**. *n. f.* [from *brag*.] A puffing, swelling, boasting fellow.—The world abounds in terrible fanfarons, in the masque of men of honour; but these *braggadocios* are easy to be detected. *L'Estrange*.—By the plot, you may guess much of the characters of the persons; a *braggadocio* captain, a parasite, and a lady of pleasure. *Dryden*.

* **BRAGGARDISM**. *n. f.* [from *brag*.] Boastfulness; vain ostentation.

(1.) * **BRAGGART**. *adj.* [from *brag*.] Boastful; vainly ostentatious.—

Shall I, none's slave, of high born or rais'd men

Fear frowns; and my mistress, truth, betray thee

Toth' huffing, *braggart*, puff nobility? *Donne*.

(2.) * **BRAGGART**. *n. f.* [from *brag*.] A boaster.

Who knows himself a *braggart*,
Let him fear this; for it will come to pass,
That ever *braggart* shall be found an ass.

Shakespeare.

* **BRAGGER**. *n. f.* [from *brag*.] A boaster; an ostentatious fellow.—Such as have had opportunity to sound these *braggers*, thoroughly, by having sometimes endured the penance of their foolish company, have found them, in converse, empty and insipid. *South*.

BRAGGOT, [from *brag*, malt, and *gots*, a honey-comb. Old Brit] a kind of drink made of malt, honey, and spices, much used in Wales.

BRAGGS, a village in Dorsetshire.

* **BRAGLESS**. *adj.* [from *brag*.] Without a boast; without ostentation.—

The bruit is, Hector's slain, and by Achilles.

—If it is so, *bragless* let it be,

Great Hector was as good a man as he.

Shakespeare.

* **BRAGLY**. *adv.* [from *brag*.] Finely; so as it may be bragged.—

Sceft not thilk hawthorn stud,

How *bragly* it begins to bud,

And utter his tender head?

Flora now calleth forth each flower,

And bids make ready Maia's bower. *Spenser.*

BRAGWORT, a weak kind of MEAD.

BRAHAN CASTLE, the chief seat of Mr M'Kenzie of Seaforth, is situated in Rossshire, in the parish of Urray.

BRAHE, Tycho, a celebrated astronomer, descended of an illustrious family originally of Sweden, but settled at Denmark, was born Dec. 14th 1546, at Knudstorp in Schonen. He was taught Latin when seven years old, and studied five years under private tutors. His father dying, his uncle sent him, in April 1559, to study philosophy and rhetoric at Copenhagen. The great eclipse of the sun on the 21st Aug. 1560. happening at the precise time the astronomers had foretold, he began to look upon astronomy as something divine; and purchasing the tables of Stadius, gained some notion of the theory of the planets. In 1562, he was sent by his uncle to Leipzig to study law; but astronomy wholly engrossed his thoughts, and in purchasing books on that science he employed all his pocket money. Having procured a small celestial globe, he was wont to wait till his tutor was gone to bed, in order to examine the constellations and learn their names; and when the sky was clear, he spent whole nights in viewing the stars. In 1565, Brahe having quarrelled with a Danish nobleman, they fought and he had part of his nose cut off; which defect he so artfully supplied with one made of gold and silver, that it was not perceivable. About this time he began to apply to chemistry, proposing nothing less than to obtain the philosopher's stone. In 1571, he returned to Denmark; and was favoured by his mother's brother, Steno Belle, a lover of learning, with a convenient place at his castle of Herritzvad near Knudstorp, for making his observations, and building a laboratory. But marrying a country girl, beneath his rank, such a violent quarrel ensued between him and his relations, that Frederick II. king of Denmark, was obliged to interpose to reconcile them. In 1574, he read lectures upon the theory of the comets at Copenhagen.—In 1575, he began his travels through Germany, and proceeded as far as Venice: he then resolved to remove his family, and settle at Basil; but the king being informed of his design, and unwilling to lose such an ornament to his country, promised, (to enable him to pursue his studies,) to bestow upon him, for life, the island of Huen in the Sound, to erect an observatory and laboratory there, and to defray all the expences necessary for carrying on his designs. Tycho Brahe readily embraced this proposal; and accordingly the first stone of the observatory was laid August 8, 1576. The king also gave him a pension of 2000 crowns out of his treasury, a fee in Norway, and a canonry of Roskilde, which brought him 1000 more. James VI. of Scotland, going to Denmark to marry the princess Anne, paid him a visit at Uranibourg, made him several presents, and with his own hand wrote a copy of verses in his praise.—After the death of king Frederic, in 1588, he was deprived of his pension, fee, and canonry; upon which, finding himself incapable of bearing the expences of his observatory, he went to Copenhagen, whither he brought some of his instruments.

and continued his astronomical observations in that city, till Valkendorf, chamberlain to Christian IV. commanded him, by the king's order, to discontinue them. He then removed his family to Rostock, and afterwards to Holstein, to solicit Henry Ranzou to introduce him to the emperor, Rudolphus; and that gentleman complying, he was received by the emperor at Prague with the utmost civility and respect. That prince gave him a magnificent house, till he could procure one more fit for astronomical observations; assigned him a pension of 300 crowns; and promised, upon the first opportunity, a fee for him and his descendants: but he did not long enjoy this happy situation; for, on the 24th Oct. 1601, he died of a retention of urine, in the 55th year of his age, and was interred very magnificently in the principal church at Prague, where a noble monument was erected to him.—His skill in astronomy is universally known, and he is famed for being the inventor of a new system, which he endeavoured, though without success, to establish instead of the Copernican. He was very credulous with regard to judicial astrology and presages. If he met an old woman when he went out of doors, or a hare upon the road on a journey, he used to turn back immediately, being persuaded that it was a bad omen. When he lived at Uranibourg, he had at his house a madman, whom he placed at his feet at table, and fed himself. As he imagined that every thing spoken by mad persons presaged something, he carefully observed all that this man said; and because it sometimes proved true, he imagined it might always be depended on. A mere trifle put him in a passion; and against persons of the first rank, with whom it was his interest to keep on good terms, he openly discovered his resentment. He was very apt to rally others, but highly provoked if the same liberty was taken with himself. His principal works are, 1. *Progymnasmata astronomiæ*. 2. *De mundi ætherei recentioribus phænomenis*. 3. *Epistolarum astronomicarum liber*. Of the rest of his works Dr Hutton gives a list, in his *Math. and Phil. Dict.* Vol. 1. p. 225, 226.

BRAHMA. See **BRAMA**.

(1.) * **BRAID.** *adj.* [To *brede*, in *Chaucer*, is to deceive.] An old word, which seems to signify deceitful.—

Since Frenchmen are so *braid*,
Marry 'em that will. I'll live and die a maid.

Shakespeare.

(2.) * **BRAID.** *n. s.* [from the verb.] A texture; knot, or complication of something woven together.—

Listen where thou art sitting,
Under the glossy, cool, translucent wave,
In twisted *braids* of lilies knitting
The loose train of thy amber-dropping. *Milton.*

No longer shall thy comely traces break
In flowing ringlets on thy snowy neck,
Or sit behind thy head, an ample round,
In graceful *braids*, with various ribbon bound.

Prior.

* To **BRAID.** *v. a.* [*bradan*, Saxon.] To wave together.—

Close the serpent fly,
Influating, wave with gordian twine —

His braided train, and of his fatal guile
Gave proof unheeded.

—Ofer wands, lying loosely, may each of them be easily dissociated from the rest; but when *braided* into a basket, they cohere strongly. *Boyle.*—

A ribbon did the *braided* tresses bind,
The rest was loose, and wanton'd in the wind.

Dryden.

Since in *braided* gold her feet is bound,
And a long trailing mantua sweeps the ground,
Her shoe disdains the street.

BRAIDALBIN, or **BREADALBANE**, a district of Perthshire, extending 32 m. from E. to W. and 19 where broadest from S. to N. It is a mountainous country, lying among the Grampian hills, supposed to be the country anciently known by the name of **ALBANIA**; whence the Highlanders to this day call themselves *Albinich*. The name, in Gaelic, *Braid Albainn*, signifies the highest part in Scotland, as an evidence of which the rivers run partly into the eastern and partly into the western ocean. It is bounded on the W. by Lochaber, Lorn, and Knapdale; on the N. and E. by part of Lochaber and part of Athol; and on the S. by Strathern and Monteith. It produces plenty of game and black cattle; is inhabited by Highlanders said to be the most civilized in all Scotland, and gives the title of earl to a branch of the Campbell family who have a magnificent seat in it, at Taymouth. Its ancient name **ALBANY**, too, affords a Scots title to the D. of York. Much flax is cultivated here. Some years ago, when premiums were given for the greatest crops, from 70 to 120 hogsheds of lintseed were annually sown, each peck yielding two stones of dressed flax; and when the yarn sold highest, L. 2000 worth has been sold out of the country. Oats and potatoes are the other crops. Oats yield from 4 to 6 fold; bear, at an average, six; sometimes from 8 to 10. The corn raised now fully suffices the inhabitants without importation. From their potatoes some have distilled a very strong spirit, which has been found cheaper than what is distilled from grain. Starch and bread are also made from them. *Corcur*, or the lichen *omphaloides*, is an article of commerce; great quantities have been scraped from the rocks, and exported for the use of the dyers, at the price of 18. or 16d. per stone. Many sheep are reared here, and much wool is sent out of the country. Few horses are raised in this country: such as feed on the tops of the higher hills are often afflicted with a distemper that commonly proves fatal, if a remedy is not applied within 24 hours. It attacks them in the month of July and August, usually after a fall of rain, or before the dew rises in the morning. An universal swelling spreads over the body; the remedy is exercise, chafing, and whatever promotes urine and perspiration. The natives attribute this evil to a certain animal that scatters its poison over the grass; but more probably, it arises from some noxious vegetable heretofore unobserved. Before the year 1745, lord Braidalbin was obliged to keep a constant guard for the protection of his vassals cattle, or to retain spies among the thievish clans; having too much spirit to submit to pay an infamous tax called **BLACK MEAL**, to the plundering chieftains as the price of their safety.

BRAIDE

BRAIDE. *n. f. obs.* a start. *Chauc.*

To BRAIDE. *v. n. obs.* to arise, to start up. *Ch.*

BRAILA, a town of European Turkey, in Walachia, seated on the Danube. It has a castle fortified with 7 towers. It was taken by the Russian Gen. Romne 1711, but restored afterwards.

BRAILES, a village in Warwickshire, 3 miles from Shipton. It has a fair on Easter Tuesday.

BRAILESFORD, near Kedleston, Derbysh.

BRAILOW, a town of Poland, in Podolia, seated on the river Bog, 40 miles N. of Bracklaw. Lon. 28. 0. E. Lat. 46. 12. N.

* **BRAILS.** *n. f.* [Sea term.] Small ropes reeved through blocks, which are seized on either side the ties, a little off upon the yard; so that they come down before the sails of a ship, and are fastened at the skirt of the sail, to the orengles. Their use is when the sail is furled across, to haul up its bunt, that it may the more readily be taken up or let fall. *Harris.*

(1) * **BRAIN.** *n. f.* [*brægen*, Sax. *breyne*, Dutch.] 1. That collection of vessels and organs in the head, from which sense and motion arise.—The *brain* is divided into *cerebrum* and *cerebellum*. *Cerebrum* is that part of the *brain* which possesses all the upper and forepart of the *cranium*, being separated from the *cerebellum* by the second process of the *dura mater*, under which the *cerebellum* is situated. The substance of the *brain* is distinguished into outer and inner; the former is called *corticalis*, *cinerea*, or *glandulosa*; the latter, *medullaris*, *alba*, or *nervea*. *Cheselden.*—If I be served such another trick, I'll have my *brains* ta'en out and buttered, and give them to a dog for a new year's gift. *Shakespeare's Merry Wives of Windsor.*—That man proportionably hath the largest *brain*, I did, I confess, somewhat doubt, and conceive it might have failed in birds, especially such as having little bodies, have yet large crânes, and seem to contain much *brain*, as snipes and wood cocks; but, upon trial, I find it very true. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.* 2. That part in which the understanding is placed; therefore taken for the understanding.—The force they are under is a real force; and that of their fate but an imaginary conceived one; the one but in their *brains*, the other on their shoulders. *Hammond.*—A man is first a geometer in his *brain*, before he be such in his hand. *Hale.* 3. Sometimes the affections: this is not common, nor proper.—My son Edgar! had he a hand to write this! a heart and *brain* to breed it in! *Shakespeare.*

(2.) **BRAIN.** See ANATOMY, INDEX.

* **To BRAIN.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] To dash out the brains; to kill by beating out the brains.—Why, as I told thee, 'tis a custom with him i' the afternoon to sleep; there thou may'st *brain* him. *Shakespeare.*

Outlaws of nature,
Fit to be shot and *brain'd* without a process,
To stop infection; that's their proper death.

Dryden.

Next seiz'd two wretches more, and head-
long cast,
Brain'd on the rock, his second dire repast.

Pope.

BRAINFIELD, a village in Northamptonshire, near Houghton Magna and Parva.

VOL. IV. PART I.

* **BRAINISH.** *adj.* [from *brain*.] Hotheaded; furious; as *cerebrofus* in Latin.—

In his lawless fit,

Behind the arras hearing something stir,

He whips his rapier out, and cries, a rat!

And, in his *brainish* apprehension, kills

The unseen good old man. *Shakespeare's Hamlet.*

BRAIN LE COMPTE, or } a town of France, in

BRAIN LE COMTE, { the ci-devant Austrian

Netherlands, and late province of Hainault; now included in one of the new departments into which Belgium is divided. It is 15 miles SW. of Brussels, and 9 NE. of Mons. Lon. 4. 11. E. Lat. 50. 35. N.

* **BRAINLESS.** *adj.* [from *brain*.] Silly; thoughtless; witless.—Some *brainless* man have by great travel and labour brought to pass, that the church is now ashamed of nothing more than saints. *Hooker.*

If the dull *brainless* Ajax come safe off,

We dress him up in vices.

Shakespeare.

The *brainless* stripling, who, expell'd the town,

Damn'd the stiff college, and pedantick gown,

Aw'd by thy name, is dumb.

Tickell.

* **BRAINPAN.** *n. f.* [from *brain* and *pan*.] The skull containing the brains.—

With those huge bellows in his hands, he blows

New fire into my head: my *brainpan* glows.

Dryden.

* **BRAINSICK.** *adj.* [from *brain* and *sick*.] Dis- eased in the understanding; addleheaded; giddy; thoughtless.—

Nor once deject the courage of our minds,

Because Cassandra's mad; her *brainsick* raptures

Cannot distaste the goodness of a quarrel.

Shakespeare.

—They were *brainsick* men, who could neither endure the government of their king, nor yet thankfully receive the authors of their deliverance. *Knolles.*

* **BRAINSICKLY.** *adv.* [from *brainsick*.] Weakly; headily.—

Why worthy thane,

You do unbend your noble strength to think

So *brainsickly* of things.

Shakespeare.

* **BRAINSICKNESS.** *n. f.* [from *brainsick*.] Indiscretion; giddiness.

BRAINTON, a village near Hereford.

BRAINTREE, a town in Essex, near Bocking, called *RAINS*, in Doomsday book. It carries on a great manufacture of baize; and has a market on Wed. and fairs May 8. and Oct. 22. It lies 12 miles N. of Chelmsford, and 41 NE. of London. Lon. 0. 40. E. Lat. 51. 55. N.

BRAISTON, a village SE. of Derby.

* **BRAFT.** *n. f.* Among jewellers for a rough diamond. *Dict.*

(1.) * **BRAKE.** *n. f.* [of uncertain etymology.]

2. A thicket of brambles, or of thorns.—A dog of the town used daily to fetch meat, and to carry the same unto a blind mastiff, that lay in a *brake* without the town. *Carew.*

If I'm traduc'd with tongues, which neither know

My faculties nor person; let me say,

'Tis but the fate of place, and the rough *brake*

That virtue must go through.

Shakespeare.

(1.) **BRAMHALL**, a town in Meath, Ireland.

(2.) **BRAMHALL**, Dr John, archbishop of Armagh, was born of an ancient family at Pontefract, about A. D. 1593. He was invited over to Ireland by the lord deputy Wentworth; and soon after obtained the arch-deaconry of Meath. In 1634, he was made bishop of Londonderry, which he improved very much; and several acts passed for abolishing fee farms, recovering impropriations, &c by which he regained to the church 30,000 or 40,000 a year. In the convocation he prevailed upon the church of Ireland to unite with the church of England, by adopting the 39 articles of that church; but could only prevail on them to accept of some of the canons. Articles of treason were exhibited against him in the Irish parliament; and at the treaty of Uxbridge in 1644, the English parliament made it a preliminary article, that Bp. Bramhall, with Abp. Laud, &c. should be excepted from the general pardon. He went abroad; but on the restoration was appointed archbishop of Armagh, primate of Ireland, &c. and was chosen speaker of the House of Lords. He died in 1663; and was the author of several works, which have been collected in 1 vol. folio.

BRAMHAM MOOR, near Tadcaster, Yorkshire.

BRAMHOPE, a town two miles from Orley, Yorkshire.

BRAMICIDE, *n. s.* the crime of killing a Bramin, reputed in the E. Indies, one of the five most heinous sins.

BRAMINICAL, *adj.* belonging to a Bramin.

BRAMINS, the priests among the idolatrous Indians, the successors of the ancient **BRACHMANS**. Their name is formed from **BRAMA**, their particular deity. They are found in Siam, Malaber, China, Coromandel, and most other eastern nations anywise civilized; but their chief seat is in **INDOSTAN**. They have a language peculiar to themselves, which they call **SHANSCHRIT**; in which they have several ancient books, written, as is alledged, by their great prophet Brahma; as the **SHASTRAM**, which is their bible; and **PORANE**, a history which they esteem sacred, and pretend to have been dictated by God himself. There are several orders of Bramins. Those who mix in society are for the most part very corrupt in their morals: they believe that the water of the Ganges will wash away all their crimes; and, as they are not subject to any civil jurisdiction, live without either restraint or virtue, excepting that character of compassion and charity which is so commonly found in the mild climate of India. The others, who live abstracted from the world, are either weak-minded men or enthusiasts; and abandon themselves to laziness, superstition, and the dreams of metaphysics. We find in their disputes the very same ideas that occur in the writings of our most celebrated metaphysicians; such as, substance, accident, priority, posteriority, immutability, indivisibility, &c. Their religion, which was anciently of the allegorical and moral kind, has degenerated into a heap of extravagant and obscene superstitions, owing to their having realized those fictions which were intended merely as so many symbols and emblems. Were it possible to obtain a sight of their sacred books, (the only remains of the Indian antiquities,) we might in some

measure be enabled to remove the veil that envelopes those numerous mysteries; but the following story, related by Abbe Raynal, in his *Hist. of the Indies*, will show how little reason there is to hope for such a communication. The emperor Mahmoud Akbar had an inclination to make himself acquainted with the principles of all the religious sects throughout his extensive provinces. Having discarded the superstitious notions with which he had been prepossessed by his education in the Mahometan faith, he resolved to judge for himself. It was easy for him to be acquainted with the nature of these systems that are formed upon the plan of making proselytes; but he found himself disappointed in his design when he came to treat with the Indians, who will not admit any person whatever to the participation of their mysteries. Neither the authority nor promises of Akbar could prevail with the Bramins to disclose the tenets of their religion; he was therefore obliged to have recourse to artifice. The stratagem he made use of was to cause a boy, of the name of Feizi, to be committed to the care of these priests, as a poor orphan of the sacerdotal line, who alone could be initiated into the sacred rites of their theology. Feizi, having received the proper instructions for the part he was to act, was conveyed privately to Benares, the seat of knowledge in Indostan; he was received into the house of a learned Bramin, who educated him with the same care as if he had been his own son. After the youth had spent ten years in study, Akbar was desirous of recalling him; but he was struck with the charms of the daughter of his preceptor. The women of the sacerdotal tribe are looked upon as the greatest beauties in Indostan. The old Bramin laid no restraint upon the growing passion of the two lovers: He was fond of Feizi, who had gained his affection by his address and docility; and offered him his daughter in marriage. The young man, divided between love and gratitude, resolved to conceal the fraud no longer; and falling at the feet of the Bramin, discovered the imposture and asked pardon for his offence. The priest, without reproaching him in the least, seized a poinard which hung at his girdle, and was going to plunge it in his breast, if Feizi had not prevented him by taking hold of his arm. The young man used every means to pacify him, and declared himself ready to do any thing to expiate his treachery. The Bramin, bursting into tears, promised to pardon him on condition that he should swear never to translate the *Bedas* or sacred volumes, or disclose to any person whatever the symbol of the Bramin creed. Feizi readily promised all that the Bramin required: how far he kept his word is not known; but the sacred books of the Indians have never been translated by him, or any one else, to this day. As the Bramins are the only persons who understand the language of the sacred book, their comments on the text are the same as those that have ever been made on religious books; all the maxims which fancy, interest, passion, or false zeal can suggest, are to be found in these volumes. See **SHAFTAN** and **VEDAM**. Mr Thomas, an Indian missionary, gives a very different account of the Brahmins, from the above of Abbe Raynal, in a conversation he had with a number of them, at

a Hindoo college, near Calcutta, in Jan. 1792; which he published upon his return to England. From this, it would appear that the Brahmins are far from being bigots, and that they are equally ready to communicate and receive religious instruction from any stranger. He gives a very entertaining account, how in this conversation he led them on by his questions first to doubt of their own religious system, and then to be ready to receive with anxiety and emotion the outlines which he gave them of the Christian doctrines; along with a translation of the Bible into their own language, which he put into their hands. They own a supreme God, who created Brama, and gave him power to create the world. They have also their subaltern deities, their pagods or temples, and idols, whom they fan to defend from flies, dancing before them. They also hold a feast in honour of the sun, as the source of light and heat whereby all nature is fecundified. Their pagods consist of 3 parts. The first is a vaulted roof, supported on stone columns; it lies open, and all persons, without distinction, are allowed to enter into it. It is adorned with symbolical figures, made of wood, as elephants, oxen, and horses. The 2d part is open in the day-time, and shut at night. It is filled with grotesque and monstrous figures, as men with many heads and arms. The 3d, which is a kind of chancel, is kept always shut, with a very strong gate. In this is placed the statue of the deity to whom the pagod is dedicated. A great number of lamps burn day and night before the idol. The Bramins, before they go into the pagod, pull off their shoes, and leave them at the door. The Bramins of Siam and Coromandel maintain that the earth will be destroyed by fire. The former assert that another will rise out of its ashes, in which there shall be no sea, nor any change of seasons, but an eternal spring; and the latter maintain a plurality of worlds, which are alternately destroyed and renewed. For the astronomical knowledge of the Bramins, see OBSERVATORY.

BRAMLAW, a village in Shropshire, between Wilmington and Hocklow Forest.

(1—3.) **BRAMLEY**, four villages; viz. 1. in Hampshire, near Stratfield: 2. in Surry, near Godalming: 3. in Yorkshire, near Leeds: and,

(4.) **BRAMLEY-GRANGE**, in Yorkshire, near Kirby-Malcdale.

(1.) **BRAMPORE**, a town of India, in the province of Berar, subject to the Great Mogul, 220 miles E. of Surat. Lon. 77. 15. E. Lat. 21. 32. N.

(2.) **BRAMPORE**, or } a city of Asia, in the do-
BRAMPOUR, } minions of the Great Mo-
gul, and capital of Candish. It formerly stood on much ground as London; but is now greatly decayed, and chiefly inhabited by Banians. The streets are numerous, but narrow, with low thatched houses built of earth. A few are covered with painted tiles. In rainy weather many of the streets are overflowed. In the market place is the statue of an elephant in red stone, as big as the elephant. On the other side of the river, a new town is built in a better situation. A great trade is carried on in it, and throughout all the province, a prodigious quantity of cotton cloth is made. Cotton is in greater plenty here than in

any other place of the empire. Lon. 77. 25. E. Lat. 21. 10. N.

(1.) **BRAMPTON**, a town of Cumberland, 8 miles NE. of Carlisle, one mile below the Pils wall, on the river Irthin; near its junction with the Gelt. It is a very ancient place, but at present very small. It lies 31½ miles NNW. of London. Lon. 2. 40. W. Lat. 54. 58. N.

(2—14.) **BRAMPTON** is also the name of 13 villages; viz. 1. in Derbyshire, near Chesterfield: 2. a mile from Huntingdon: 3. in Norfolk, near Alesham: 4. in Northamptonsh. near Rothwell: 5. in Northumberland, NW. of Alnwick: 6. near Montgomery: 7. near Purflow; and, 8. near Wroxeter, all in Shropshire: 9. in Suffolk, near Beccles: 10. NE. of Barnsley; 11. SE. of Doncaster; 12. N. of Northallerton, and, 13. near Richmond; all in Yorkshire. **BRAMPTON** also makes part of the names of other 8 villages; viz.

(15.) **BRAMPTON-ABBOTS**, N. of Ross, Hereford.

(16.) **BRAMPTON-BANK**, in Staffordshire, near Newcastle under Line.

(17.) **BRAMPTON-BIERLEY**, in Yorkshire, SE. of Rothcrum.

(18.) **BRAMPTON-BRION**, in Herefordshire, N. of Pembridge. It has a fair June 22.

(19.) **BRAMPTON-CHAPEL**, and } in Northamp-

(20.) **BRAMPTON-CHURCH**, } tonshire, be-
tween Althorp and Boughton.

(21.) **BRAMPTON-HALL**, in Northamptonshire, near Dingley and Stoke Albany.

(22.) **BRAMPTON IN MORTHING**, SE. of Rothcrum, Yorkshire.

BRAMSHALE, near Hartford, Hampshire.

BRAMSHOT, two villages in Hampshire; 1. near Elvetham; and, 2. near Petersfield.

BRAMSTON, two villages; 1. in Suffex, SE. of Dunmow: 2. in Northamptonsh. near Wilby.

BRAMTON, in Lincolnshire, near Torksey.

BRAMWITH, in Yorkshire, near Fish-lake.

BRAMWITH-HALL, and } in Yorkshire, 5 miles

BRAMWITH-KIRK, } from Doncaster.

BRAMYARD, a town in Herefordshire, 125 miles from London. It has a market on Monday.

(1.) * **BRAN**. *n. f.* [*brenna*, Ital.] The husks of corn ground; the refuse of the sieve.—

From me do back receive the flower of all,

And leave me but the *bran*. *Shakespeare.*

—The citizens were driven to great distress for want of victuals; bread they made of the coarsest *bran*, moulded in cloths; for otherwise it would not cleave together. *Hayward.*—In the sitting of fourteen years of power and favour, all that came out, could not be pure meal, but must have among it, a certain mixture of padar and *bran*, in this lower age of human fragility. *Watson.*—

Then water, him, and drinking what he can,

Encourage him to thirst again with *bran*. *Dryden.*

(2.) **BRAN** contains a portion of the farinaceous matter. It is less glutinous than the finest flour, and is supposed to have a detergent quality. Infusions of bran are employed with this intention externally, and sometimes likewise taken inwardly. Among the ancients, bran was used as an erotic, to excite love. Bran boiled, purges scurvy, dandruff, and cleanses the hands in lieu of soap. The dyers reckon it among the not-colouring drugs; and use it for making what they call the

fur waters, with which they prepare their several dyes. Bran is also used as a medicine for horses. See FARRIERY, *Index*.

(3.) BRAN, a hill of Scotland, in Inverness-shire; so named, (says tradition,) from *Bran*, the famous dog of Fingal.

(4.) BRAN, a river. See BRAAN.

BRANCA, in writers of the middle age, the paw of a wild beast; a bird of prey.

BRANCASTER, a village in Norfolkshire.

(1.) * BRANCH. *n. s.* [*branche*, Fr.] 1. The shoot of a tree from one of the main boughs.—

Why grow the *branches*, when the root is gone?

Why wither not the leaves that want their sap?

Shakespeare.

2. Any member or part of the whole; any distinct article; any section or subdivision.—

Your oaths are past, and now subscribe your names,

That his own hand may strike his honour down,

That violates the smallest *branch* herein. *Shak.*

—The belief of this was of special importance, to confirm our hopes of another life, on which so many *branches* of christian piety do immediately depend. *Hammond*.—In the several *branches* of justice and charity, comprehended in those general rules, of loving our neighbour as ourselves, and of doing to others as we would have them do to us, there is nothing but what is most fit and reasonable. *Tillotson*.—This precept will oblige us to perform our duty, according to the nature of the various *branches* of it. *Rogers*. 3. Any part that shoots out from the rest.—And six *branches* shall come out of the sides of it; three *branches* of the candlestick out of the one side, and three *branches* of the candlestick out of the other side. *Exodus*.—His blood, which disperseth itself by the *branches* of veins, may be resembled to waters carried by brooks. *Raleigh*. 4. A smaller river running into, or proceeding from, a larger.—If, from a main river, any *branch* be separated and divided, then, where that *branch* doth first bound itself with new banks, there is that part of the river where the *branch* forsaketh the main stream, called the head of the river. *Raleigh*. 5. Any part of a family descending in a collateral line.—His father, a younger *branch* of the ancient stock planted in Somersetshire, took to wife the widow. *Carew*. 6. The offspring; the descendant.—

Great Anthony! Spain's well-beseeming pride,

Thou mighty *branch* of emperours and kings!

Crashaw.

7. The antlers or shoots of a stag's horn. 8. The *branches* of a bridle are two pieces of bended iron, that bear the bit-mouth, the chains, and the curb, in the interval between one and the other. *Farrer's Dict.* 9. [In architecture.] The arches of Gothick vaults; which arches transversing from one angle to another, diagonal wise, form a cross between the other arches, which make the sides of the square, of which the arches are diagonals. *Harris*.

(2.) BRANCH, in botany, an arm of a tree, or a part which, sprouting out from the trunk, helps to form the head or crown thereof. Branches do not spring out of the mere surface of the trunk, but are deeply rooted therein, so as not only to penetrate the cortical, but also the woody sub-

stance, and even the pith. The constituent parts therefore of a *branch* are the same as of the trunk, viz. skin, bark, wood, and pith. See PLANTS.

(3.) BRANCHES OF A BRIDLE, (see § 1. *def.* 8.) on one end answer to the head-stall, and on the other to the reins, in order to keep the horse's head in subjection. They are either in form of a pistol, for young horses to form their mouth; or after the fashion of the ci-devant constable of France, proper for a horse that carries his head well. Some are in form of a gigot, or leg, to prevent horses from carrying too low: Some in that of a bent knee, for horses that arm themselves against the operation of the bit; and others after the French fashion, which is hardly above $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch at the seville hole, and kneed $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch at the jarret or ham. It is to be observed, 1. That the farther the branch is from the horse's neck, the more effect it will have. 2. That short branches, *ceteris paribus*, are ruder, and their effects more sudden, than those of longer. 3. That the branch is to be proportioned to the length of a horse's neck; and one may sooner err in choosing one too short than too long.

(4.) BRANCHES OF OGIVES. See § 1. *def.* 9.

(1.) * To BRANCH. *v. a.* 1. To divide as into branches.—The spirit of things animate are all continued within themselves, and are *branched* into canals, as blood is; and the spirits have not only branches, but certain cells or seats, where the principal spirits do reside. *Bacon*. 2. To adorn with needlework, representing flowers and sprigs.

In robe of lily white she was array'd,

That from her shoulder to her heel down raught,
The train whereof loose far behind her stray'd,
Branch'd with gold and pearl, most richly wrought.

Spenser.

(2.) * To BRANCH. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To spread in branches.—They were trained together in their childhoods, and there rooted betwixt them such an affection, which cannot choose but *branch* now. *Shakespeare*.—The cause of scattering the boughs, is the hasty breaking forth of the sap; and therefore those trees rise not in a body of any height, but *branch* near the ground. The cause of the pyramis, is the keeping in of the sap, long before it *branch*, and the spending of it, when it beginneth to *branch*, by equal degrees. *Bacon*.—

Plant it round with shade

Of laurel, ever-green, and *branching* plane. *Milt.*

Straight as a line in beauteous order stood,

Of oaks unshorn a venerable wood;

Fresh was the grass beneath, and ev'ry tree

At distance planted, in a due degree,

Their *branching* arms in air, with equal space,
Stretch'd to their neighbours with a long em-

brace.

Dryden.

One sees her thighs transform'd, another views
Her arms shot out, and *branching* into boughs.

Addison.

2. To spread into separate and distinct parts and subdivisions.—The Alps at the one end, and the long range of the Appenines that passes through the body of it, *branch* out, on all sides, into several different divisions. *Addis.*—If we would weigh, and keep in our minds, what it is we are considering, that would best instruct us when we should, or should not, *branch* into other distinctions.

tions. *Locke*. 3. To speak diffusively, or with the distinction of the parts of a discourse.—I have known a woman *branch* out into a long dissertation upon the edging of a petticoat. *Specl.* 4. To have horns shooting out into antlers.—

The swift stag from under ground

Bore up his *branching* head. *Milton*.

BRANCHLE, in medicine, glandular tumours in the fauces resembling two almonds.

* BRANCHER. *n. f.* [from *branch*.] 1. One that shoots out into branches—If their child be not such a speedy spreader and *brancher*, like the vine, yet he may yield, with a little longer expectation, as useful and more sober fruit than the other. *Hutton*. 2. [*branchier*, Fr.] In falconry, a young hawk.—I enlarge my discourse to the observation of the eires, the *brancher*, and the two sorts of lentners. *Walton*.

BRANCHERY, in the anatomy of vegetables, the vascular parts of divers fruits, as apples, pears, plums, and berries.

BRANCHIÆ, [*βραγχίαι*,] in the anatomy of fishes, the GILLS, or parts corresponding to the lungs of land animals. All fishes except the cetaceous ones, and the pteromyzum, which have lungs, are furnished with these organs of respiration. See ZOOTOMY.

BRANCHIALE, in natural history, a name given by Mr Lhuyd to a peculiar species of FUNGITE, which being of a deeply striated texture, is supposed to resemble the gills of a fish.

(1.) BRANCHIDÆ, in antiquity, priests of the temple of Apollo, at Didymus in Ionia. They opened the temple of Apollo to Xerxes, who plundered it of its riches; after which, thinking themselves not safe in Greece, they fled to Sogdiana, on the other side of the Caspian sea, where they built a city. (N° 2.) Alexander the Great having conquered Darius king of Persia, and being informed of their treachery, put them all to the sword, and razed their city; thus punishing the impiety of the fathers in their posterity.

(2.) BRANCHIDÆ, in geography, a city on the frontiers of Persia. See N° 1.

BRANCHIDES, an epithet of Apollo.

BRANCHILET, *n. f. obs.* a little branch. *Ch.*

* BRANCHINESS. *n. f.* [from *branchy*.] Fullness of branches.

BRANCHING, the ramification of the horns of deer, &c. which bears an analogy with the vegetation of plants. *Phil. Transf.* N° 227.

BRANCHIOSTEGI, in ichthyology, one of the general classes of fishes; the characters of which are, that the rays of the fins are of a bony substance; but these fish have no bones or ossicula at the branchiæ, as the malacopterygious and acanthopterygious fishes all have.

BRANCHIOSTEGIOUS, *adj.* belonging to the branchiostegi.

* BRANCHILESS. *adj.* [from *branch*.] 1. Without shoots or boughs. 2. Without any valuable product; naked.—

If I lose mine honour,

I lose myself; better I were not yours,

Than yours so *branchless*. *Shakespeare*.

BRANCHON, a town of France, in the c-devant Austrian Netherlands, 2 miles S. of Ramillies, and 8 N. of Namur, seated on the river Me-

haigne. It is now included in the new department of Sambre and Meuse. Lon. 4. 40. E. Lat. 50. 36. N.

To BRANCH-STAND, *v. a.* among falconers, a term used to signify the making a hawk leap from tree to tree, till the dog springs the game.

(1.) BRANCHUS, [*βραγχύς*,] in medicine, a species of catarrh, affecting chiefly the jaws, throat, and *arteria aspera*.

(2.) BRANCHUS, in the mythology, a Thessalian youth, to whom Apollo is fabled to have given the spirit of divination.

* BRANCHY. *adj.* [from *branch*.] Full of branches; spreading.—

Trees on trees o'erthrown,

Fall cracking round him, and the forests groan;

Sudden full twenty on the plain are strow'd,

And lopp'd, and lighten'd of their *branchy* load.

Pope.

—What carriage can bear away all the various, rude, and unwieldy loppings of a *branchy* tree at once? *Watts*.

* BRAND. *n. f.* [*brand*, Sax.] 1. A stick lighted in the fire.—

Have I caught thee?

He that parts us shall bring a *brand* from heav'n,
And fire us hence. *Shakespeare*.

Take it, she said, and when your needs require,
This little *brand* will serve to light your fire.

Dryden.

—If, with double diligence they labour to retrieve the hours they have lost, they shall be saved; though this is a service of great difficulty, and like a *brand* plucked out of the fire. *Rogers*.

3. [*brandar*, Runick.] A sword, in old language.

They looking back, all the eastern side be held
Of paradise, so late their happy seat!

Way'd o'er by that flaming *brand*; the gate
With dreadful faces throng'd, and fiery arms.

Milton.

3. A thunderbolt.—

The fire omnipotent prepares the *brand*,
By Vulcan wrought, and arms his potent hand.

Græville.

4. A mark made by burning a criminal with a hot iron, to note him as infamous; a stigma.—Clerks convict should be burned in the hand, both because they might taste of some corporeal punishment, and that they might carry a *brand* of infamy. *Bacon*.—The rules of good and evil are inverted, and a *brand* of infamy passes for a badge of honour. *L'Estrange*. 5. Any note of infamy.—

Where did his wit on learning fix a *brand*,
And rail at arts he did not understand? *Dryden*.

* To BRAND. *v. a.* [*branden*, Dutch.] To mark with a brand, or note of infamy.—

Have I liv'd thus long a wife, a true one,
Never yet *branded* with suspicion? *Shakespeare*.

—The king was after *branded*, by Perkin's proclamation, for an execrable breaker of the rights of holy church. *Bacon*.—

Brand not their actions with so foul a name;
Pity, at least, what we are forc'd to blame.

Dryden.

Ha! dare not for thy life, I charge thee, dare not
To *brand* the spotless virtue of my prince. *Rosier*.

Our Punick faith

Is infamous, and *branded* to a proverb. *Addison*.

—The

—The spreader of the pardons answered him an easier way, by *branding* him with heresy. *Atterb.*

BRANDARIS, a species of STROMBUS.

BRANDEIS, a town of Bohemia, seated on the Elbe; 10 miles NE. of Prague. Lon. 14. 25. E. Lat. 50. 15. N.

BRANDEN, a town in Northumberland, seated on the Breamish, SE. of Cheviot hills.

(1.) BRANDENBURG, a city of Germany, and capital of the marquisate (N^o 2.) situated on the river Havel. It is divided into the old and new town, and was anciently the see of a bishop. It has a small colony of French Calvinists, with a manufacture of cloth, fustian, and canvas; and a pretty good trade is carried on by the Havel. The fort looks like a suburb, and contains a riding-school, with the cathedral church. The greatest part also of the members of the chapter, which still subsists, and is composed of a Lutheran provost, dean, senior, sub-senior, and 3 other canons, reside in it. They are distinguished by a cross of gold enamelled with violet, terminating in 8 points; and have a considerable estate. Near the town is a lake of some extent. Lon. 14. 5. E. Lat. 51. 45. N.

(2.) BRANDENBURG, an extensive marquisate of Germany, bounded by Mecklenburgh and Pomerania on the N. Poland, on the E. Silesia, Lusatia, Saxony, Anhalt, and Magdebourg, on the S. and by part of the latter and Lunenburg, on the W. Its greatest length is about 200 miles, and its greatest breadth near 100. Its northern situation makes it very cold for 7 or 8 months in winter. The soil in general is far from being fruitful, a great part of it consisting of sand: yet there are several fruitful spots in it; and the whole, under the last and present reign, has been greatly improved, and better peopled than formerly. In its different districts, it produces wheat, millet, flax, tobacco, woad, and other herbs. Alum, flint petre, amber, iron-stone, colour earths, and medicinal springs, are found in it. It abounds in cattle, and especially sheep; and the woods not only supply the inhabitants with fuel, but with timber, charcoal, tar, and wood-ashes, both for domestic uses and for exportation. The culture of silk also is carried on with great success. The principal rivers are the Elbe, the Oder, the Prignitz, the Havel, the Warthe, and the Spree. Some of the rivers and lakes abound in fish, and are united by canals. The marquisate consists of 120 towns, above 1500 villages, and contains about 800,000 inhabitants. The nobility and towns constitute the states, whose assembly house is in the Spandau-street at Berlin, and who still enjoy some small remains of their ancient privileges. The hereditary offices of the marquisate are a marshal, chamberlain, cup-bearer, purveyor, sewer, treasurer, and ranger. The king of Prussia, (who is elector of Brandenburg,) and his whole court, are Calvinists; but the religion of most of the inhabitants is Lutheranism. The churches of both persuasions are well endowed, and the laity jointly employed by the government. The Roman catholics are all tolerated, and every inhabitant enjoys full liberty of conscience. Various manufactures, most of which were introduced by the French refugees, are carried on in the marquisate, especial-

ly at Berlin and Potsdam; where are also excellent painters, statuaries, and engravers. By these manufactures, fabrics, and arts, not only large sums are kept in the country, but also imported from other parts, to which considerable quantities of the manufactures, and natural productions, are exported. For the education of youth, and the advancement of learning, besides Latin schools in several places, and gymnasia, there is an university at Frankfort on the Oder, and an academy at Berlin. Brandenburg is of great antiquity. Some historians say it was founded by the Slavonians, who give it the name of *Branber*, which signifies the Guards of the Forests; and the Germans called it *Bran-burgb*. The emperor Henry I. fortified it in 923, to serve as a rampart against the Huns, and bestowed the government on Sifroi, Count of Ringelheim, with the title of *Margrave* or *Marquis*. It descended to Geron, Margrave of Lusatia; which passed into the families of Staden, Ascania, Bellenstadt, and that of Bavaria, till the Emperor Sigismund, with the consent of the states of the empire in 1416, gave perpetual investiture to Frederick VI. of Nuremberg; who also, in 1417, received at the diet of Constance, the investiture of the country of Brandenburg; having had previously conferred upon him the dignities of elector and arch-chamberlain of the holy Roman empire. Brandenburg remained long in subjection to Poland; and the investiture of Prussia was granted by the Polish kings to each succeeding margrave. Frederick-William, having concluded a treaty with the king of Poland, was acknowledged to be sovereign of Ducal Prussia by an assembly of the states of Konigsberg, A. D. 1663. By the treaty of Vienna the Emperor confirmed this title; and Frederick, the son of Frederick-William, was proclaimed king of Prussia, Jan. 18, 1701. See PRUSSIA. This monarch possesses the seventh place among the electors. As arch-chamberlain, he carries the sceptre before the emperor at his coronation, and brings him water in a silver basin to wash with. In the college of princes of the empire, he has 5 voices. His assessment, as elector, is 60 horse and 227 foot, or 1828 florins in lieu of them. To the chamber of Wetzlaer his quota is 811 rix dollars, 58 kruiters, each term. For the government of this country, and the administration of justice, there are several supreme colleges and tribunals; particularly distinct boards for the departments of war, foreign affairs, and the finances. There is a supreme ecclesiastical council and consistory for the Lutherans; a supreme directory of the Calvinist church; a supreme medicinal college; a supreme mine office; a board of trade, &c. Those of the French nation, settled in this country, are allowed particular courts of their own. The amount of the yearly revenues of the Marche, arising from the domains, protection-money paid by the Jews, tolls, land tax, mines, forests, duties on stamp-paper, salt, and various other imposts and excises, is computed at about 2,500,000 crowns, but the money is said to be much inferior in goodness to that of Saxony and the domains of Hanover. During the continental war of 1756, it was extremely debased. Some estimate the whole number of the inhabitants of the royal and electoral domini-

ons at 5,000,000, and the revenues at about 2,000,000 sterling. Upwards of 100,000 men are kept on foot in time of peace, which are said to cost more than half of the royal revenue. These troops are under strict discipline, very expert at their exercise, always in readiness to march, and always complete. Each regiment has a particular district allotted for its quarters and raising recruits. The infantry are clothed in blue, and the horse and dragoons in white; and both are required to hear a sermon twice a day when in quarters or garrisons. In time of peace they are allowed, for several months in the year, to hire themselves out, or to follow their business, either as burghers or peasants, in the canton where they are quartered; but they are not allowed to marry. A considerable part of these troops are stationed in the Marche, particularly at Berlin and Potsdam. The corps of hussars alone amount to about 10,000 men. Brandenburg is divided, in general, into the electoral and new Marches. The former is again subdivided into the old Marche, the Pregnitz, the middle Marche, and the Ucker Marche. The old Marche, which lies on the west side of the Elbe, between the river and Lunenburg, is about 50 miles in length, and in breadth about 30.

(3.) **BRANDENBURGH, NEW**, the capital of the circle of Stargard, in the duchy of Mecklenburg, and the largest town in the dominions of the D. of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. The houses are neat, the streets remarkably clean. It carries on a good trade in hops. Lon. 13. 21. E. Lat. 53. 40. N.

BRANDESTON, a town in the county of Suffolk, near Glemham.

BRANDEUM, in ecclesiastical writers, a linen cloth put over the tombs of St Peter and St Paul, and left there for some time; by which it is supposed to acquire a degree of sanctity, so as to be worshipped as a relic; and for that purpose is frequently sent by the pope as a present to some prince. In this sense, Brandeum amounts to the same with *sanctuarium*, *sudarium*, *orarium*, and *velum*. The use of brandea was introduced as a means of diffusing and propagating the virtues and influences of relics, without moving or any way impairing the substance of them; the translation of relics in early days being interdicted.

* **BRANDGOOSE**. *n. s.* A kind of wild fowl, less than a common goose. having its breast and wings of a dark colour. *DiF.*

BRAND HERRING, a species of herring caught by the Dutch.

BRANDING, in the face or hand, a punishment inflicted by law on various offences, by burning with a hot iron, after the offender hath been once admitted to benefit of clergy.

BRAND IRON; 1. a hot iron to brand a criminal: 2. an iron to set a vessel upon over a fire.

* **To BRANDISH**. *v. a.* [from *brand*, a sword.] 1. To wave, or shake, or flourish, as a weapon.—

Brave Macbeth,
Disdaining fortune, with his *brandish'd* steel,
Like valour's minion, carved out his passage.
Shakespeare.

He said, and *brandishing* at once his blade,
With eager place pursued the flaming shade.
Dryden.

Let me march their leader, not their prince;
And, at the head of your renown'd Cydonians,
Brandish this sword. *Smith.*

2. To play with; to flourish.—He, who shall employ all the force of his reason, only in *brandishing* of syllogisms, will discover very little. *Locke.*

BRANDLESHAM, a village in Lancashire, N. of Bury.

* **BRANDLING**. *n. s.* The name of a particular worm.—The dew-worm, which some also call the lob-worm, and the *brandling*, are the chief. *Walton.*

BRANDOLINUS, Aurelius, surnamed *Lippus*, from his being bleat-eyed, was born at Florence in the 15th century, and was esteemed a great orator, poet, and musician. Matthias Corvinus, king of Hungary, invited him to teach oratory in his dominions; which he did many years at Buda and Strigonia with great success. On his return to Florence, he took orders, and preached to the most crowded audiences. He died at Rome of the plague in 1498. He wrote several works which were esteemed: particularly, 1. A commentary on St Paul's Epistles: 2. A Treatise *De Lege*: 3. Two Books of Christian Paradoxes: 4. Three Books *De Ratione Scribendi*: 5. A Dialogue *De humana vite conditione, et tollenda corporum aegritudine*: dedicated to king Matthias: and, 6. The Scripture histories in heroic verse.

(1.) **BRANDON**, a town of Suffolk in England, seated on a little river Ouse, over which it has a bridge, and a ferry at a mile's distance: whence it is divided into Brandon, and Brandon-ferry; which last has the most business, because commodities are brought thither from the isle of Ely. From this place the duke of Hamilton has his British title. Lon. 0. 55. E. Lat. 52. 30. N.

(2—7.) **BRANDON**, the name of 6 English villages, viz. 1. **EAST**, and 2. **WEST**, in Durham: 3. in Lincolnshire, S. of Newark: 4. in Norfolkshire, E. of Dereham: 5. in Shropshire, E. of the river Temde: and 6. in Warwickshire between Rugby and Coventry.

(8.) **BRANDON HILL**, in Kerry, Ireland.

BRANDRITH, 1. a trevet or other iron stand, whereon to set a vessel over the fire: 2. a fence or rail about the mouth of a well.

BRANDBURTON, a village in Yorkshire near Fordlingham.

BRAND SUNDAY, *Dimanche des Brandons*, in French ecclesiastical writers, denotes the first Sunday in Lent; so called on account of an ancient practice in the Lionnois, where the peasants, in the night of this day, walked about their orchards, gardens, &c. with lighted torches, or fire-brands in their hands; in which plight they visited every tree, and addressing themselves to them one after another, threatened that if they did not bear fruit well the ensuing season, they should be cut down to the ground and burnt. This is evidently a relic of Paganism; the like having been practised by the ancient Romans in February.

BRANDT, Gerard, a learned protestant divine, born at Amsterdam in 1626, and successively minister in several places of the Netherlands. He wrote some works which are esteemed; particularly, *The History of the reformation of the Netherlands*, 4 vols 4to; and the life of admiral Ruyter.

ter; both written in the Flemish tongue. He died at Rotterdam in 1685.

(1.) * **BRANDY**. *n. f.* [contracted from *brandy-wine*, or *burnt wine*.] A strong liquor distilled from wine.—If your master lodgeth at inns, every dram of *brandy* extraordinary that you drink, raiseth his character. *Swift's Footman*.

(2.) **BRANDY** is extracted from other liquors, as well as wine, by distillation. See **DISTILLATION**. It is spirituous and inflammable. Wine brandy, made in France, is esteemed the best in Europe. It is made wherever wine is made; and wine that is pricked is preferred to good wine. The chief brandies for foreign trade, and those accounted best, are the brandies of Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Cogniac, Charenton, Nantz, the ile of Rhe, Orleans, and the ci-devant provinces of Blaisois, Poitou, Touraine, Anjou, Burgundy, and Champaign.

(3.) * **BRANDY-WINE**: The same with *brandy*.—It has been a common saying, A hair of the same dog; and thought, that *brandy-wine* is a common relief to such. *Wifeman*.

BRANE, the name of two rivers in S. Wales; 1. in Brecknockshire; and, 2. in Caermarthenshire.

BRANFORD, a town of the United States, in New-Haven county, Connecticut; seated on a small stream that runs into Long-island sound. It contains a church and above 40 houses compactly built. It is about 8 m. S. E. by E. from New-Haven, and 191 from Philadelphia. Lon. 1. 52. E. Lat. 41. 18. N.

* **BRANGLE**. *n. f.* [uncertainly derived.] Squabble; wrangle; litigious contest.—The payment of tithes is subject to many frauds, *brangles*, and other difficulties, not only from papists and dissenters, but even from those who profess themselves protestants. *Swift*.

* **To BRANGLE**. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To wrangle; to squabble.—When polite conversing shall be improved, company will be no longer pestered with dull story-tellers, nor *brangling* disputers. *Swift*.

* **BRANGLEMENT**. *n. f.* [from *brangle*.] The same with *brangle*.

BRANHAM, a town near Tadcaster, Yorksh.

(1.) **BRANK**, an instrument used in Staffordshire, for correcting scolding women. It is a sort of head-piece, which opens and incloses the head of the scold, while an iron, sharp as a chissel, enters the mouth, and subdues the more dreadful weapon within. Thus harnessed, the offender is led in triumph through the streets. Dr Plott, in his history of Staffordshire, gives a minute description and figure of the instrument, which is there called a *scolding bridle*; and tells us, he looks upon it "as much to be preferred to the ducking-stool, which not only endangers the health of the party, but also gives the tongue liberty betwixt every dip; to neither of which this is at all liable." But with all due deference to Dr Plott, we would equally disapprove of both. The morals of the people will never be amended by hardening their feelings against the sufferings of others, however guilty or worthless. A good education will do more to reform the inferior classes, than all the ducking stools and scolding bridles, (we might add *Bridewells* and *halters*;) that ever were invented.

(2.) * **BRANK**. *n. f.* Buckwheat, or *brank*, is a grain very useful and advantageous in barren lands. *Mortimer*.

BRANKER, or **BRANCKER**, Thomas, an eminent mathematician of the 17th century, was born in Devonshire, in 1636, and studied at Exeter College, Oxford, where he took his degree of M. A. in 1658. His skill in mathematics and chemistry recommended him to Lord Brereton, who gave him the rectory of Tilston. He was afterwards appointed master of the well-endowed school at Macclesfield; where he died in 1676, aged 40. He wrote a Latin work *De Sphæra*; printed at Oxford in 1662; and a translation of Rhonius's Algebra: Lond. 4to, 1668.

BRANKESTON, a village in Northumberland, between Flodden and the Tweed.

BRANKSEY, or **BROWNSEA**, a small island of Dorsetshire in the harbour of Poole.

BRANK URSINE, in botany. See **ACANTHUS**.

BRANLIN, in ichthyology, a species of salmon, with several transverse black streaks, resembling the impression of so many fingers.

BRANNODUNUM, in ancient geography, a town of Britain, on the Sinus Metaris. Under the Romans it had a garrison of the Equites Dalmatæ. It is now called **BRANCASTER**.

* **BRANNY**. *adj.* [from *bran*.] Having the appearance of bran.—It became serpiginous, and was, when I saw it, covered with white *branny* scales. *Wifeman*.

BRANOGENIUM, or } a town of the Cori-
BRANONIUM, } tani, in the heart of
Britain. From the distances in the Itinerary, Camden supposes it to be **WORCESTER**.

BRANSAUGH, a village in Northumberland, near Akeington.

BRANSBY, in Yorkshire, S. of Hovingham.

BRANSCOMB, 3 m. S. of Culliton, Devonsh.

BRANSDALE, in Yorkshire, near Bafedale.

BRANSELS, *n. f. obs.* 1. brawls. *Spenser. Bailey*.
2. a sort of tune. *Ash*.

BRANSFORD BRIDGE, on the Swift, Leicest.

BRANSKA, a town of Transilvania, situated on the river Marish; 25 m. S. of Weissenburgh. Lon. 23. 15. E. Lat. 46. 5. N.

BRANSPETH CASTLE, among the hills, S. W. of Durham, W. of the Wear.

BRANSTILL CASTLE, E. of Ledbury, Hereford.

BRANSTON, the name of 3 villages: viz. 1. near Lincoln: 2. in Norfolksh. E. of Rapeham: 3. in Staffordsh. on the Trent, S. W. of Burton.

BRANSWELL, in Lincolnsh. near Temple.

BRANT, a river in Anglesea.

BRANT-BROUGHTON, a town in Lincolnshire.

BRANTETH WELL, a mineral spring in Dumfriesshire, which, though situated several yards deep in an extensive moss, contains a very strong sulphureous water, more powerful than that of Moffat, and used with great success in scorbutic and scrophulous cases.

BRANTHAM, a town near Deadham, Suffolk.

BRANTHINGHAM, a village in Yorkshire, between S. Cave and Hull.

BRANTHINGTHORP, in Leicestershire.

BRANTHINGTHORP-WESTCOT, near Leicester.

BRANTOFT, in Durham, near Gresham.

BRANTON, 3 villages; 1. in Devonsh. near Raleigh: 2. in Northumberland, 6 m. W. of Alnwick: 3. in Westmoreland, N. E. of Appleby.

BRANTSNAPE, W. of Cuckfield, Suffex.

BRAON, a river of Scotland, in Ross-shire.

(1.) **BRASAVOLUS**, Antonius Musa, M. D. and professor of natural philosophy, at Ferrara, flourished in the middle of the 16th century. He wrote, 1. Commentaries on Hippocrates' Aphorisms: 2. *Examen omnium simplicium*, quorum usus est in publicis officinis: printed at Rome, 1536, and Lyons, 1544, 8vo. 3. A treatise on Venereal Disease; and several other medical works. He used the form of a dialogue, between himself and an apothecary. His stile is clear and simple.

(2.) **BRASAVOLUS**, Jerom, the son of Antonius Musa, (N. 1.) was also a physician and medical author. He wrote, An Exposition of the first Book of Hippocrates: Ferrara, 4to, 1595: and A treatise *De officiis Medicis*.

BRASBOROUGH, a town in Lincolnshire.

BRASCOT, a village in Leicestershire.

BRASEM, in ichthyology, a name by which some have called an American fish of the *SMAXIS* kind, more commonly known by its Brazilian name, *ACARPEBA*.

BRASEWELL, a village in Yorkshire, 3 m. E. of Grifbone.

BRASIATOR, *n. f.* [old law Lat.] a brewer.

BRASIATRIX, *n. f. abs.* a female brewer.

BRASIDAS, a celebrated general of the Lacedæmonians, who flourished A. A. C. 424. He defeated the Athenians by land and sea, took many places, and rendered his country formidable to all the neighbouring states. He conquered the Athenians on their attempting to surprise Amphipolis, but died of the wounds he received in that battle. See *ATTICA*, § 13, and *LACEDÆMON*.

BRASIDIA, an anniversary solemnity at Sparta, in memory of **BRASIDAS**. It was celebrated with sacrifices and games, wherein none were permitted to contend but free-born Spartans. Whoever neglected to be present at the solemnity was fined.

* **BRASIER**. *n. f.* [from *brass*.] 1. A manufacturer that works in brass.—There is a fellow somewhat near the door, he should be a *brasier* by his face. *Shakespeare*.—*Brasiers* that turn andirons, pots, kettles, &c. have their lathe made different from the common turners lathe. *Maxon*. 2. A pan to hold coals. [probably from *embraiser*, Fr.] It is thought they had no chimneys, but were warmed with coals on *brasiers*. *Arbutnot*.

(1. 1.) **BRASIL**, or **BRAZIL**, a large country of South America, being the easternmost part of that continent, lying between the equinoctial line and 35° Lat. S.; and between 35° and 60° Lon. W. It is about 1560 miles in length, and 1000 in breadth; but, measuring along the coast, it is 2000 miles long, and including its windings 3000. It is bordered with mountains that open at due distances, and form good harbours where vessels may lie in safety. It is bounded on the W. by Paraguay and Amazonia; on the S. E. and N. by the Atlantic Ocean.

(2.) **BRASIL**, APPEARANCE, CLIMATE, PRODUCTIONS, &c. qv. The first aspect of Brasil

from the sea is rather unfavourable, as it appears high, rough, and unequal; but, on a more narrow inspection, nothing can be more delightful, the eminences being covered with woods, and the valleys with the most refreshing verdure. In so vast a tract of land, it cannot be imagined that the climate will be found at all equal, or the seasons uniform. The northern provinces are subject to heavy rains, variable winds, tornadoes, storms, and the utmost fury of the elements; while the southerly regions are blessed with all the comforts which a fine fertile soil and temperate climate can afford. In some of the provinces the heat of the climate favours the generation of a great variety of poisonous reptiles; some of which, as the *LIBOYA*, or *roebuck* snake, are said to extend to the length of 30 feet, and to be 2 or 3 yards in circumference. The rattle snake and other reptiles of the same kind, grow likewise to an enormous size; and the serpent called *TRIBABOKA* is affirmed to be seven yards long, and half a yard in circumference, possessed too of a poison instantaneously fatal to the human race. There also are scorpions, ant-bears, tygers, porcupines, jannonveras, and an animal called *TAPIRASSOU*, which is the production of a bull and an ass, having a great resemblance to both. No country on earth affords a greater number of beautiful birds, or greater variety of the most exquisite fruits; but the chief commodities are Brasil wood, ebony, dyeing woods, ambergris, rosin, balsams, indigo, sweetmeats, sugar, tobacco, gold, diamonds, beautiful pebbles, crystal, emeralds, jasper, and other precious stones; in all which the Portuguese carry on an amazing trade. The gold and diamond mines are but a recent discovery: they were first opened in 1681; and have since yielded above five millions Sterling annually, of which sum a fifth belongs to the crown. So plentiful are diamonds in this country, that the court of Portugal hath found it necessary to restrain their importation, to prevent too great a diminution of their value. They are neither so hard nor so clear as those of the East Indies, nor do they sparkle so much, but they are whiter. The Brazilian diamonds are sold 10 per cent. cheaper than the Oriental ones, supposing the weights to be equal. The largest diamond in the world was sent from Brasil to the king of Portugal. It weighs 1680 carats, or 12½ ounces; and has been valued at L. 56,787,500.

(3.) **BRASIL**, HISTORY OF. Brasil was accidentally discovered by the Portuguese in 1500.—Emanuel, king of Portugal, had equipped a squadron of 13 sail, carrying 1200 soldiers and sailors destined for the E. Indies, under the conduct of Peter Alvarez Cabral. This admiral quitting Lisbon on the 9th of March 1500, struck out to sea to avoid the coast of Guinea, and steered his course southward, that he might the more easily turn the Cape of Good Hope, which projects a good way into the ocean. On the 24th of April, he got sight of the continent of South America, which he judged to be a large island at some distance from the coast of Africa. Coasting along for some time, he ventured to send a boat on shore; and was astonished to observe the inhabitants entirely different from the Africans in features, hair, and

and complexion. It was found, however, impracticable to seize upon any of the Indians, who retired with great celerity to the mountains on the approach of the Portuguese; yet, as the sailors had discovered a good harbour, the admiral thought proper to come to an anchor, and called the bay *Puerto Seguro*. Next day he sent another boat on shore, and had the good fortune to lay hold on two of the natives, whom he clothed and treated kindly, and then dismissed, to make a proper report to their countrymen. The stratagem had the desired effect. The Indians having heard the relation of the prisoners, immediately crowded to the shore, singing, dancing, and sounding horns of different kinds; which induced Cabral to land, and take possession in the name of his sovereign. As soon as the court of Lisbon had ordered a survey to be taken of the harbours, bays, rivers, and coasts of Brasil, and was convinced that the country afforded neither gold nor silver, they held it in such contempt, that they sent thither none but condemned criminals and abandoned women. Two ships were sent every year from Portugal, to carry the refuse of the kingdom to this new world, and to bring home parrots and woods for the dyers and cabinet makers. Ginger was afterwards added; but soon after prohibited, lest it should interfere with the sale of the same article from India. In 1548, the Jews many of whom had taken refuge in Portugal, beginning to be persecuted by the inquisition, were stripped of their possessions, and banished to Brasil. Here, however, they were not entirely forsaken. Many of them found kind relations and faithful friends; others, who were known to be men of probity and understanding, obtained money in advance from merchants of different nations with whom they had formerly had transactions. By the assistance of some enterprising men, they were enabled to cultivate sugar canes, which they first procured from the island of Madeira.—Sugar, which till then had been used only in medicine, became an article of luxury. Princes and great men were eager to procure this new luxury. This circumstance proved favourable to Brasil, and enabled it to extend its sugar plantations.—The court of Lisbon, notwithstanding its prejudices, began to be sensible, that a colony might be beneficial to the mother country, without producing gold or silver; and this settlement, which had been wholly left to the care of the colonists, was now thought to deserve some kind of attention; and accordingly Thomas de Souza was sent thither, in 1549, to regulate and superintend it. This able governor began by reducing these men, who had hitherto lived in a state of anarchy, into proper subordination, and bringing their scattered plantations closer together; after which he applied himself to acquire some information respecting the natives, with whom he knew he must be incessantly engaged either in traffic or war. This was no easy matter. Brasil was full of small nations, some of which inhabited the forests, and others lived in the plains and along the rivers. Some had settled habitations; but the greater number of them led a roving life, and most of them had no intercourse with each other. It is not to be supposed that such a people would be at all disposed

to submit to the yoke which the Portuguese wanted to put upon them on their arrival. At first they only declined all intercourse with these strangers: but finding themselves pursued in order to be made slaves, and to be employed in the labours of the field, they resolved to murder and devour all the Europeans they could seize upon. The relations of the savages, that were taken prisoners, also frequently attempted to rescue them, and were sometimes successful; so that the Portuguese were forced to attend to the double employments of labour and war. Souza did not bring a sufficient number of forces to change the situation of affairs. Indeed by building San Salvador, he gave a centre to the colony; but the honour of settling, extending, and making it really useful to the mother country, was reserved for the Jesuits who attended him. These men, who for their arts of insinuation and address have been equalled by none, dispersed themselves among the Indians. When any of the missionaries were murdered, they were immediately replaced by others; and seeming to be inspired only with sentiments of peace and charity, the Indians, in process of time, grew not only familiar with, but passionately fond of them. As the missionaries were too few in number to transact all the business themselves, they frequently deputed some of the most intelligent Indians in their stead. These men having distributed hatchets, knives, and looking-glasses, among the savages they met with, represented the Portuguese as a harmless, humane, and good sort of people. The prosperity of Brasil, which was visible to all Europe, excited the envy of the French, Spaniards, and Dutch successively. The latter attempted the conquest of the whole. Their admiral, Henry Lonk, arrived, in the beginning of the year 1630, with 46 men of war, on the coast of Fernambucca, one of the largest and best fortified captainships of these parts. He reduced it after several obstinate engagements. The troops he left behind subdued Temaraca, Pareiba, and Rio Grande, in 1633, 1634, and 1635. These, as well as Fernambucca, furnished annually a large quantity of sugar, a great deal of wood for dyeing, and other commodities. The Dutch were so elated with the acquisition of this wealth, that they determined to conquer all the Brasils, and entrusted Maurice of Nassau with the conduct of this enterprise. That general reached the place of his destination in the beginning of 1637. He found the soldiers so well disciplined, the commanders such experienced men, and so much readiness in all to engage, that he directly took the field. He was successively opposed by Albuquerque, Banjola, Lewis Rocca de Borgia, and the Brasilian Cameron, the idol of his people, who was passionately fond of the Portuguese, brave, active, cunning, and wanted no qualification necessary for a general, but to have learned the art of war under able commanders. These several chiefs exerted their utmost efforts to defend the possessions that were under their protection; but their endeavours proved ineffectual. The Dutch seized upon Siara, Seregippe, and the greater part of Bahia. Seven of the 15 provinces which composed the colony had already submitted to them, and they flattered themselves that one or two cam-

paings would make them masters of the rest; when they were suddenly checked by the revolution, which banished Philip IV. and placed the duke of Braganza on the throne. After this, the Portuguese recovering their spirits, drove the Dutch out of Brasil, and have continued masters of it ever since.

(4.) **BRASIL, ORIGINAL INHABITANTS OF.** The Aborigines, or original natives of Brasil, chiefly inhabit the inland parts of the country; and are divided into different tribes, called Tapinamboes, Tobajaras, Petiguaras, Tapayas, &c. They speak different languages, but they all agree in wearing no clothes. They are of a copper colour, with long coarse black hair on their heads, but without any on the other parts of their bodies, like the rest of the Americans. They are strong, lively, and gay, and subject to few diseases. They adorn themselves with feathers, and are fond of feasts, at which they dance immoderately. They have no temples, nor any other signs of religion; and they make no scruple to marry their nearest relations. They have huts made of the branches of trees, and cover them with palm tree leaves. Their furniture consists chiefly in their hammocks, and dishes or cups, made of calabashes, painted without of a red colour, and black within. Their knives are made of a sort of stone and split canes; and they have baskets of different sizes, chiefly made of palm tree leaves. Their arms are bows, arrows, and wooden clubs. When they travel, they fasten their hammocks between two trees, and sleep all night in them.

(5.) **BRASIL, PROVINCES OF.** Brasil is divided into the following provinces, viz. Paria, Maragnano, Siara, Rio Grande, Pareiba, Tamarica, Fernambucca, Seregippe, Bahia, Porto Seguro, Esperito Santo, Rio de Janeiro, Angra, St Vincent, and Del Rey. See these articles.

(6.) **BRASIL, REVENUE AND TRADE OF.** The crown revenue arising from this colony is estimated at two millions Sterling in gold, besides the duties on merchandise imported from that quarter. This indeed is more than a fifth of the produce by the mines; but, every other consequent advantage considered, it probably does not much exceed the truth. The excessive confluence of the people to the Brasil colonies, not only enlarges the imports of gold, but, what is of infinitely more importance to Europe in general, the exportation of the manufactures of this hemisphere. Great Britain sends woollen manufactures; such as fine broad medley cloths, fine Spanish cloths, scarlet and black cloths; serges, duroys, druggets, sagathies, shalloons, camblets, and Norwich stuffs; black Colchester bays; says, and perpetuanus called *long ells*; hats, stockings, and gloves. Holland, Germany, and France, chiefly export fine hollands, bone-lace, and fine thread; silk manufacture, pepper, lead, block tin, and other articles, are also sent from different countries. England likewise trades with Portugal, for the use of the Brasils, in copper and brass, wrought and unwrought pewter, and all kinds of hardware: all which articles have so enlarged the Portuguese trade, that, instead of 12 ships usually employed in the Brasil commerce, there are now never fewer

than 100 sail of vessels constantly going and returning to those colonies. To all this may be added the vast slave trade carried on with the coast of Africa for the use of the Brasil colonies. Indeed the commerce of Brasil alone is sufficient to raise Portugal to a considerable height of naval power, as it maintains a constant nursery of seamen; yet a certain insatiation in the policy of the country has prevented that effect even amidst all these extraordinary advantages. All the ships in this trade, being under the direction of the government, have their appointed seasons for going and returning, under convoy of a certain number of men of war; nor can a single ship clear out or go, except with the fleet, but by a special licence from the king, which is seldom granted. It is plain, that such restriction must be prejudicial to the general commerce, though possibly the crown revenue may be guarded thereby. The fleets sail at the following periods: That to Rio de Janeiro sets sail in January; the fleet to Bahia, or the bay of All Saints, in February; and the third fleet, to Fernambucca, in the month of March.

(II. I.) * **BRASIL. BRAZIL. n. f.** An American wood, commonly supposed to have been thus denominated, because first brought from Brasil: though Huet shews it had been known by that name many years before the discovery of that country; and the best sort comes from Fernambuc. It is used by turners, and takes a good polish; but chiefly in dying, though it gives but a spurious red. *Chambers.*

(2.) **BRASIL WOOD** is of a red colour, and very heavy. It is denominated according to the places from whence it is brought; brasil of Fernambucca, Japan, Lamon, &c. For its description, &c. see **CÆSALPINIA.**

BRASILETTO, the same with Brasil wood.

BRASILIAN, the inhabitants of Brasil. See **BRASIL**, § 4.

BRASILIAN STONE, a species of stone found in Brasil, which is flexible. "No quality, (says Dr James Hutton, in his description of one of these stones,) is more inconsistent with the character of a stone than flexibility. A flexible stone, therefore, presents an idea, which naturally strikes us with surprise. For though, among mineral bodies, we find flexible substances of the stony kind, such as mica, mountain leather, and amianthus, these minerals owe their flexibility, either to their thinness or to the fibrous structure of their parts. Therefore, when a stone of any considerable thickness is said to have reflexivity, we are led to think, that here is something very extraordinary, and we wish to know, upon what depends that quality, no wise proper to a stone. Such, however, is the stone from Brasil, of which the Baron de Dietrich read a description in the Royal Academy of Sciences, in Jan. 1784. There is a specimen of a stone which corresponds with that description, inserted in the *Journal de Physique*, for 1784, (at present in the Museum of Mr Weir,) which belonged to the late Lord Gardenstone. The length of the stone, which I have examined, is 12 inches, the breadth about 5, and the thickness half an inch. When this stone is supported by the two ends, in a horizontal position, the middle

the part bends by its own weight, more than a quarter of an inch from the straight line. This species of flexibility may certainly be made a proper object of scientific investigation." The Doctor adds, that this stone "has a certain flexibility to which neither the terms *ductile* nor *elastic*, will properly apply. The flexibility of this stone is so easily compared with the rigidity of its substance, and its elasticity so small compared with its flexibility, that there must be in this body, some mechanical structure, by which this unnatural degree of flexibility is produced, *i. e.* a flexibility, which is not inherited in the general substance of the body. Now the substance of this stone being chiefly quartz, the most rigid and inflexible of all materials, and the stone, at the same time, bending in such an easy manner, there is reason to conclude, that this arises from no principle of flexibility in the general substance of the stone, but from some species of articulation in the structure of it, or among its constituent parts, which, while it preserves the component particles in one entire mass, suffers the parts to move a certain space in relation to each other." Dr Hutton then gives an account of different examinations he made by the microscope, by splitting and by the blow-pipe; from which he concludes, that the "particles of quartz, which have little cohesion, are bound together by thin plates of transparent mica; and these connecting plates being flexible, this allows a certain motion of the rigid particles among themselves, without the fracture or general separation of the stone."

BRASINA, *n. f.* in old records, a brew-house.

* BRASING, *adj.* [from *brass*.] Made of *brass*. It is now less properly written according to the pronunciation *bruzen*.

BRASIUM, *n. f.* [old law Lat.] malt.

(1.) BRASLAU, a palatinate of Lithuania.

(2.) BRASLAU, or } The capital of the Palatinate. (No. 1.) It is a large town, seated on a lake, 70 m. N. E. of Wilna. Lon. 26. 5. E. Lat. 56. 20. N.

BRASMA, a name given by Dioscorides and other ancient botanists, to a decayed or light kind of black pepper.

To BRASQUE, *v. a.* in chemistry, to line or coat the interior of a crucible. (*Crell's Chemical Journal*.) This word is said by Leonhardi, in his German translation of Macquer's Dictionary, to be already adopted by English chemists.

BRASQUED, *part. adj.* Lined; coated.

(1.) * BRASS, *n. f.* [*bras*, Sax. *prés*, Welch.] A yellow metal, made by mixing copper with lapis calaminaris. It is used, in popular language, for any kind of metal in which copper has a part. — *Brass* is made of copper and calaminaris. *Bacon*.

Mens evil manners live in *brass*, their virtues We write in water. *Shakespeare*.

Let others mold the running mass

Of metals, and inform the breathing *brass*.

Dryden.

2. Impudence.

(2.) BRASS, or as the French call it *yellow copper*, is also made of copper and zinc. See CHEMISTRY, INDEX. The first formation of brass, as we are assured by scripture, was prior to the flood,

and discovered in the 7th generation from Adam, (Gen. iv.) But the use of it was not, as is generally believed, and the Arundelian marbles assert, previous to the knowledge of iron. They were both first known in the same generation, and first wrought by the same discoverer. And the knowledge of them must have been equally carried over the world afterwards, with the spreading of the colonies of the Noachidæ. An acquaintance with the one or the other was absolutely necessary to the colonists, in clearing away the wood about their settlements, and erecting houses for their habitations. The ancient Britons, though acquainted from the remotest periods with the use of both these metals, remained long ignorant, that they were to be obtained in the island. Before this discovery, they imported all their iron and brass from the continent. And when they had at length detected the former in their own hills, they continued to import the latter. In the earliest ages, whose manners have been delineated by history, the weapons of warriors were invariably framed of this fastitious metal; and the most authentic of all the profane records of antiquity, the Arundelian marbles, for that reason, mistakenly date the first discovery of iron a couple of centuries below the Trojan war. Every military nation is naturally studious of brightness in its arms; and the Britons, particularly, gloried in that of theirs. For this reason the nations still fabricated their arms of brass, even long after the Arundelian era for the discovery of iron; and the Britons continued to import it from the continent, though they had found iron to be a native of the country, and could have supplied themselves with a sufficient quantity of it. Mr Whitaker, in his *History of Manchester*, supposes, that when the Britons derived their iron and brass from the continent, they purchased the latter at an easier expence than the former. The Gauls had many large brass works in Britain, but seem to have had very few iron forges. And this would naturally induce the Belgæ to be less diligent in their inquiry after the veins of copper and calamine at home, than for the courses of the iron ore; though the one was equally discoverable in the island as the other, and lay equally within the Belgic regions of it. Brass being thus cheaper than iron, they necessarily formed with it some domestic as well as military implements. Such were common among the Gauls; and such were familiar to the Britons, either imported into the island, as some actually were, or manufactured within it, as others also assuredly were. The Britons had certain brass foundaries erected among them, and minted money, and fabricated weapons of brass. In this condition of the works, the Romans entered the island. And seeing so great a demand among the natives for this article, they would speedily instruct them to discover the materials of it among themselves. This must unavoidably have resulted from the conquest of the Romans. The power of surprising their new subjects with so unexpected a discovery would naturally stimulate the pride of the Roman intellect; and the desire of obliging themselves with so cheap a supply of that useful metal, stationary as they were in that kingdom, would also

also equally actuate the selfishness of the Romans. The veins of copper and calamine would be easily found out by an experienced inquirer after them; and the former metal is therefore distinguished among the Welsh, only by the Roman appellation of *cuprium*, *kopper* or copper. And many founderies of brass appear to have been established in the island. Some had been erected before, one perhaps within the confines of every kingdom, and probably in the vicinity of every capital. One at least would be necessary, in order to supply the armoury of the principality: and one perhaps was sufficient for most of the British states. But several appear now to have been settled in every kingdom, and one perhaps near every stationary town. Two have been discovered in the single county of Essex, and within a narrow portion of it at Fifeild and Danbury. And a third was placed upon Easterly Moor in Yorkshire, 12 miles to the N. W. of York, and in the neighbourhood of Isurium or Aldborough.

(3.) BRASS, or BRAZEN, *adj.* See BRAZEN.

(4.) BRASS COLOUR, a colour prepared by the braziers and colour-men to imitate brass. There are two sorts of it; the red brass or bronze, and the yellow or gilt brass: the latter is made only of copper filings, the smallest and brightest that can be found; with the former they mix some red ochre, finely pulverized; they are both used with varnish.—To make a fine brass that will not take any rust or verdigris, it must be dried with a chafing dish of coals as soon as it is applied.—The finest brass colour is made with powder brass imported from Germany, diluted into a varnish, made and used after the following manner: The varnish is composed of 1 lb. 4 oz. of spirit of wine, 2 oz. of gum-lac, and 2 oz. of sandarac; these two last drugs are pulverized separately, and afterwards put to dissolve in spirit of wine, taking care to fill the bottle but half full. The varnish being made, mix the quantity to be used with the pulverized brass, and apply it with a small brush to what is to be coloured. But too much must not be mixed at once, because the varnish being very apt to dry, there would not be time to employ it all soon enough; it is therefore better to make the mixture at several times. In this manner figures of plaster are coloured, and looks as well as if they were of cast brass.

(5.) BRASS, CORINTHIAN, famous in antiquity, is a mixture of gold, silver, and copper. L. Mummius having sacked and burnt the city of Corinth, A. A. C. 146, it is said this metal was formed from the immense quantities of gold, silver, and copper, wherewith that city abounded, thus melted and run together by the violence of the conflagration.

(6.) BRASS LEAF is made of copper, beaten out into very thin plates, and afterwards rendered yellow. The German artists, particularly those of Nuremberg and Augsburg, are said to possess the best method of giving to these thin plates of copper a fine yellow colour like gold, by simply exposing them to the fumes of zinc, without any real mixture of it with the metal. These plates are cut into little pieces, and then beaten out fine and smooth; after which they are put into paper, and sold at a low price for

the vulgar kinds of gilding. The parings or shreds of these very thin yellow leaves being well ground on a marble plate, are reduced to a powder similar to gold; which serves to cover, by means of gum water or some other glutinous fluid, the surface of various mouldings or pieces of curious workmanship, giving them the appearance of real bronze, and even of fine gold, at a very trifling expence, because the gold colour of this metallic powder may be easily raised and improved by stirring it on a wide earthen basin over a slow fire.

(7.) BRASS LUMPS, a common name given by miners to the globular pyrites. See PYRITES.

(8.) BRASS THRICE CALCINED, in the glass trade, is a preparation which serves the glassmen to give many very beautiful colours to their metal. To prepare it, place thin plates of brass on tiles on the leet of the furnace near the occhis; let it stand to be calcined there for 4 days, and it will become a black powder sticking together in lumps. Powder this, sift it fine, and recalcine it 4 or 5 days more; it will not then stick together, but remain a loose powder, of a russet colour. This is to be calcined a 3d time in the same manner; but great care must be taken in the 3d calcination, that it be not overdone nor underdone; the way to be certain when it is right is, to try it several times in glass while melting. If it makes it, when well purified, to swell, boil, and rise, it is properly calcined; if not, it requires longer time. This makes, according to the different proportions in which it is used, a sea-green, an emerald-green, or a turcoise colour. Brass, by long calcination alone, and without any mixture, affords a fine blue or green colour for glass; but they have a method of calcining it also with powdered brimstone, so as to make it afford a red, a yellow, or a chalcedony colour, according to the quantity and other variations in the using it. The method of making the calcination is this: Cut thin plates of brass into small pieces with shears, and lay them stratum super stratum, with alternate beds of powdered sulphur, in a crucible; calcine thus for 24 hours in a strong fire; then powder and sift the whole; and finally expose this powder upon tiles for 12 days to a reverberating furnace; at the end of this time, powder it fine, and keep it for use. The glass-makers have also a method of procuring a red powder from brass, by a more simple calcination, which serves them for many colours. The method is this: They put small and thin plates of brass into the arches of the glass furnaces, and leave them there till they are sufficiently calcined, which the heat in that place, not being enough to melt them, does in great perfection. The calcined matter powdered, is of a dusky red, and requires no farther preparation.

(1.) BRASSA, one of the Shetland isles, lying in the Sound, (Nº 2.) Lon. 6. 10. W. Lat. 60. 10. N.

(2.) BRASSA SOUND, an extensive Sound, on the coast of Shetland, in which 1000 vessels might be commodiously moored. It abounds with herrings. The Dutch have sometimes had 2000 buxses in it, in one summer.

BRASSADELLA, } or BRASSIDELLA, in botany, a name given by many authors to the ophioglossum.

BRASSAW, or CRONSTAT, a strong town of Transylvania.

Transilvania, in Burezland; seated on the river Bixel. Lon. 35. 35. E. Lat. 46. 30. N.

BRASSE, in ichthyology, a species of PERCA.

(I.) BRASSICA, CABBAGE: A genus of the fifth order, and tetradynamia class of plants; ranking under the Siliquosæ, in the natural method. The calyx is erect and converging; the seeds are globular; the gland between the shorter stamens and the pistillum, and between the longer ones and the calyx. There are 12 species; viz.

1. BRASSICA ALPINA, with the radical leaves egg-shaped, and erect petals.

2. BRASSICA ARVENSIS, with scalloped leaves embracing the stem; the highest heart-shaped, and most entire.

3. BRASSICA CAMPESTRIS, with a slender root and stem, leaves uniform, heart-shaped, and sessile.

4. BRASSICA CHINENSIS, with very entire oval leaves; the floral leaves lanceolated and embracing the stem; the calyxes longer than the claw of the petals.

5. BRASSICA ERUCA, with lyrate leaves, shaggy stem, and smooth capsules.

6. BRASSICA ERUCASTRUM, with runcinate leaves, a hispid stem, and polished capsules. In these two species, and the VESICARIA, (N° 11.) the style is ensiform: In all the rest it is obtuse.

7. BRASSICA NAPUS, with the root stem spindle-shaped.

8. BRASSICA OLERACEA, with the radical stem growing columnar and fleshy.

9. BRASSICA ORIENTALIS, with heart-shaped, smooth leaves embracing the stem, and four-cornered capsules.

10. BRASSICA RASSA, with the radical stem growing orbicular, depressed, and fleshy.

11. BRASSICA VESICARIA, with runcinate leaves, and hispid capsules covered with a tumid calyx.

12. BRASSICA VIOLACEA, with lanceolated, egg-shaped, smooth, undivided, and dentated leaves.

II.) BRASSICÆ, CULTURE OF THE. The CAMPESTRIS, (N° 3.) never varies. It grows naturally on the sea-shore near Dover. It has a perennial branching stalk, in which it differs from all the other species. In very severe winters, when the other sorts are destroyed, this is a necessary plant, for the most severe frosts do not injure it. The lower-stalks grow from the end of the branches, and spread out horizontally; but those which arise from the centre of the plants grow erect, and seldom put out branches. The cauliflower has been much more improved in Britain than in any other part of Europe. In France they rarely have cauliflowers till Michaelmas, and Holland is generally supplied with them from Britain. In many parts of Germany there were none of them cultivated till within a few years past, and most parts of Europe are supplied with seeds from Britain. The CHINENSIS, (N° 4.) which is generally known by the title of *rape* or *cole-seed*, is much cultivated in the isle of Ely, and some other parts of England, for its seed, from which rape oil is drawn; and it hath also been cultivated of late years, in other places, for feeding cattle, to great advantage. The cole seed, when cultivated for feeding cattle, should be sown about the middle of June. The ground for this should be prepared in the

same manner as for turnips. The quantity of seeds for an acre of land is from 6 to 8 lb. and as the price of the seed is not great, so it is better to allow 8 lb. for if the plants are too close in any part, they may be easily thinned when the ground is hoed, which must be performed in the same manner as is practised for turnips, with this difference only, of leaving these much nearer together; for as they have fibrous roots and slender stalks, so they do not require near so much room. These plants should have a second hoeing about 5 or 6 weeks after the first, which, if well performed in dry weather, will entirely destroy the weeds, so they will require no farther culture. Where there is not an immediate want of food, these plants had better be kept as a reserve for hard weather, or spring seed, when there may be a scarcity of other green food. If the heads are cut off, and the stalks left in the ground, they will shoot again early in the spring, and produce a good second crop in April; which may be either fed off, or permitted to run to seeds, as is the practice where this is cultivated for the seeds: but if the first is fed down, there should be care taken that the cattle do not destroy their stems, or pull them out of the ground. As this plant is so hardy as not to be destroyed by frost, so it is of great service in hard winters for feeding ewes; for when the ground is so hard frozen that turnips cannot be taken up, these plants may be cut off for a constant supply. This will afford late food after the turnips are run to seed; and if it is afterwards permitted to stand for seed, one acre will produce as much as, at a moderate computation, will sell for 5 l. clear of charges. Partridges, pheasants, turkeys, and most other fowls, are very fond of this plant; so that wherever it is cultivated, if there are any birds in the neighbourhood, they will constantly lie among these plants. The seeds of this plant are sown in gardens for winter and spring sallads, this being one of the small sallad herbs. The common white, red, flat, and long-sided cabbages, are chiefly cultivated for autumn and winter use; the seeds of these sorts must be sown the beginning or middle of April, in beds of good fresh earth; and when the young plants have about 8 leaves, they should be pricked out into shady borders, about 3 or 4 inches square, that they may acquire strength, and to prevent their growing long shanked. About the middle of June they must be transplanted out, where they are to remain. If they are planted for a full crop in a clear spot of ground, the distance from row to row should be 3½ feet, and in the rows 2½ asunder: if the season should prove dry when they are transplanted out, they must be watered every other evening until they have taken fresh root. Afterwards, as the plants advance in height, the earth should be drawn about the stems with a hoe, which will keep it moist about their roots, and greatly strengthen the plants. These cabbages will some of them be fit for use soon after Michaelmas, and will continue until the end of February, if they are not destroyed by bad weather; to prevent which, the gardeners near London pull up their cabbages in November, and trench their ground up in ridges, laying their cabbages against their ridges as close as possible on one side, bury-

ing

ing their stems in the ground : in this manner they let them remain till after Christmas, when they cut them for the market ; and although the outer part of the cabbage be decayed, (as is often the case in very wet or hard winters,) yet, if the cabbages were large and hard when laid, the inside will remain sound. The Russian cabbage was formerly in much greater esteem than at present, it being now only to be found in particular gentlemen's gardens, who cultivate it for their own use. This must be sown late in the spring, and managed as those before directed, only, that these must be sooner planted out, and must have an open clear spot of ground, and require much less distance every way, as it is but a very small hard cabbage. This sort will not continue long before they will break and run up to seed. The early and sugar-loaf cabbages are usually sown for summer use, and are what the gardeners about London commonly call *Michaelmas cabbages*. The season for sowing of these is about the end of July, or beginning of August, in an open spot of ground ; and when the plants have got 8 leaves, they must be put into beds at about 3 or 4 inches distance every way, that they may grow strong and short shanked ; and toward the end of October they should be planted out : the distance that these require is, 3 feet row from row, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ asunder in the rows. The ground must be kept clean from weeds, and the earth drawn up about the plants. If they are of the early kind, they will turn in their leaves in May ; when the gardeners near London, to obtain them a little sooner, tie in their leaves close with a slender osier twig to blanch their middle ; by which means, they have them at least a fortnight sooner than they could have if they were left untied. The EARLY CABBAGE being the first, we should plant the fewer of them, and a greater quantity of the sugar loaf kind, which comes after them ; for the early kind will not supply the kitchen long, generally cabbaging apace, and soon growing hard and bursting open ; but the sugar-loaf kind is slow in cabbaging ; and being hollow, continues long. It may be planted out in February, and will succeed as well as if planted earlier ; with this difference only, that they will be later before they cabbage. Some plants of the early kind should be reserved in a well sheltered spot of ground, to supply a defect ; for in mild winters many of the plants are apt to run to seed, especially when they are sown too early, and in severe winters they are often destroyed. The SAVOY CABBAGES are propagated for winter use, being generally esteemed the better when pinched by the frost. They must be sown about the end of April, and treated after the manner of the common white cabbage ; only they may be planted closer ; $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet square will be sufficient. These are always much better in an open situation, clear from trees and hedges ; for in close places they are apt to be eaten by caterpillars, &c. especially if the autumn prove dry. The BROCCOLI may also be treated in the same manner, but need not be planted above one foot asunder in rows of two feet wide ; these are never eaten till the frost has rendered them tender, being otherwise tough and bitter. The seeds of the broccoli (of which there several varieties, viz. the Roman or purple,

the Neapolitan or white, and the black broccoli, with some others, but the Roman is preferred to them all), should be sown about the end of May, or beginning of June ; and when the plants are grown to have 8 leaves, transplant them into beds, like the common cabbage ; and toward the end of July they will be fit to plant out ; which should be done into some well sheltered spot of ground, but not under the drip of trees ; about a foot and a half distant, in rows of two feet wide. The soil ought to be rather light than heavy : if they succeed well (as they doubtless will, unless the winter prove extremely hard), they will begin to show their small heads, of a purple colour, about the end of December, and will continue eatable till the middle of April. The brown or black broccoli is by many persons greatly esteemed, though it doth not deserve a place in the kitchen garden where the Roman broccoli can be obtained, which is much sweeter, and will continue longer in season. But the brown sort is much harder, so that it will thrive in the coldest situations, where the Roman broccoli is sometimes destroyed. The brown sort should be sown in the middle of May, and managed like the common cabbage, and should be planted about $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet asunder. As they grow very tall, they should have the earth drawn up to their stems as they advance in height. They do not form heads so perfect as the Roman broccoli ; the stems and hearts of the plants are the parts which are eaten. The Roman broccoli (if well managed) will have large heads, which appear in the centre of the plants like clusters of buds. These heads should be cut before they run up to seed, with about 4 or 5 inches of the stem ; the skin of these stems should be stripped off before they are boiled. After the first heads are cut off, there will be a great number of side-shoots produced from the stems, which will have small heads to them, but are full as well flavoured as the large. The Naples broccoli hath white heads very like those of the cauliflower, and eats so like it as not to be distinguished from it.—Besides this first crop of broccoli, (which is usually sown in the end of May,) it will be proper to sow another crop the beginning of July, which will come in to supply the table the latter end of March and the beginning of April ; and being very young, will be extremely tender and sweet. To preserve good seeds of this kind of broccoli, a few of the largest heads of the first crop should be let remain to run up to seed, and all the under shoots should be constantly stripped off, leaving only the main stem to flower and seed. If this be duly observed, and no other sort of cabbage permitted to seed near them, the seeds will be as good as those procured from abroad, and the sort may be preserved in perfection many years. The TURNIP-ROOTED CABBAGE was formerly more cultivated in Britain than at present ; other sorts having been introduced which are much better flavoured. It is seldom good but in hard winters, which render it tender. At the end of June the plants should be transplanted out where they are to remain, allowing them two feet distance every way, observing to water them until they have taken root ; and as their stems advance, the earth should be drawn up to them with a hoe, which will preserve

a moisture about their roots, and prevent their stems from drying and growing woody, so that the plants will grow more freely; but it should not be drawn very high, for as it is the globular part of the stalk which is eaten, so that should not be covered. In winter they will be fit for use, when they should be cut off, and the stalks pulled out of the ground, being good for nothing after the stems are cut off. As food for cattle, however, the cultivation of this species deserves particular attention. See **HUSBANDRY, INDEX**. The **CURLED COLEWORT**, or **Siberian Broccoli**, is now more generally esteemed than the former, being extremely hardy, and always sweeter in severe winters than in mild seasons. This may be propagated by sowing the seeds in the beginning of July; and when the plants are strong enough they should be planted in rows about a foot and a half asunder, and ten inches distance in the rows. These will be fit for use after Christmas, and continue good until April. The **MUSK CABBAGE** may be propagated in the same manner as the common cabbage, and should be allowed the same distance: it will be fit for use in October, November, and December; but if the winter proves hard, they will be destroyed much sooner than the common sort. The common **COLEWORT**, or **Dorsetshire kale**, is now almost lost near London, where their markets are usually supplied with cabbage plants instead of them. The best method to cultivate this plant in the fields is, to sow the seeds about the beginning of July, choosing a moist season, which will bring up the plants in about ten days or a fortnight; the quantity of seed for an acre of land is 9lb: when the plants have got 5 or 6 leaves they should be hoed, as is practised for turnips, cutting down all the weeds from amongst the plants, and also thinning the plants where they are too thick: but they should be kept thicker than turnips, because they are more in danger of being destroyed by the fly: this work should be performed in dry weather; that the weeds may be killed. About six weeks after, the plants should have a second hoeing, which, if carefully performed in dry weather, will entirely destroy the weeds, and make the ground clean, so that they will require no farther culture. In spring they may be either drawn up and carried out to feed the cattle, or the cattle may be turned in to feed upon them: but the former method is to be preferred, because there will be little waste; whereas when the cattle are turned in amongst the plants, they will tread down and destroy more than they eat, especially if they are not fenced off by hurdles. The two last sorts are varieties fit only for a botanic garden, being of no use. They are annual plants, and perish when they have perfected their seeds. The best method to save the seeds of all the sorts of cabbages is, about the end of November, to pull up some of the best cabbages, and carry them to some shed, where they should be hung up 4 days by their stalks, that the water may drain from between their leaves. Then plant them in some border near a hedge or pale, quite down to the middle of the cabbage, leaving only the upper part of the cabbage above ground, observing to raise the earth above it, so that it may stand a

little above the level of the ground; especially if the ground is wet, they will require to be raised pretty much above the surface. If the winter should prove very hard, lay a little straw lightly upon them, to secure them from the frost, taking it off as often as the weather proves mild, lest by keeping them too close they should rot. In spring they will shoot out strongly, and divide into a great number of small branches. Therefore support their stems, to prevent their being broken off by the wind; and if the weather should be very hot and dry when they are in flower, refresh them with water once a-week all over the branches, which will greatly promote their seeding, and preserve them from mildew. When the pods begin to turn brown, cut off the extreme part of every shoot with the pods, which will strengthen the seeds; for those seeds which grow near the top of the shoots, are very subject to run to seed before they cabbage. When the seeds begin to ripen, be particularly careful that the birds do not destroy it. The best method to prevent this, is to get a quantity of birdlime, and dawb over a parcel of slender twigs, which should be fastened at each end to stronger sticks, and placed near the upper part of the seed in different places, so that the birds may alight upon them, and be fastened thereto; where they should be allowed to remain, to terrify the rest. When the seed is fully ripe, cut it off; and after drying, thresh it out, and preserve it in bags for use. In planting cabbages for seed, never plant more than one sort in a place, or near one another: for example, never plant red and white cabbages near each other, nor Savoy with white or red cabbages; for they will, by the commixture of their farina, produce a mixture of kinds. See **BOTANY**, § 217. It is owing to this neglect, that the gardeners rarely save any good red cabbage seed in Britain, but are obliged to procure fresh seeds from abroad; whereas if they would plant red cabbages by themselves for seeds, and not suffer any other to be near them, they might continue the kind as good in Britain as in any other part of the world. **CAULIFLOWERS** have of late years been so far improved in Britain, as to exceed in goodness and magnitude what are produced in most parts of Europe, and by the skill of the gardener are continued for several months together; but the most common season for the great crop is in May, June, and July. Having procured a parcel of good seed, sow it about the 21st of August, upon an old cucumber or melon bed, sifting a little earth over the seeds, about a quarter of an inch thick; and if the weather should prove extremely hot and dry, shade the beds with mats, to prevent the earth from drying too fast, and give it gentle waterings occasionally. In about a month after sowing, the plants will be fit to prick out; therefore put some fresh earth upon the cucumber or melon beds; or where these are not to be had, some beds should be made with a little new dung, but not hot, which should be trodden down close, to prevent the worms from getting through it.— Into this bed prick the young plants at about 2 inches square, observing to shade and water them at first planting, but not too much after they are growing, nor suffer them to receive too much rain

If the season should prove wet, which would be apt to make them *black shanked*, as the gardeners term it, or rotten in their stems. In this bed they should continue till about the 30th Oct. when they must be removed into the place where they are to remain during the winter: which, for the first sowing, is commonly under bell or hand glasses, to have early cauliflowers, and these should be of an early kind: but to have a succession during the season, there should be provided another more late kind, which should be sown 4 or 5 days after the other. To have very early cauliflowers, make choice of a good rich spot that is well defended from the N. E. and W. winds, with hedges, pales, or walls; but the first are to be preferred, if made with reeds, because the winds will not reverberate, as from pales or walls. This ground should be well trenched, burying therein a good quantity of rotten dung; then level it, and if it be naturally a wet soil, raise it up in beds about 2½ or 3 feet broad, and 4 inches above the level of the ground; but if it is moderately dry, it need not be raised, then plant the plants, allowing about two feet six inches from glass to glass in the rows, always putting two good plants under each glass, which may be at about four inches from each other; and if they are designed for a full crop, they may be 3½ feet row from row. If ridges for cucumbers are to be made between the rows, (as is generally practised by the gardeners near London,) then make the rows about 8 feet asunder; and the ground between them may be planted with cabbage plants, to be drawn off for coleworts in the spring. When they are planted, if the ground is very dry, give them a little water, and then set the glasses over them, which may remain quite close over them till they have taken root, which will be in about a week or ten days, unless there should be rain; in which case set off the glasses, that the plants may receive the benefit of it; and in about ten days after planting, provide a parcel of forked sticks or bricks, to raise the glasses about 3 or 4 inches on the side towards the S. that the plants may have free air: in this manner the glasses should remain over the plants night and day, unless in frosty weather, when they should be set down as close as possible; or if the weather should prove very warm, the glasses may be kept off in the day-time, and put on only in the night, lest, by keeping the glasses over them too much, they should be drawn into flower at that season; which is often the case in mild winters, especially if unskillfully managed. Toward the end of February, if the weather proves mild, prepare another good spot of ground, well dunged and trenched, to remove some of the plants into, from under the glasses; then allowing one of the most promising plants under each glass to remain, take away the other, by raising it up with a trowel, &c. so as to preserve as much earth to the root as possible; but take care not to prejudice the roots of the plants which remain. Then plant these plants which are taken out at the distances before directed; and with a small hoe, draw the earth up to the stems of the plants which were left under the glasses, taking great care not to let the earth fall into their hearts; and set the glasses over them again,

by the props an inch or two higher than be-

fore, to give them more air, observing to take them off whenever there are any gentle showers. If the plants grow so fast as to fill the glasses with their leaves, raise the ground about them in a bed broad enough for the glasses to stand, about 4 inches high, which will give the plants a great deal of room, by raising the glasses so much higher when they are set over them. Thus they may be kept covered until April, which otherwise they could not, without prejudice to the leaves of the plants. After this, in mild soft weather set off the glasses, as well as in gentle showers of rain; and begin to harden them by degrees to endure the open air. It is advisable, however, to let the glasses remain over them as long as possible, if the nights be frosty; but the glasses must not remain in very hot sun-shine, lest the heat burn or scald them. Sometimes large quantities of plants have been so hurt by this, as never to be worth any thing after. If the plants have succeeded well, toward the end of April some of them will begin to fruit. They must therefore be examined carefully every other day, and when the flower plainly appears, break down some of the inner leaves over it to guard it from the sun, which would make the flower yellow and unsightly; and when the flower is at its full bigness (which may be known by its outside parting as if it would run,) draw it out of the ground. If they are designed for present use, cut them out of their leaves; but if for keeping, preserve their leaves about them, and put them into a cool place. The best time for pulling them is a morning, before the sun has exhaled the moisture; for cauliflowers pulled in the heat of the day, lose that firmness which they naturally have, and become tough. With regard to our second crop, the plants being raised and managed as directed for the early crop, until the end of Oct. prepare some beds either to be covered with glass frames, or arched over with hoops, to be covered with mats, &c. These beds should have some dung laid at the bottom, about six inches or a foot thick, according to the size of the plants; for if they are small, the bed should be thicker of dung to bring them forward, and so *vice versa*. This dung should be beat down close with a fork, in order to prevent the worms from finding their way through it; then lay some good fresh earth about 4 or 5 inches thick thereon, in which plant the plants about two inches and a half square, observing to shade and water them until they have taken new root; but do not keep the coverings close, for the warmth of the dung will occasion a great damp in the bed, which, if peot in, will much injure the plants. When they have taken root, give them as much free air as possible, by keeping the glasses off in the day-time if the weather will permit; and in the night or at such times as the glasses require to be kept on, raise them up with props to let in fresh air, unless in frosty weather; when the glasses should be covered with mats, straw, &c. but this is not to be done but in very hard frosts. Also observe to guard them against great rain, which in winter is very hurtful to them; but in mild weather, if the glasses are kept on, they should be propped to admit fresh air; and if the under leaves grow yellow and decay, be sure to pick them off; for

when the plants are kept close, these decayed leaves render the inclosed air very noxious; and the plants perspiring pretty much at that time, are often destroyed in vast quantities. In the beginning of February, if the weather be mild, begin to harden the plants by degrees, that they may be prepared for transplantation: the ground where the cauliflowers are to be planted out, (which should be quite open from trees, &c. and rather moist than dry,) having been well dunged and dug, should be sown with radishes a week or fortnight before planting out the cauliflowers. For if there are not some radishes amongst them, and the month of May should prove hot and dry, as it sometimes happens, the fly will seize the cauliflowers, and eat their leaves full of holes; whereas, if there are radishes upon the spot, the flies will take to them, and never meddle with the cauliflowers so long as they last. The gardeners near London mix spinach with their radish-seed, and thus have a double crop; which is an advantage where ground is dear, or where persons are straitened for room; otherwise it is as well to have only one crop amongst the cauliflowers, that they may be cleared in time. When the season is good, about the middle of February begin to plant out the cauliflowers; the distance generally allowed by the gardeners near London, (who plant cucumbers, &c. between their cauliflowers to succeed them,) is every other row $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet, and the intermediate rows $2\frac{1}{2}$ distant in the rows; so that in the latter end of May or beginning of June (when the radishes and spinach are cleared off,) they put in seeds of cucumbers for pickling, in the middle of the wide rows, at $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet apart; and in the narrow rows plant cabbage for winter use, at 2 feet 2 inches distance, so that these stand each of them exactly in the middle of the square between 4 cauliflower plants; and these after the cauliflowers are gone off, will have full room to grow, and the crop be hereby continued in a succession through the whole season. Many people water cauliflower plants in summer; but the gardeners near London have almost wholly laid aside this practice, finding a deal of trouble and charge to little purpose; for if the ground be so very dry as not to produce tolerable good cauliflowers without water, it seldom happens that watering of them makes them much better; and when once they have been watered, if it is not constantly continued, it had been much better for them if they never had any; and if it be done in the middle of the day, it rather helps to scald them; so that, upon the whole, if care be taken to keep the earth drawn up to their stems, and clear them from every thing that grows near them, that they may have free open air, they will succeed better without than with water, where any of these cautions are not strictly observed. In order to have a 3d crop of cauliflowers, make a slender hot bed in February, in which you should sow the seeds, covering them a quarter of an inch thick with light mould, and covering the bed with glass frames. When the plants are come up, and have got 4 or 5 leaves, prepare another hot-bed to prick them into, which may be about two inches square; and in the beginning of April harden them by degrees, to fit them for transplanting, which should

be done the middle of that month, at the distance directed for the 2d crop, and must be managed accordingly: these (if the soil is moist where they are planted, or the season cool and moist) will produce good cauliflowers about a month after the 2d crop is gone, whereby their season will be greatly prolonged. A 4th crop of cauliflowers may also be raised by sowing the seed about the 23d of May; and being transplanted, as before directed, will produce good cauliflowers in a kindly season and good soil after Michaelmas, and continue through October and November, and if the season permit often a great part of December.

(III.) BRASSICÆ, QUALITIES, &c. OF THE. All the species of cabbage are said to be hard of digestion, to afford little nourishment, and to produce flatulencies, though probably on no very good foundation. They tend strongly to putrefaction, and run into this state sooner than almost any other vegetable; when putrefied, their smell is likewise the most offensive, greatly resembling that of putrefied animal substances. A decoction of them is said to loosen the belly. Of all these plants cauliflower is reckoned the easiest of digestion. The white is the most fetid, and the red most emollient and laxative; a decoction of this last is recommended for softening acrimonious humours in some disorders of the breast, and in hoarseness. The red cabbage is chiefly used for pickling. In some countries they bury the white cabbage when full grown in the autumn, and thus preserve it all winter. The Germans cut them to pieces, and, along with some aromatic herbs and salt, press them close down in a tub where they soon ferment, and are eaten under the name of SOUR-CROUT. See that article.

BRASSICAVIT, } or BRACHICAVIT, in the
BRASSICOURT, } manege, is a horse whose fore-legs are naturally bended archwise: so called by way of distinction from an arched horse whose legs are bowed by hard labour.

BRASSIDELIC ART, a term used by Paracelsus, for a method of curing wounds by the application of the herb BRASSIDELLA, on the fresh wound.

BRASSIDELLA. See BRASSADELLA.

* BRASSINESS. *n. s.* [from *brassy*.] An appearance like brass; some quality of brass.

* BRASSY. *adj.* [from *brass*.] 1. Partaking of brass.—The part in which they lie, is near black, with some sparks of a *brassy* pyrites in it. *Woodward*. 2. Hard as brass.—

Losses,

Enough to press a royal merchant down,
And pluck commiseration of his state
From *brassy* bosoms, and rough hearts of flint.

Shakespeare

3. Impudent.

* BRAST. *particip. adj.* [from *burst*.] Burst; broken. Obsolete.—

There creature never past,
That back returned without heavenly grace,
But dreadful furies which their chains have *brast*,
And damned sprights sent forth to make ill men
agast.

Spenser

To BRAST, *v. n. obs.* to break. *Chauc.*

BRASTED, a village in Kent, N. E. of Westram. It has fairs, May 23d and Ascension day.

(1.) * BRAT. *n. s.* [its etymology is uncertain;

bratt, in Saxon, signifies a blanket; from which, perhaps, the modern signification may have come.]
1. A child, so called in contempt.—

He leads them like a thing
Made by some other deity than nature,
That shapes men better; and they follow him,
Against us *brats*, with no less confidence,
Than boys pursuing summer butterflies. *Shakesf.*

This *brat* is none of mine;
Hence with it, and, together with the dam,
Commit them to the fire. *Shakesf.*

The friends, that got the *brats*, were poi-
son'd too;

In this sad case what could our vermin do?
Roscommon.

—Jupiter summoned all the birds and beasts be-
fore him, with their *brats* and little ones, to see
which of them had the prettiest children. *L'E-
strange*.—I shall live to see the invisible lady, to
whom I was obliged, and whom I never beheld,
since she was a *brat* in hanging-sleeves. *Swift*.—

I give command to kill or save,
Can grant ten thousand pounds a year,
And make a beggar's *brat* a peer. *Swift.*

2. The progeny; the offspring.—The two late
conspiracies were the *brats* and offspring of two
contrary factions. *South.*

(2.) *BRAT*, *n. f. obs.* a coarse apron. *Chauc.*

BRATAG, the name of a small reptile in the
parish of Kirkmichael, in Banffshire, mentioned
by the rev. Mr Grant, in his account of that pa-
rish, as "covered with a downy hair, alternately
spotted into black and white."—"If cattle, (he
adds,) happen to eat it, they generally swell, and
sometimes die. It has the same effect upon
sheep." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. Vol. XII. p. 450.*

BRATPORTON, a village in Worcestershire,
E. of Evesham.

BRATHWAITE, or *BRAITHWAITE*, two Eng-
lish villages; 1. in Cumberland, E. of Inglewood
Forest; 2. in Keswick, at the foot of the moun-
tain road to Cockermouth.

BRATHWELL, in Yorkshire, near Ticking.

BRATLEY, in Lancash. near Westmoreland.

BRATOFT, in Lincolnshire, N. E. of Spillby.

BRATTLEBOROUGH, a post town of the
United States, in Windham county, Vermont, a-
greeably situated on the S. W. side of West river;
about 5 m. above its confluence with the Connec-
ticut. It contains about 20 dwellings compactly
built, and a congregational church. It is 37 m.
E. of Bennington, and 312 from Philadelphia,
Lon. 2. 29. E. Lat. 42. 52. N.

BRATTLEBY, near Scampton, Lincolnsh.

BRATTON, 3 villages; viz. 1. in Shropshire,
E. of Little Wenlock; 2. in ditto, S. of Apley
Castle; and 3. in Somersetsh. near Wincaunton.

BRATTON CASTLE, E. of Westbury, Wiltshire.

BRATTON-CLOVELLY, in Devonshire, W. of
Okehampton.

BRATTON-FLEMING, in ditto, near Chumley.

BRAVA, a sea port of Abyssinia.

* *BRAVADO*, *n. f.* [from *bravada*, Span.] A
boast; a brag.—

Spain, to make good the *bravando*,
was it the invincible Armado. *Anonymous.*

IBACH, a town of Germany, in Weteravia.

BRAVE, *adj.* [from *brave*, Fr.] 1. Courage-

ous; daring; bold; generous; high-spirited.—
An Egyptian soothsayer made Antonius believe,
that his genius, which otherways was *brave* and
confident, was, in the presence of Octavius Cæ-
sar, poor and cowardly. *Bacon*.—

From armed foes to bring a royal bribe,
Shows your *brave* heart victorious as your eyes.
Waller,

2. Gallant; having a noble mein; lofty; grace-
ful.—

I'll prove the prettier fellow of the two,
And wear my dagger with a *braver* grace. *Shakesf.*

3. Magnificent; grand.—

Rings put upon his fingers,
And *brave* attendants near him, when he wakes;
Would not the beggar then forget himself?
Shakespeare.

But whoso'er it was nature design'd
First a *brave* place, and then as *brave* a mind.
Denham.

4. Excellent; noble; it is an indeterminate word,
used to express the superabundance of any valua-
ble quality in men or things.—

Let not old age disgrace my high desire,
O heavenly soul, in human shape contain'd;
Old wood inflam'd doth yield the *bravest* fire,
When younger doth in smoke his virtue spend.
Sidney.

—If there be iron ore, and mills, iron is a *brave*
commodity where wood aboundeth. *Bacon*.—If a
statesman has not this science, he must be subject
to a *braver* man than himself, whose province it
is to direct all his actions to this end. *Digby.*

(2.) * *BRAVE*, *n. f.* [from *brave*, Fr.] 1. A hector; a
man daring beyond decency or discretion.—

Hot *braves*, like thee, may fight, but know
not well

To manage this, the last great stake. *Dryden.*

Morat's too insolent, too much a *brave*,
His courage to his envy is a slave. *Dryden.*

2. A boast; a challenge; a defiance.—

There end thy *brave*, and turn thy face in
peace;

We grant thou canst outscold us. *Shakesf.*

* *To BRAVE*, *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To de-
fy; to challenge; to set at defiance.—

He upbraids Iago, that he made him
Brave me upon the watch. *Shakef.*

My nobles leave me, and my state is *brav'd*,
Ev'n at my gates, with ranks of foreign powers.
Shakespeare.

The ills of love, not those of fate I fear;
These I can *brave*, but those I cannot bear.
Dryden.

Like a rock unmov'd, a rock that *braves*
The raging tempest, and the rising waves. *Dryd.*

2. To carry a boasting appearance of.—Both par-
ticular persons and factions are apt enough to flat-
ter themselves, or, at least, to *brave* that which
they believe not. *Bacon.*

* *BRAVELY*, *adv.* [from *brave*.] In a brave
manner; courageously; gallantly; splendidly.—
Martin Swart, with his Germans, performed
bravely. *Bacon*.—

No fire, nor foe, nor fate, nor night,
The Trojan hero did affright,
Who *bravely* twice renew'd the fight.
Denham.

Your valour *bravely* did th' assault sustain,
And fill'd the motes and ditches with the slain.

Dryden.

* BRAVERY. *n. f.* [from *brave*.] 1. Courage; magnanimity; generosity; gallantry.—It denotes the great *bravery* of mind, to do that out of a desire of fame, which we could not be prompted to do by a generous passion for the glory of him that calls us. *Spectator*.—

Juba, to all the *bravery* of a hero,
Adds softest love, and more than female sweetness.

Addison.

2. Splendour; magnificence.—

Where all the *bravery* that eye may see,
And all the happiness that heart desire,
Is to be found.

Spenser.

3. Show; ostentation.—Let princes choose ministers more sensible of duty than of rising, and let us love business rather upon conscience than upon *bravery*. *Bacon*. 4. Bravado; boast.—Never could man, with more unmanlike *bravery*, tie his tongue to her disgrace, which lately had long fetters of her praises. *Sidney*.—For a *bravery* upon this occasion of power, they crowned their new king in the cathedral church of Dublin. *Bacon*.—There are those that make it a point of *bravery*, to bid defiance to the oracles of divine revelation. *L'Estrange*.

BRAUGHING, a town in Hertfordshire, on the E. side of the Roman road, called *Ermine Street*, which leads to Cambridge. It is 2 m. N. of Puckeridge, and 31 from London. It has a fair on Whit Monday.

BRAULIO, one of the Alpine mountains, in the country of the Grisons.

BRAULS, Indian cloths with blue and white stripes. They are otherwise called *turbants*, because they serve to cover those ornaments of the head, particularly on the coast of Africa.

BRAUN, or BRAUNUS, George, archdeacon of Dortmund, and dean of Notre Dame in Graciosa, at Cologne. He published a Latin oration against the priests guilty of fornication; he also wrote the life of Jesus Christ, that of the Holy Virgin, and a controversial treatise against the Protestants: but his chief work is the *Theatrum Urbium*, in several volumes folio.

BRAUNA, } or BRANAU, a town of Ger-
BRAUNAU, } many, in Bavaria, seated on
BRAUNAW, } the river Inn. It has a strong
fortress: notwithstanding which, it was taken by
the Austrians in 1743. Lon. 13. 3. E. Lat. 48,
12. N.

1. BRAUNSBURG, a town of Poland, in Regal Prussia, with a very commodious harbour, belonging to the king of Prussia. It is seated near the Baltic sea. Lon. 20. 0. E. Lat. 54. 15. N.

2. BRAUNSBURG, a trading town of Polish Prussia, in Ermeland. It is populous, and subject to its own bishop.

BRAUNSFELD, or } a town of Germany, in
BRAUNSFELD, } the circle of the Upper
Rhine, and county of Solmes, with a handsome
palace. Lon. 8. 32. E. Lat. 50. 22. N.

BRAUNSFORD, a town 3 m. from Worcester.

BRAUNSTON, 3 villages, 1. near Leicester:
2. in Leicestershire, between Waltham on the

Would and Belvoir Castle: and, 3. in Rutlandshire, near Okeham-Soke.

(1.) BRAVO, a town of Africa, on the coast of Ajan, with a pretty good harbour. It is independent, and lies about 80 miles from Magadoxo. Lon. 41. 35. E. Lat. 1. 0. N.

(2.) BRAVO, one of the Cape de Verd islands, on the coast of Africa, remarkable for its excellent wines, and inhabited by Portuguese. The land is very high, and consists of mountains which look like pyramids. It abounds in Indian corn, gourds, water melons, potatoes, horses, asses, and hogs. There is also plenty of fish on the coast, and the island produces salt-petre. Lon. 25. 35. W. Lat. 14. 10. N.

(3.) * BRAVO. *n. f.* [*bravo*, Ital.] A man who murders for hire.—For boldness, like the *bravoes* and banditti, is seldom employed but on desperate services. *Government of the Tongue*.—

No *bravoes* here profess the bloody trade,
Nor is the church the murd'rer's refuge made.

Gay.

BRAURON, in ancient geography, a town of Attica, near Athens, where the famous statue of Diana, brought from Scythia Taurica, was preserved.

(1.) BRAURONIA, an epithet of Diana, from the above place, where her festival was held. See last and next articles.

(2.) BRAURONIA, in Grecian antiquity, a festival in honour of Diana. Brauronia was celebrated once in 5 years, and managed by ten men, called *eporoi*. The victim sacrificed was a goat, and it was customary for certain men to sing one of Homer's Iliads. The most remarkable persons at this solemnity were young virgins, in yellow gowns, consecrated to Diana. It was unlawful for any of them to be above 10 or under 5 years of age.

* BRAWL. *n. f.* [from the verb.] Quarrel; noise; scurrility.—He findeth, that controversies thereby are made but *brawls*; and therefore wisheth, that, in some lawful assembly of churches, all these strifes may be decided. *Hooker*.—

Never since that middle summer's spring
Met we on hill, in dale, forest, or mead,
But with thy *brawls* thou hast disturb'd our
sport.

Shakespeare.

That bonum is an animal,
Made good with stout polemick *brawl*.

Hudibras.

* To BRAWL. *v. n.* [*brouiller*, or *brauler*, Fr.]
1. To quarrel noisily and indecently.—

She troubled was, alas! that it might be,
With tedious *brawlings* of her parents dear.

Sidney.

Here comes a man of comfort, whose advice
Hath often still'd my *brawling* discontent.

Shakespeare.

How now, Sir John! what, are you *brawling*
here?

Does this become your place, your time, your
business.

Shakespeare's Henry IV.

Their batt'ring cannon charged to the mouths,
Till their soul-fearing clamours have *brawl'd*
down

The flinty ribs of this contemptuous city.

Shakespeare.

In council she gives licence to her tongue
Loquacious, *brawling*, ever in the wrong.

Dryden.

—Leave all noisy contests, all immodest clamours,
brawling language, and especially all personal
scandal and scurrility, to the meanest part of the
vulgar world. *Watts.* 2. To speak loud and in-
decently.—

His divisions, as the times do *brawl*,
Are in three heads; one pow'ragainst the French,
And one against Glendower. *Shakespeare.*

3. To make a noise. This is little used.—

As he lay along
Under an oak, whose antique root peeps out
Upon the brook that *brawls* along this wood.

Shakespeare.

* **BRAWLER.** *n. f.* [from *brawl*.] A wrangler;
a quarrelsome noisy fellow.—An advocate may
incur the censure of the court, for being a *brawler*
in court, on purpose to lengthen out the cause.
Ayliffe.

(1.) * **BRAWN.** *n. f.* [of uncertain etymology.]
1. The fleshy or muscular part of the body.—
The *brawn* of the arm must appear full, shadow-
ed on one side, then shew the wrist-bone thereof.
Peacbam.

But most their looks on the black monarch
bend,

His rising muscles and his *brawn* commend;
His double biting ax, and beamy spear,
Each asking a gigantick force to tear. *Dryden.*

2. The arm, so called from its being muscular.—

I'll hide my silver beard in a gold beaver,
And in my vantbrace put this wither'd *brawn*.

Shakespeare.

I had purpose

Once more to hew thy target from thy *brawn*.

Shakespeare.

3. Bulk; muscular strength.—

The boist'rous hands are then of use, when I,
With this directing head, those hands apply;
Brawn without brain is thine. *Dryden.*

4. The flesh of a boar.—The best age for the
boar is from two to five years old, at which time
it is best to geld him, or sell him for *brawn*. *Mor-
timer.* 5. A boar.

(2.) **BRAWN** is applied to the flesh of a boar when
soused or pickled; for which end the boar should
be old; because the older he is, the more horny
will the brawn be. The method of preparing
brawn is as follows: The boar being killed, it is
the flitches only, without the legs, that are made
brawn; the bones of which are to be taken out,
and then the flesh sprinkled with salt, and laid in
a tray, that the blood may drain off: Then it is to
be salted a little, and rolled up as hard as possible.
The length of the collar of brawn should be as
much as one side of the boar will bear, so that
when rolled up it will be nine or ten inches dia-
meter. The collar thus rolled up, is boiled in a
copper, or large kettle, till it is so tender, that a
straw can be run through it; then it is set aside,
till it is thoroughly cold, and put it into the fol-
lowing pickle: To every gallon of water, put a
handful or two of salt, and as much wheat-bran:
P— together, then drain the bran as clear
the liquor; and when the liquor
the brawn into it.

* **BRAWNER.** *n. f.* [from *brawn*.] A boar
killed for the table.—

At Christmas time be careful of your fame,
See the old tenant's table be the same;
Then if you would send up the *browner* head,
Sweet rosemary and bays around it spread.

King.

* **BRAWNINESS.** *n. f.* [from *brawn*.] Strength;
hardness.—This *brawniness* and insen-
sibility of mind, is the best armour against the
common evils and accidents of life. *Locke.*

BRAWNSTON, a town near Lincoln.

* **BRAWNY.** *adj.* [from *brawn*.] Muscular;
fleshy; bulky; of great muscles and strength.—

The *brawny* fool, who did his vigour boast,
In that presuming confidence was lost. *Dryden.*

The native energy

Turns all into the substance of the tree,
Starves and destroys the fruit, is only made
For *brawny* bulk, and for a barren shade.

Dryden.

BRAXFIELD, a district in Lanarkshire, be-
longing to the Lord Justice Clerk, ornamented
with his Lordship's seat, as well as with many ro-
mantic rocks and woods; near the fall of Dun-
daff Lin, and Mr David Dale's cotton works.

(1.) **BRAXTED MAGNA**, and } Two villages

(2.) **BRAXTED PARVA**, } in Essex, N.
E. of Witham.

BRAXY, or **BRACKS**, a disease incident to sheep,
supposed to arise from excess of blood. It attacks
them in autumn, and the most lusty and vigorous
of the flock fall a prey to it. It kills in two hours
from the time it is first observed. It is computed
that one fourth die of it. Dr Anderson's prescrip-
tion, tobacco oil, has been applied with success
as a remedy; and bleeding in summer has been
found an effectual preventive.

(1.) **BRAY**, a port town of Ireland, in the coun-
ty of Wicklow, and province of Leinster, seated
on St George's channel, 10 miles S. of Dublin,
and 13 N. of Wicklow. Lon. 6. 1. W. Lat. 53.
11. N.

(2.) **BRAY**, a river in Devonshire.

(3.) **BRAY**, a town in Berkshire, on the Thames,
a mile from Maidenhead; famous in song for its
changeable Vicar, who, having been twice a papist
and twice a protestant in the reigns of Henry VIII.
Edward VI. Mary and Elizabeth, was accused of
being a *turn-coat*; but replied, that he always stuck
fast to his principle, which was, to *live and die Vi-
car of Bray*.

(4.) * **BRAY.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Voice of
an ass. 2. Harsh sound.—

Boist'rous untun'd drums,

And harsh resounding trumpets dreadful *bray*.

Shakespeare.

(5.) **BRAY**, Sir Reginald, a celebrated architect
and politician, was the 2d son of Sir Richard Bray,
one of the privy council to K. Henry VI. Sir Regi-
nald was instrumental in the advancement of K.
Henry VII. to the throne of England; and was
greatly in favour with him. His skill in architecture
appears from Henry VII's chapel at Westminster,
and the chapel of St George at Windsor, as he
had a principal concern in building the former,
and finishing the latter, to which he was also a li-
beral benefactor. In the middle of the S. aisle is
a spa-

a spacious chapel built by him, and still called by his name. He died in 1501; and was interred in the above chapel, probably under the stone where Dr Waterland lies; for, on opening the vault of that gentleman, who died in 1740, a leaden coffin of ancient form was found, which, by other appearances, was judged to be that of Sir Reginald, and was, by order of the dean, immediately arched over.

(6.) BRAY, Thomas, D. D. an eminent, learned, and pious divine, born at Marton, in Shropshire, in 1656, and educated at Oxford. He was vicar of Over-Whitacre, in Warwickshire; and in 1690, rector of Sheldon, where he composed his *Catechetical Lectures*; which procured him such reputation, that Dr Compton bishop of London, pitched upon him as a proper person to model the infant church of Maryland, and establish it upon a solid foundation; and for that purpose he was invested with the office of commissary. He now engaged in several noble undertakings. He procured sums to be raised for purchasing small libraries for the use of the poor ministers in several parts of the plantations; and to promote this design, published two books: one intitled *Bibliotheca parochialis*, or a scheme of such theological and other heads as seem requisite to be perused or occasionally consulted by the clergy, together with a catalogue of books which may be profitably read on each of those points; the other, *Apostolical charity, its nature and excellency considered*. He endeavoured to get a fund established for the propagation of the gospel, especially among the Indians; and by his means a patent was obtained for erecting the corporation called *The society for propagating the gospel*. He procured relief for prisoners; and formed the plan of the society for the reformation of manners, charity schools, &c. He wrote, 1. *Martyrology*, or papal usurpation, in one vol. fol.; 2. *Directorium miserationum*; and other works. He died in 1730, aged 73.

(7.) BRAY SUR SEINE, a town of France, in the department of Aube, and ci-devant province of Champagne. It is seated on the Seine, 16 m. N. of Sens. Lon. 3. 26. E. Lat. 48. 25. N.

(8.) BRAY SUR SOMME, a town of France, in the department of Somme, the ci-devant province of Picardy, seated on the Somme.

(1.) * To BRAY. v. a. [*bracan*, Sax. *braier*, Fr.] To pound, or grind small.—

I'll burst him; I will bray

His bones as in a mortar.

Chapman.

—Except you would bray Christendom in a mortar, and mould it into a new paste, there is no possibility of a holy war. Bacon.

(2.) * To BRAY. v. n. [*broire*, Fr. *barrio*, Lat.] To make a noise as an ass.—

Laugh, and they

Return it louder than an ass can bray. Dryden.
—'Agad if he should hear the lion roar, he'd cudgel him into an ass, and to his primitive braying. Congreve. 2. To make an offensive, harsh or disagreeable noise.—

What, shall our feast be kept with slaughter'd men?

Shall braying trumpets, and loud churlish drums,

Clamours of hell, be measures to our pomp? 1

Shakespeare.

Arms on armour clashing, bray'd

Horrible discord.

Milton.

BRAYAN, a river in Pembrokeshire.

* BRAYER. n. f. [from *bray*.] 1. One that brays like an ass.—

Hold! cry'd the queen; a cat-call each shall win;

Equal your merits, equal is your din!

But that this well-disputed game may end,

Sound forth my brayers! and the welkin rend.

Pope.

2. [With printers; from *To bray*, or *beat*.] An instrument to temper the ink.

BRAYFIELD-COULD, a village in Buckinghamshire, near Oulney.

BRAY-HIGH, in Devonshire, 4 m. E. of Barnstaple.

BRAYLE, among sportsmen, a piece of leather slit to put upon a hawk's wing, to tie it up.

BRAYNE, a village in Somersetshire on the coast, S. of the river Axe.

BRAYNSFORD, a hamlet in Worcestershire.

BRAYTON, two villages: 1. in Cumberland, near Aspatria: 2. in Yorkshire S. of Selby.

BRAYWICK, in Berks, near Maidenhead.

* To BRAZE. v. a. [from *brass*.] 1. To solder with brass.—If the nut be not cast in brass, but only hath a worm *brazed* into it, this niceness is not so absolutely necessary, because that worm is first turned up, and bowed into the grooves of the spindle, and you may try that before it is *brazed* in the nut. Moxon. 2. To harden to impudence.—I have so often blushed to acknowledge him, that now I am *braz'd* to it. Shakespeare's *King Lear*.—

If damned custom hath not *braz'd* it so,

That it is proof and bulwark against sense. Shak.

BRAZED, in heraldry, a term for 3 cheverons, one clasping another.

* BRAZEN. adj. [from *brass*.] 1. Made of brass. It was anciently and properly written *brassen*.—Get also a small pair of *brazen* compasses, and a fine ruler; for taking the distance. Peacham.

A bough his *brazen* helmet did sustain;

His heavier arms lay scatter'd on the plain. Dryd.

2. Proceeding from brass: a poetical use.—

Trumpeters

With *brazen* din blast you the city's ear,

Make mingle with your rattling tabourines. Shak.

3. Impudent.

* To BRAZEN. v. n. To be impudent; to bully.—When I reprimanded him for his tricks, he would talk saucily, lye, and *brazen* it out, as if he had done nothing amiss. Arbuthnot.

BRAZEN AGE. See AGE, § 2.

BRAZEN DISH, among miners, is the standard by which the other dishes are gauged, and is kept in the king's hall.

* BRAZENFACE. n. f. [from *brazen* and *face*.] An impudent wench: in low language.—You do, if you suspect me in any dishonesty.—Well said, *brazenface*; hold it out. Shakespeare.

* BRAZENFACED. adj. [from *brazenface*.] Impudent; shameless.—What a *brazenfaced* varlet art thou, to deny thou knowest me? Is it two days

days ago, since I tript up thy heels, and beat thee before the king? *Shakespeare.*

Quick-witted, *brazen-fac'd*, with fluent tongues, Patient of labours, and dissembling wrongs. *Dryd.*

* **BRAZENNESS.** *n. f.* [from *brazen.*] 1. Appearing like brass. 2. Impudence.

BRAZEN SEA, in Jewish antiquity, one of the sacred utensils in the temple of Solomon. See *Plate XLVI. fig. 7.* It was cast in the plain of Jordan, and removed from thence into the inner court of the temple; where it was placed upon 12 oxen, 3 of which looked towards each quarter of the world. It was 10 cubits from the one brim to the other, 5 cubits in height, and 30 cubits in circumference; and contained 3000 baths. The brim was perfectly round, and so it continued in the two upper cubits; but below the brim, in the 3 lower cubits, it was square. It was a hand-breadth thick, and the brim was wrought like the brim of a cup, with flowers of lilies. About the body of this huge vessel there were two borders of engravings, being the heads of oxen in demi-relief; out of which some suppose the water issued, and that they were made as cocks and conveyances for that purpose. This brazen sea, was designed for the priests to wash in, before they performed the service of the temple. The supply of water was through a pipe out of the well Etam; though some are of opinion, that it was constantly supplied with water by the Gibeonites.

(1.) * **BRAZIER.** *n. f.* See **BRASIER.**—The halfpence and farthings in England, if you should sell them to the *brazier*, you would not lose above a penny in a shilling. *Swift.*

(2.) **BRAZIER**, an artificer who makes and deals in all kinds of brass ware. This trade, as exercised in Britain, may be reckoned a branch of the smithery, though the braziers seldom keep forges, except for brazing or soldering, and tinning the insides of their vessels, which they work up chiefly out of copper and brass prepared rough to their hands. Many carry on the sale trade to a great extent, dealing in all sorts of iron and steel, as well as in copper and brass goods. Of late they have dealt much in what is called *French plate*, a sort of white metal, silvered and polished to such a degree, that it is not easily distinguished from real silver.

BRAZIL. See **BRASIL.**

BRAZILIAN STONE. See **BRASILIAN STONE.**

(1.) **BRAZING**, the soldering two pieces of iron together by melting thin plates of brass between the pieces that are to be joined. If the work be very fine, as when two leaves of a broken saw are to be brazed together, they cover it with pulverized borax, melted with water, that it may incorporate with the brass powder; which is added to it: The piece is then exposed to the fire without touching the coals, and heated till the brass runs.

(2.) **BRAZING** is also the joining two pieces of iron together by beating them hot, the one upon the other, which is used for large pieces by farriers, &c.

BRAZZA, } an island on the coast of Dal-
BRAZZA, or } matia, in the gulph of Venice,
BRAZZO, } opposite to Spalatro, and sub-
 enice. Lon. 18. 15. E. Lat. 43. 6. N.

(2.) **BRAZZO**, a town in the above island.

BREACAN, GULF OF, lies on the W. coast of Argyllshire, between the islands Jura and Scarba. "The sound between these two islands (says the rev. Mr Francis Stewart,) is narrow, and, forming a communication between the Atlantic and the internal sea on the coast of Argyll, the rapidity and violence of the tides are tremendous. The gulf is most awful with the flowing tide; in stormy weather, it exhibits an aspect in which a great deal of the terrible is blended. Vast openings are formed in which one would think the bottom might be seen: Immense bodies of water tumble headlong, as over a precipice; then rebounding from the abyss meet the torrents from above; they dash together with inconceivable impetuosity, and rise foaming to a prodigious height above their surface. The noise of their conflict is heard through the surrounding islands. This gulf is an object of as great terror to the modern, as Scylla and Charybdis were to the ancient mariners. It is industriously avoided by all who navigate these sounds. There are instances however of vessels being drawn into it." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. xii. 326.*

(1.) * **BREACH.** *n. f.* [from *break*; *breche*, Fr.]

1. The act of breaking any thing.—

This tempest

Dashing the garment of this peace, aboded
 The sudden *breach* on't. *Shakespeare.*

2. The state of being broken.—

O you kind gods!

Cure this great *breach* in his abused nature.

Shakespeare.

3. A gap in a fortification made by a battery.—The wall was blown up in two places; by which *breach* the Turks seeking to have entered, made bloody fight. *Knolles.*—

'Till mad with rage upon the *breach* he fir'd,
 Slew friends and foes, and in the smoke retir'd.

Dryden.

4. The violation of a law or contract.—That oath would sure contain them greatly, or the *breach* of it bring them to shorter vengeance. *Spenser.*—What are those *breaches* of the law of nature and nations, which do forfeit all right in a nation to govern? *Bacon.*—*Breach* of duty towards our neighbours, still involves in it a *breach* of duty towards God. *South.*—The laws of the gospel are the only standing rules of morality; and the penalties affixed by God to the *breach* of those laws, the only guards that can effectually restrain men within the true bounds of decency and virtue. *Rogers.* 5. The opening in a coast.—

But th' heedful boatman strongly forth did
 stretch

His brawny arms, and all his body strain,
 That th' utmost sandy *breach* they shortly fetch,
 While the dread danger does behind remain.

Spenser.

6. Difference; quarrel; separation of kindness.—It would have been long before the jealousies and *breaches* between the armies would have been composed. *Clarendon.* 7. Infraction; injury.—This *breach* upon kingly power was without precedent. *Clarendon.*

(2.) **BREACH**, in fortification, (§ 1. def. 3.) is made by the cannon or mines of the besiegers, in order to make an attack upon the place. To make the

the attack more difficult, the besieged sow the breach with crow-feet, or stop it with *chevaux d'frise*.—A practicable breach, is that where the men may mount and make a lodgment, and ought to be 15 or 20 fathoms wide. The besiegers make their way to it, by covering themselves with gabions, earth-bags, &c.

(3.) BREACH, in lands. (See § 1. *def.* 5.) Inundations, or overflowings of lands, are frequently owing to breaches in the dikes or sea-banks. Dagenham breach is famous; it was made in 1707, by a failure of the Thames wall in a very high tide. The force wherewith it burst in upon the neighbouring level tore up a large channel or passage for water 100 yards wide, and in some places 20 feet deep, by which a multitude of subterraneous trees that had been buried many ages before were laid bare.

(4.) BREACH, in law. (See § 1. *def.* 4.) In an action, the breach must be assigned: And this assignment must not be general, but particular, as, in an action of covenant for not repairing houses, it ought to be assigned particularly what is the want of reparation: and in such certain manner, that the defendant may take an issue.

(1.) * BREAD. *n. f.* [*bread*, Sax.] 1. Food made of ground corn.—Mankind have found the means to make grain into *bread*, the lightest and properest aliment for human bodies. *Arbutnot.*—

Bread, that decaying man with strength supplies,

And gen'rous wine, which thoughtful sorrow flies. *Pope.*

1. Food in general, such as nature requires: to get *bread*, implies, to get sufficient for support without luxury.—In the sweat of thy face thou shalt eat *bread*. *Genesis.*—If pretenders were not supported by the simplicity of the inquisitive fools, the trade would not find them *bread*. *L'Esrange.*

This dowager on whom my tale I found,

A simple sober life in patience led,

And had but just enough to buy her *bread*.

Dryden.

When I submit to such indignities,

Make me a citizen, a senator of Rome;

To sell my country, with my voice, for *bread*.

Philips.

—I neither have been bred a scholar, a soldier, nor to any kind of business; this creates uneasiness in my mind, fearing I shall in time want *bread*. *Spektor.* 3. Support of life at large.—

God is pleased to try our patience by the ingratitude of those who, having eaten of our *bread*, have lift up themselves against us. *K. Charles.*—

But sometimes virtue starves, while vice is fed;

What then? is the reward of virtue *bread*? *Pope.*

(2.) BREAD may be farther defined, a mass of dough kneaded and baked in an oven. See BAKER, BAKING, and BARM. The grains of all vegetables are almost entirely composed of substances very proper for the nourishment of animals; and amongst the different grains, those which contain a farinaceous matter are the most agreeable and most nutritive.

(3.) BREAD, ANCIENT AND MODERN METHODS OF MAKING. Man, who appears to be designed by nature to eat of all substances which are capable of nourishing him, and still more of vegetables

than animals, has, from time immemorial, and in all parts of the earth, used farinaceous grains as the principal basis of his food: but as these grains cannot be without difficulty eaten by men in their natural state, they have gradually found means not only to extract the farinaceous part, the only nutritive part of these grains, but also to prepare it so that it becomes a very agreeable and wholesome aliment, such as the bread we now generally eat. Nothing appears so easy at first sight as to grind corn, to make a paste with the flour and water, and to bake this paste in an oven. Most people who enjoy the advantages of the finest human inventions, without reflecting on the labour it has cost to complete them, think all these operations common and trivial. It appears certain, however, that for a long time men no otherwise prepared their corn than by boiling and forming compact viscous cakes, not very agreeable to the taste, and of difficult digestion, before they were able to make bread of good taste and quality, as we have now. It was necessary to invent ingenious machines for grinding corn, and separating the pure flour with little trouble and labour; and that inquiries, or rather some happy chance, which some observing person availed himself of, should discover, that flour, mixed with a certain quantity of water, is susceptible of a fermentation which almost entirely destroys its viscidness, heightens its taste, and renders it proper to make a light bread, very agreeable to the taste, and of easy digestion. This essential operation, on which the good quality of bread depends, is entirely a chemical process. It would redound to the honour of the ancient chemists, could we attribute to them so important a discovery; but, it is too probable that they had no share in it. They were so much engaged in other pursuits that bread and other common objects, seemed to them of little importance. They hoped to make gold; but what is gold in comparison with bread? However that be, to the fortunate invention of raising the paste before baking we owe the perfection of the art of making bread. This operation consists in keeping some paste or dough, till by a peculiar spirituous fermentation it swells, rarefies, and acquires a smell and taste quick, pungent, spirituous, somewhat sour, and rather disagreeable. This fermented dough is well worked with some fresh dough, which is by that mixture and moderate heat disposed to a similar but less advanced fermentation than that above mentioned. By this fermentation the dough is attenuated, and divided; air is introduced, which being incapable of disengaging itself from the tenacious and solid paste, forms in it small cavities, raises and swells it. Hence the small quantity of fermented paste which disposes the rest to ferment, is called LEAVEN, from the French, *lever*, to raise. When the dough is thus raised, it is in a proper state to be put into the oven; where, while it is baked, it dilates itself still more by the rarefaction of the air, and of the spirituous substance it contains, and it forms a bread full of eyes or cavities; consequently light, and entirely different from the heavy, compact, viscous, and indigested masses made by baking unfermented dough. The invention of beer, or wine of grains, furnishes a new matter useful in the

making of bread. This matter is the froth which forms upon the surface of these liquors during fermentation. When it is mixed with dough, it raises it better and more quickly than ordinary leaven. It is called **YEST** or **BARM**. By means of this, the finest lightest bread is made. It often happens, that bread made with leaven dough has a sourish and not agreeable taste; which may proceed from too great a quantity of leaven, or from leaven in which the fermentation has advanced too far. This inconvenience does not happen to bread made with yeast; because the fermentation of this substance is not too far advanced, or because more attention is given to that finer bread. It may be asked, Why, since dough is capable of fermenting spontaneously and singly, as we see from the leaven, a substance is added to dispose it to ferment? The reason is, That all the parts of a fermenting substance do not ferment at once, nor to the same degree; so that some parts of this substance have finished their fermentation, while others have not yet begun. The fermentable liquors which contain much sugar, as hydromel, and must of wines, give proofs of this; for after they have become very vinous, they have still a distinct saccharine taste: But all saccharine matter is still susceptible of fermentation: and, in fact, if vinous hydromel, or must, or even new beer, be distilled, so that all their ardent spirit shall be separated, and the residuums diluted with water, a second fermentation will take place, and a new quantity of ardent spirit will be formed. The same thing happens to dough, and still more sensibly, from its viscosity and want of fluidity; so that if it be left to ferment alone, without the help of leaven, as the fermentation proceeds very slowly and successively, the parts which ferment first will have become sour and vapid before all the rest be sufficiently attenuated and changed, by which the bread will acquire a disagreeable taste. A mixture of a small quantity of leaven with dough effectually prevents this inconvenience; because the effect of this leaven, and of all fermenting substances, is to dispose to a similar fermentation all matters capable of it, with which they mixed; or rather, by means of leaven, the fermentation of all the parts of such substances is effected more nearly at the same time. Bread well raised and baked differs from unfermented bread, not only in being less compact, lighter, and of a more agreeable taste, but also in being more easily miscible with water, with which it does not form a viscous mass, which circumstance is of great importance in digestion.

(4.) **BREAD, ANCIENT VARIETIES OF.** Among the ancients we meet with various denominations of bread; as, 1. *Panis fingenus*, called also, *max-dus*, *athleticus*, *isungia*, *colopinus*, and *robys*, answering to our white bread; being made of the purest flour of the best wheat, and only used by the richer sort. 2. *Panis secundus* or *secundarius*, called also *smilaceus* or *smilagineus*, the next in purity; being made of fine flour, only all the bran not sifted out. 3. *Autopurus*, called also *syncomisus* and *consyjanus*, made of the whole substance of the wheat, without either retrenching the finer flour or coarser bran answering to our household

1. 4. *Cacabaenus*, apparently the same with

what was otherwise denominated *sordidus*, as being given to dogs; *furfuraceus*, *furfureus*, or *furfurativus*, because made in great part of bran; and, in the middle age, *bissus*, on account of its brownness; sometimes also *leibo*. There were other sorts of bread, denominated from the manner in which they were made, or the uses they were applied to; as, 1. The *militaris*, which was prepared by the soldiers and officers in camp with their own hands; for which purpose some had hand-mills, others pounded the corn in a mortar, and baked it on the coals. 2. *Clibanites*, bread baked in an oven, by way of contradistinction from that baked on the hearth or under the embers. 3. *Panis subcineritius*, or *sub cinere coctus*; sometimes also *reversatus*, because it was to be turned in the baking. 4. *Nauticus*, answering to our sea-biscuit, and denominated accordingly *bis coctus*, because baked several times over to make it keep the longer. Other kinds of bread were denominated from their qualities and accidents; as, 1. The *panis ficcus*, that which had been long baked; such as were the *bis coctus*, naval and buccellated bread. 2. *Madidus*, a sort made of rye or bear, sometimes also made of fine flour, where-with they smeared their faces, by way of a cosmetic, to render them smooth. 3. *Acidus*, or sour bread, which was acidulated with vinegar. 4. *Azymus*, unleavened or unfermented bread.

(5.) **BREAD, ASSIZE OF.** See **ASSIZE**, § 1. *def.* 6. The price and weight of bread is regulated by the magistrates according to the price of wheat. We have diverse tables of the weights of the loaves both of wheat, wheaten, and household bread, at every price of wheat. If bread want one ounce in 36, the baker formerly was to suffer the pillory; now to forfeit 5s. for every ounce wanting; and for every defect less than an ounce, 2s. 6d. such bread being complained of and weighed before a magistrate within 24 hours after it is baked or exposed to sale within the bills of mortality, or within 3 days in any other place. Bread loses weight by keeping: in some experiments recited by Bartholine, the diminution was near $\frac{1}{2}$ in 6 months.

(6.) **BREAD, CASSADA.** See **JATROPHA**.

(7.) **BREAD, EARTH.** In the German Ephemerides, for 1764, we have the following account of a kind of bread made in earth. "In the lordship of Moscow in the Upper Lusatia, a sort of white earth is found, of which the poor, urged by the calamities of the wars which raged in those parts, make bread. It is taken out of a hill where they formerly worked at saltpetre. When the sun has somewhat warmed this earth, it cracks, and small white globules proceed from it as meal; it does not ferment alone, but only when mixed with meal. Mr. Sarlitz, a Saxon gentleman, informed us, that he has seen persons who in a great measure lived upon it for some time. He assures us that he procured bread to be made of this earth alone, and of different mixtures of earth and meal; and that he even kept some of this bread by him upwards of six years: he further says, a Spaniard told him, that this earth is also found near Gerone in Catalonia."

(8.) **BREAD, GENERAL USE OF, ACCOUNTED FOR.** The late learned Dr Cullen observes, that without

without bread, or somewhat of a similar nature, no nation is known to live. Thus the Laplanders, having no corn of their own, make a sort of bread of dried fishes, and of the inner rind of the pine, which seems to be used, not so much for their nourishment as for supplying a dry food.—For this mankind seem to have an universal appetite, rejecting bland, slippery, and mucilaginous foods. This is not commonly accounted for, but seems to depend on very simple principles. The preparation of our food depends on the mixture of the animal fluids in every stage. Among others the saliva is necessary, which requires dry food as a necessary stimulus to draw it forth, as bland, slippery, fluid aliments are too inert, and make too short stay in the mouth, to produce this effect, or to cause a sufficient degree of manducation to emulge that liquor. For this reason we commonly use dry bread along with animal food, which otherwise would be too quickly swallowed. For blending the oil and water of our food, nothing is so fit as bread, assisted by a previous manducation. For which purpose, bread is of like necessity in the stomach, as it is proper that a substance of solid consistence should be long retained there. Now the animal fluids must be mixed with our aliments, in order to change the acescency it undergoes. But liquid foods would not attain this end, whereas the solid stimulates and emulges the glands of the stomach. The bread then appears to be exceedingly proper, being bulky without too much solidity, and firm without difficulty of solution.

(9.) BREAD, HORSE, is made of wheat, oats, and beans; to which sometimes are added aniseed, gentian, liquorice, fenugreek, eggs, and ale; and sometimes rye and white wine are used. For race horses 3 sorts of bread are usually given with success, for the 2d, 3d, and 4th nights feeding: they are all made of beans and wheat worked with barm; the difference consisting chiefly in the proportion of the two former. In the first kind, 3 times the quantity of beans is used to 1 of wheat; in the 2d equal quantities of both; in the 3d, 3 times the quantity of wheat to one of beans.

(10.) BREAD, MEDICAL QUALITIES OF. Besides the alimentary, bread has also medical qualities.—Decoctions, creams, and jellies of bread, are directed in some dispensaries. Bread carefully toasted, and infused or lightly boiled in water, imparts a deep colour, and a sufficiently agreeablestringent taste. This liquor, taken as common drink, has done good service in a weak and lax state of the stomach and intestines; and in bilious vomiting and purging, or the cholera morbus: examples are related in the Edinburgh essays of several cases of this kind cured by it, without the use of any other medicine.—In Westphalia there is a very coarse bread eaten, which still retains the opprobrious name given it by a French traveller of BONPOURNICKEL, i. e. good for his horse *Nickel*. It is the same with what the Romans called *panis fursuraceus*, or *panis impurus*, from its not being cleansed from the husk; and *panis ater*, from the blackness of its colour: though we learn from Pliny, that the Romans for 300 years knew no other bread. The Germans make two sorts

of waters by distillation from this bread; the one with, the other without, the addition of a spirituous liquor; to both which great virtues are ascribed. That without any thing spirituous, is made out of the juice of craw-fish, may-dew, rose-water, nutmegs, and saffron, distilled from a large quantity of this bread. This is esteemed a great restorative, and given in hectic habits. The other is distilled from this bread and Rhenish wine, with nutmegs and cinnamon. This is given in all the disorders of the stomach, vomiting, loss of appetite, and other complaints of the same kind: and besides these, there is a spirit distilled from it by the retort in the dry way, which, when separated from its fetid oil, is esteemed a powerful sudorific, and very valuable medicine in removing impurities of the blood. Bread is also medicinal, applied externally, as is commonly known. Mr Boyle assures us he drew a menstruum from bread stronger than aquafortis, and which would act even upon glass itself. *Boyle's Phil. Works abridged*, vol. I. p. 34. 40. and vol. III. p. 572.

(11.) BREAD, MODERN VARIETIES OF. The French have a great variety of bread, as queens bread, alamode bread, bread de Segovie, de Gentilay, quality bread, &c. all prepared in peculiar manners by the bakers of Paris, though some of these names are now doubtless changed. The bread of Gonesse excels all others, on account of the waters at Gonesse. It is light and full of eyes, which are the marks of its goodness. *Pain de menage*, is that which each family bakes for itself. *Pain d'epice*, spice bread, denotes bread baked and iced over with the scum taken off sugar in refining houses; it is sometimes also made with honey and other sorts of seasoning, and answers to what the ancients called *panis mellitus*. Among us, bread is chiefly divided into *white*, *wheaten*, and *household*; differing only in degrees of purity. In the first, all the bran is separated; in the 2d only the coarser; in the 3d none at all: so that fine bread is made only of flour: wheaten bread, of flour and a mixture of the finer bran; and household, of the whole substance of the grain, without taking out either the coarse bran or fine flour. We also meet with SYMNEL bread, MANCHET, or roll bread, and French bread: which are only so many denominations of the finest and whitest bread, made of the purest flour; except that in *ill-roll* bread there is an addition of milk: and in French bread, of eggs and butter also. In Lancashire, and several of the northern counties of England, they have several sorts of oaten bread; as, 1. The BANNOCK, which is an oat cake, kneaded only with water, and baked on the embers. 2. *Clap* bread, which is made into thin hard cakes. 3. *Bitchiness* bread, which is made of thin batter, and made into thin soft oat cakes. 4. *Riddle* cakes, which are thick and sour, have but little leaven, and are kneaded stiff. And 5. *Fannock*, which is oaten bread made up into loaves. 6. *Pease bread*, is also much used in many parts of Scotland; consisting either wholly of the flour of pease, or of this and oat-meal mixed: the dough, sometimes leavened, sometimes only made with water, is formed either in bannocks or cakes, and baked over the embers; or baked into what they call *baps*, i. e. a kind of flattish rolls, baked in the oven.

oven. In the statute of assize of bread and ale, 51 Hen. III. mention is made of wastel-bread, cocket-bread, and bread of treet; which answer to the three kinds of bread now in use, called *white*, *white*, and *household* bread. In religious houses, they formerly distinguished bread by the names *panis armigerorum*, Esquires bread; *panis conventualis*, monks bread; *panis puerorum*, boys bread; and *panis famularum*, or *panis servientalis*, servants bread. A like distribution obtained in the households of nobles and princes; where, however, we find some other denominations; as *panis nuncius*, messengers bread; that given to messengers as a reward of their labour; *panis curialis*, court bread; that allowed by the lord for the maintenance of his household; *elemosynary* bread, that distributed to the poor by way of alms.

(12.) BREAD, NUTRITIVE PART OF, INVESTIGATED. M. Beccari of the Bolognian academy has discovered in the flour of wheat two distinct substances. The one he terms an *animal* or GLUTINOUS matter; the other an AMYLACEOUS matter or *vegetable paste*. The GLUTEN has been supposed to be the nutritive part of corn, from its not dissolving unless in vegetable acids; from its assuming a spongy form in boiling water; from its supposed analogy to the animal lymph; and, lastly, from the similitude which the products it affords, on a chemical analysis, bear to those obtained from animal substances. M. Parmentier, however, from various experiments, was led to conclude, with the celebrated Model of Petersburg, that the gluten or animal matter of Beccari exists in the bran, and is not the nutritive part of the wheat. Having made experiments with four different kinds of flour, it appeared that the quantity of animal matter was always proportioned to the coarseness of the flour. Hence, were this gluten the nutritive part, the coarsest bread, or that which contained most bran, would afford the greatest quantity of nourishment. The contrary of this, however, is now known to be the fact. The amylaceous part, or, as some have termed it, the *PECULA*, of wheat and other vegetables, is a peculiar gum, not soluble in spirit of wine, vinegar, or cold water. It contains more acid, and less water, than the ordinary gums. It is found in many of those plants that make the nourishment of men and other animals. Hence M. Parmentier concludes it to be the nutritive matter.— Though we are not to consider the glutinous matter as the nutritious part of vegetables, yet it is a very necessary ingredient. It is that which preserves the cohesion of the paste in fermenting bread; it is that which forms the viscid pellicle, and stops the air in fermentation; gives the savoury taste to bread; occasions it to be light, to ferment, and which forms the small cells seen in it. It is found especially near the cortical part of the grain; and this accounts for its being found in the greatest quantity in coarse brown meal. It is this gluten which renders wheat a superior aliment to the other grains and roots.

(13.) BREAD, SACRAMENTAL, in the protestant churches, is common leavened bread, in conformity to the ancient practice. In the Romish mass, *azymous*, or unleavened bread, is used, particularly in the Gallican church, where a sort is pro-

vided for this purpose called *pain a chanter*, made of the purest wheaten flour pressed between two iron plates graven like wafer-moulds, being first rubbed with white wax to prevent the paste from sticking. The Greeks observe divers ceremonies in their making the eucharist bread. It is necessary the person who bakes it have not lain with his wife the day before; or, if it be a woman, that she have not conversed with her husband.— The Abyssinians have an apartment in their churches for this service, being a kind of sacristy. F. Sirmond, in his disquisition on azymous bread, shows from the council of Toledo, that anciently there were as many ceremonies used in the Latin church, in the preparation of their unleavened bread, as are still retained in the eastern churches. He cites the example of queen Radegonda, who distributed with her own hands in the church, the bread which she herself had made. It appears also from the dispute of cardinal Humbert against the Greeks, that in the Latin church no bread was used for the eucharist, but what was taken out of the sacristy, and had been made by the deacons, subdeacons, and even priests, who rehearsed several psalms during the process. Ecclesiastical writers enumerate other species of bread allotted for purposes of religion; as, 1. *Calenarius*, that anciently offered to the priest at the kalends. 2. *Prebendarius*, the same with *capitularis*, that distributed daily to each prebendary or canon. 3. *Benedictus*, that usually given to catechumens before baptism, in lieu of the eucharistic bread, which they were incapable of partaking of. The *panis benedictus*, was called also *panagium* and *eulogium*, being a sort of bread blessed and consecrated by the priest, whereby to prepare the catechumens for the reception of the body of Christ. The same was used afterwards not only by catechumens, but by believers themselves, as a token of their mutual communion and friendship. Its origin is dated from the 7th century, at the council at Nantz. In the Gallican church we still find *panis benedictus*, *pain benit*, used for that offered for benediction, and afterwards distributed to pious persons who attend divine service in chapels. 4. Consecrated bread is a piece of wax, paste, or even earth, over which several ceremonies have been performed with benedictions, &c. to be sent in an *Agnus Dei*, or relic-box, and presented for veneration. 5. Unleavened bread, *panis azymus*. The Jews eat no other bread during their passover; and exact search was made in every house, to see that no leavened bread was left. The usage was introduced in memory of their hasty departure from Egypt, when they had not leisure to bake leavened. 6. Shew-bread was that offered to God every Sabbath-day, being placed on the golden table in the holy of holies.

(14.) BREAD SAGO. See SAGO.

(15.) BREAD, SUBSTITUTES FOR. It is for the interest of the community that the food of the poor should be as various as possible, that, in time of dearth and scarcity of the ordinary kinds, they may not be without ready and cheap resources. To the discovery of such resources several benevolent philosophers having successfully turned their inquiries, we shall lay before the reader the result of their experiments.

du
 in
 of
 fed
 ing
 right
 wide
 fine
 (m
 receiv
 ted
 I
 it mu
 we pret
 It does
 a mylar
 n both
 re, nbl
 and take
 us and
 red, it
 of wheat
 yields the
 , and keep
 of a simula
 of potatoes
 to make be
 proportiona
 nd 3 of the p
 r from which
 dition of a li
 ch was well
 ted, was brow
 cruffs. Bread
 us, with the
 de, but very h
 ighly brown.
 Potatoes alone
 To give it mo
 du water) eithe
 nor fermented
 , ten colour, beca
 adfibre. Mr. P
 fell fermented, and
 um a mixture of
 wheat, or potato
 and salt. Potatoes
 ead, are not ready
 which, bread is
 made. But Mr.
 sary of experiments,
 made from equal
 3 parts. He concluded,
 using the mixture of p
 y, with the flour of wh
 T; barley, or oats, as h
 When grain is altogether
 the use of bread made
 ymacium powder of pota
 this mixture being from
 honesty. The meal of the
 best water, acquires a ten
 dency. However say the
 it, it always gives a grey col
 re by mixing it with the flour
 ure of the pulp of potatoes w
 not produce brown col
 ures not made bread, very coar

amylaceous powders of the different vegetables mentioned above, with the addition of potatoes and a small quantity of common leaven of grain. This bread appeared in general to be well fermented; it was of a good white colour, and free from any disagreeable odour: but to the taste, it was somewhat insipid; which, however, he imagines, might have been corrected by the addition of a proper quantity of salt. As the resources against scarcity here pointed out can be procured only at particular seasons, the author proposes a method for preserving the matter thus obtained. For this purpose, he advises, that bread prepared in the manner mentioned above should be carefully dried, reduced to powder, and then kept in a close cask. By this means, he is of opinion that it may be preserved for a very long time, and will always be ready to make an agreeable and wholesome panada by the addition of a little butter and salt. M. Parmentier, in order to discover the degree of power wherewith this alimentary powder nourished, made himself the subject of experiment; and found, that 3 ounces of it for dinner, and as much for supper, made into panada with water, was a sufficient quantity of aliment for a day. From his discharge by stool while he used it, he had reason to believe that it is almost totally alimentary. He concludes with recommending it not only as useful in times of scarcity, but as a proper substitute for sea-biscuit, and as a species of food well adapted for armies and hospitals.

III. BREAD OF TURNIPS. The following cheap method of making wholesome bread is recommended in a letter in the *Museum Rusticum et Commerciale*. "At the time I tried this method, bread was very dear, insomuch that the poor people, in the country where I live, can hardly afford themselves half a meal a-day. This put me upon consulting whether some cheaper method might not be found than making it of wheat-meal. Turnips were at that time very plentiful. I had a number of them pulled, washed clean, pared, and boiled; when they were become soft enough to mash, I had the greatest part of the water pressed out of them, and afterwards had them mixed with an equal quantity in weight of coarse wheat meal; the dough was then made in the usual manner, with yeast or barm, salt, water, &c. It rose very well in the trough; and after being well kneaded, was formed into loaves, and put into the oven to be baked. I had at the same time some other bread made with common meal in the ordinary way. I baked my turnip-bread rather longer than the other. When they were drawn from the oven, I caused a loaf of each sort to be cut; and found, on examination, the turnip-bread was sweeter than the other, to the full as light and as white, but had a little taste (though nowise disagreeable) of the turnip. Twelve hours afterwards I tasted my turnip-bread again, when I found the taste of the turnip in it scarce perceivable, and the smell quite gone off. On examining it when it had been baked 24 hours, had I not known there were turnips in its composition, I should not have imagined it: it had, it is true, a peculiar sweetish taste, but by no means disagreeable; on the contrary, I rather preferred to the bread made of wheat-meal alone. After

it had been baked 48 hours, it underwent another examination, when it appeared to me to be rather superior to the other; it eat fresher and moister, and had not at all abated in its good qualities: to be short, it was still very good after a week; and, as far as I could see, kept as well as the bread made of common wheat-meal. In my trials of this bread by the taste, I was not satisfied with eating it by itself; I had some of it spread with butter; I tasted it with cheese; I ate of it toasted and buttered, and finally in boiled milk and in soup: in all these forms it was very palatable and good."

(16.) BREAD VALUED FOR ITS AGE. Bartholinus assures us, that in Norway they make bread which keeps 30 or 40 years; and that they are there fonder of their old hard bread, than elsewhere of new or soft; since the older it is, the more agreeable it grows. For their great feasts, particular care is taken to have the oldest bread; so that, at the christening of a child, they have usually bread which had been baked perhaps at the christening of his grandfather! It is made of barley and oat-meal baked between two hollow stones.

BREADALBANE. See BRAIDALBIN.

BREAD, BEE'S. See BLE-BREAD.

* BREAD-CHIPPER. *n. f.* [from *bread* and *chip*.] One that chips bread; a baker's servant; an under-butler.—No abuse, Hal, on my honour; no abuse.—Not to dispraise me, and call me pantler, and *bread-chipper*, and I know not what? *Shakespeare*.

* BREAD-CORN. *n. f.* [from *bread* and *corn*.] Corn of which bread is made.—There was not one drop of beer in the town; the bread, and *bread-corn*, sufficed not for six days. *Hayward*.—When it is ripe, they gather it, and, bruising it among *bread-corn*, they put it into a vessel, and keep it as food for their slaves. *Broome*.

To BREADE. *v. n. obs.* to spread.

(1.) * BREAD-ROOM. *n. f.* [In a ship.] A part of the hold separated by a bulk-head from the rest, where the bread and bisket for the men are kept.

(2.) A BREAD-ROOM should be jointed and caulked in the boards, and even lined with tin plates or mats. It should also be well warmed with charcoal for several days before the bisket is put into it; for nothing is more injurious to the bread than moisture.

(1.) * BREADTH. *n. f.* [from *brad*, broad, Saxon.] The measure of any plain superficies from side to side.—There is in Ticinum, a church that hath windows only from above: it is in length an hundred feet, in *breadth* twenty, and in height near fifty; having a door in the midst. *Bacon*.—The river Ganges, according unto later relations, if not in length, yet in *breadth* and depth, may excell it. *Brown*.—

Then all approach the slain with vast surprize, Admire on what a *breadth* of earth he lies. *Dryden*.—In our Gothic cathedrals, the narrowness of the arch makes it rise in height; the lowness opens it in *breadth*. *Addison*.

(2.) BREADTH, in geometry, one of three dimensions of bodies, which multiplied into their length constitutes a surface.

BREAD TREE. See APTOCARPUS, § 1—C.

BREAGE.

BREAGE, a village in Cornwall, 3 m. N. W. of Helfton.

* BREAK. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. State of being broken; opening.—From the *break* of day until noon, the roaring of the cannon never ceased. *Knelles.*

For now, and since first *break* of day, the fiend,

Mere serpent in appearance, forth was come.

Milton.

—They must be drawn from far, and without *breaks*, to avoid the multiplicity of lines. *Dryden.*

—The sight of it would be quite lost, did it not sometimes discover itself through the *breaks* and openings of the woods that grow about it. *Addison.*

2. A pause; an interruption. 3. A line drawn, noting that the sense is suspended.—

All modern trash is

Set forth with num'rous *breaks* and dashes.

Swift.

(1.) * To BREAK. *v. a.* pret. I *broke*, or *brake*; part. pass. *broke*, or *broken*. [*breccan*, Saxon.] 1. To part by violence.—When I *brake* the five loaves among five thousand, how many baskets of fragments took ye up? *Mark.*—Let us *break* their hands asunder, and cast away their cords from us. *Psalms.*—A bruised reed shall he not *break*. *Isaiab.*

See, said the fire, how soon its done;

The sticks he then *brake* one by one:

So strong you'll be in friendship ty'd;

So quickly *broke*, if you divide.

Swift.

2. To burst, or open by force.—

O could we *break* our way by force. *Milton.*

—Moses tells us, that the fountains of the earth were *broke* open, or clove asunder. *Burnet's Theory.*

Into my hands he forc'd the tempting gold,

While I with modest struggling *broke* his hold.

Gay.

3. To pierce; to divide, as light divides darkness.

By a dim winking lamp which feebly *broke*

The gloomy vapour, he lay stretch'd along.

Dryden.

4. To destroy by violence.—This is the fabrick, which, when God *breaketh* down, none can build up again. *Burnet's Theory.* 5. To batter; to make breaches or gaps in.—

I'd give bay Curtal and his furniture,

My mouth no more were *broken* than these boys,

And writ as little beard.

Shakespeare.

6. To crush or destroy the strength of the body.—

O father abbot!

An old man, *broken* with the storms of state,

I come to lay his weary bones among ye;

Give him a little earth for charity. *Shakespeare.*

The breaking of that parliament

Broke him; as that dishonest victory

At Chazonea, fatal to liberty,

Kill'd with report that old man eloquent. *Milt.*

—Have not some of his voices weaken'd his body, and *broke* his health? have not others dissipated his estate and reduced him to want? *Tillotson.* 7.

To sink or appal the spirit.—The defeat of that day was much greater than it then appeared to be; and it even *broke* the heart of his army. *Clarend.*

I'll brave her to her face;

I'll give my anger its free course against her:

Thou shalt see, Phoenix, how I'll *break* her pride.

Philips.

8. To crush; to shatter.—

Your hopes without are vanish'd into smoke;
Your captains taken, and your armies *broke*.

Dryden.

9. To weaken mental faculties.—

Opprest nature sleeps:

This rest might yet have balm'd thy *broken* senses,

Which, if conveniency will not allow,

Stand in hard cure.

Shakespeare.

—If any dabbler in poetry dares venture upon the experiment, he will only *break* his brains. *Felton.*

10. To tame; to train to obedience; to enure to docility.—What boots it to *break* a colt, and to let him straight run loose at random? *Spenser.*

Why, then, thou can'st not *break* her to the lute.—

—Why, no; for she hath *broke* the lute to me.

Shakespeare.

So fed before he's *broke*, he'll bear

Too great a stomach patiently to feel

The lashing whip, or chew the curbing steel.

May.

That hot-mouth'd beast that bears against the curb,

Hard to be *broken* even by lawful kings. *Dryd.*

No sports but what belong to war they know,

To *break* the stubborn colt, to bend the bow.

Dryden.

Virtues like these,

Make human nature shine, reform the soul,

And *break* our fierce barbarians into men. *Add.*

Behold young Juba, the Numidian prince,

With how much care he forms himself to glory,

And *breaks* the fierceness of his native temper.

Addison.

11. To make bankrupt.—

The king's grown bankrupt, like a *broken* man.

Shakespeare.

For this few know themselves: for merchants

broke,

View their estate with discontent and pain.

Davies.

With arts like these, rich Matho, when he speaks,

Attracts all fees, and little lawyers *breaks*.

Dryden.

—A command or call to be liberal, all of a sudden impoverishes the rich, *breaks* the merchant, and shuts up every private man's exchequer. *South.*

12. To discard; to dismiss.—I see a great officer *broken*. *Swift.* 13. To crack or open the skin, so as that the blood comes.—She could have run and waddled all about, even the day before she *broke*

her brow; and then my husband took up the child. *Shakespeare.*

Weak soul! and blindly to destruction led:

She *break* her heart! she'll sooner *break* your head.

Dryden.

14. To make a swelling or imposthume open. 15. To violate a contract or promise.—

Lovers *break* not hours,

Unless it be to come before their time. *Shakefp.*

Pardon this fault, and, by my soul I swear,

I never more will *break* an oath with thee.

Shakespeare.

Did not our worthies of the house,

Before they *broke* the peace, *break* vows? *Hud.*

10. To

16. To infringe a law.—

Unhappy man! to *break* the pious laws
Of nature, pleading in his children's cause.

Dryden.

17. To stop; to make cease.—*Break* their talk, mistress Quickly; my kinsman shall speak for himself. *Shakespeare.* 18. To intercept.—Spirit of wine, mingled with common water, yet so as if the first fall be *broken*, by means of a sop, or otherwise, it stayeth above. *Bacon.*—

Think not my sense of virtue is so small;
I'll rather leap down first, and *break* your fall.

Dryden.

As one condemn'd to leap a precipice,
Who sees before his eyes the depth below,
Stops short, and looks about for some kind
shrub,

To *break* his dreadful fall. *Dryden.*

She held my hand, the destin'd blow to *break*,
Then from her rosy lips began to speak. *Dryd.*

19. To interrupt.—

Some solitary cloister will I choose,
Coarse my attire, and short shall be my sleep.

Broke by the melancholy midnight bell. *Dryd.*

—The father was so moved, that he could only
command his voice, *broke* with sighs and sobbings,
so far as to bid her proceed. *Addison.*—

The poor shade, shiv'ring stands, and must
not *break*

His painful silence, till the mortal speak. *Tickell.*

Sometimes in *broken* words he sighed his care,
Look'd pale and trembled when he view'd the
fair. *Gay.*

20. To separate company.—Did not Paul and
Barnabas dispute with that vehemence, that they
were forced to *break* company? *Atterbury.* 21.

To dissolve any union.—It is great folly, as well
as injustice, to *break* off so noble a relation. *Col-*

lier. 22. To reform: with *of*.—The French were
not quite *broken* of it, until some time after they
became christians. *Greav.* 23. To open something
new; to propound something by an overture; as
if a seal were opened.—When any new thing shall
be propounded, no counsellor should suddenly
deliver any positive opinion, but only hear it, and,
at the most, but to *break* it, at first, that it may
be the better understood at the next meeting.

Bacon.—
I, who much desir'd to know
Of whence she was, yet fearful how to *break*
My mind, adventur'd humbly thus to speak.
Dryden.

24. To *break* the back. To strain or dislocate the
vertebræ with too heavy burdens.—
I'd rather crack my sinews, *break* my back,
Than you should such dishonour undergo.

Shakespeare.

25. To *break* the back. To disable one's fortune.—
O, many,

Have *broke* their backs, with laying manors on
'em,
For this great journey. *Shakespeare.*

26. To *break* a deer. To cut it up at table. 27.

To *break* fast. To eat the first time in the day.

28. To *break* ground. To plow.—When price of
corn falleth, men generally give over surplus til-
lage, and *break* no more ground than will serve to
supply their own turn. *Carrow.*—The husband-

man must first *break* the land, before it be made
capable of good seed. *Davies.* 29. To *break* ground.
To open trenches. 30. To *break* the heart. To
destroy with grief.—

Good my lord, enter here.—

—Will't *break* my heart?—

I'd rather *break* mine own. *Shakespeare.*

Should not all relations bear a part?

It were enough to *break* a single heart. *Dryden.*

31. To *break* a jest. To utter a jest unexpected.

32. To *break* the neck. To lux, or put out the
neck joints.—I had as lief thou didst *break* his neck,
as his fingers. *Shakespeare.* 33. To *break* off. To

put a sudden stop; to interrupt. 34. To *break* off.
To preclude by some obstacle suddenly interposed.

To check the starts and sallies of the soul,
And *break* off all its commerce with the tongue.

Addison.

35. To *break* up. To dissolve; to put a sudden
end to.—

Who cannot rest till he good fellows find;

He *breaks* up house, turns out of doors his mind.

Herbert.

—He threatened, that the tradesmen would beat
out his teeth, if he did not retire, and *break* up the
meeting. *Arbutnot.* 36. To *break* up. To open;

to lay open.—Shells being lodged among mineral
matter, when this comes to be *brake* up, it exhibits

impressions of the shells. *Woodward.* 37. To *break*
up. To separate or disband.—After taking the

strong city of Belgrade, Solyman returning to Con-
stantinople, *broke* up his army, and there lay still

the whole year following. *Knolles.* 38. To *break*
upon the wheel. To punish by stretching a criminal

upon the wheel, and breaking his bones with
bats. 39. To *break* wind. To give vent to wind

in the body.

(2.) * To BREAK. v. n. 1. To part in two.—

Give sorrow words, the grief that does not
speak,

Whispers the o'erfraught heart, and bids it *break*.

Shakespeare.

2. To burst.—

The clouds are still above; and, while I speak,
A second deluge o'er our heads may *break*. *Dryd.*

The Roman camp

Hangs o'er us black and threatening, like a storm
Just *breaking* on our heads. *Dryden.*

3. To spread by dashing, as waves on a rock.—

At last a falling billow stops his breath,

Breaks o'er his head, and whelms him under-
neath. *Dryden.*

—He could compare the confusion of a multitude
to that tumult in the Icarian sea, dashing and

breaking among its crowd of islands. *Pope.* 4. To
break as a swelling; to open, and discharge mat-

ter.—Some hidden abscess in the mesentery, *break-*
ing some few days after, was discovered to be an

aposteme. *Harvey.*—Ask one who hath subdued
his natural rage, how he likes the change, and un-

doubtedly he will tell you, that it is no less happy
than the ease of a *broken* impostume, as the pain-

ful gathering and filling of it. *Decay of Piety.*

5. To open as the morning.—

The day *breaks* not, it is my heart,

Because that I and you must part.
Stay, or else my joys will die,
And perish in their infancy.

Donne.

—When

—They smother and keep down the flame of the mischief, so as it may not *break out* in their time of government; what comes afterwards, they care not. *Spenser*.—Such a deal of wonder is *broken out* within this hour, that ballad makers cannot be able to express it. *Shakespeare*.—As fire *breaks out* of flint by percussion, so wisdom and truth issueth out by the agitation of argument. *Howel*.—

Fully ripe, his swelling fate *breaks out*,
And hurries him to mighty mischiefs on. *Dryden*.
All turn'd their sides, and to each other spoke;
I saw their words *break out* in fire and smoke.

Dryden.

Like a ball of fire, the further thrown,
Still with a greater blaze she shone,
And her bright soul *broke out* on ev'ry side. *Mist*.
—There can be no greater labour, than to be always dissembling; there being so many ways by which a smothered truth is apt to blaze, and *break out*. *South*.—They are men of concealed fire, that doth not *break out* in the ordinary circumstances of life. *Addison*.—A violent fever *broke out* in the place, which swept away great multitudes. *Addison*.
20. *To break out*. To have eruptions from the body, as pustules or sores. 21. *To break out*. To become dissolute.—He *broke not out* into his great excesses, while he was restrained by the councils and authority of Seneca. *Dryden*. 22. *To break up*. To cease; to intermit.—It is credibly affirmed, that, upon that very day when the river first riseth, great plagues in Cairo use suddenly to *break up*. *Bacon's Natural Hist.* 23. *To break up*. To dissolve itself.—These, and the like conceits, when men have cleared their understanding, by the light of experience, will scatter and *break up*, like mist. *Bacon*.—The speedy depredation of air upon watery moisture, and version of the same into air, appeareth in nothing more visible than the sudden discharge or vanishing of a little cloud of breath, or vapour, from glass, or any polished body; for the mistiness scattereth, and *breaketh up* suddenly. *Bacon*.—But, ere he came near it, the pillar and cross of light *brake up*, and cast itself abroad, as it were, into a firmament of many stars. *Bacon*.—What we obtain by conversation, is oftentimes lost again, as soon as the company *breaks up*, or, at least, when the day vanishes. *Watts*. 24. *To break up*. To begin holidays; to be dismissed from business.—

Our army is dispers'd already:

Like youthful steers unyok'd, they took their course

East, west, north, south: or, like a school *broke up*,
Each hurries tow'ards his home and sporting-

place. *Shakespeare*.

25. *To break with*. To part friendship with any.—

There is a slave whom we have put in prison,
Reports, the Volscians, with two several powers,
Are entered in the Roman territories.—

†. —Go see this rumourer whipt. It cannot be,
The Volscians dare *break with* us. *Shakespeare*.

—Can there be any thing of friendship in snares,
Hooks, and trapanes? Whosoever *breaks with* his
friend upon such terms, has enough to warrant
him in so doing, both before God and man. *South*.

Invent some apt pretence,

To *break with* Bertran. *Dryden*.

—It is observed of this extensive and per-

plexed verb, that in all its significations, whether *active* or *neutral*, it has some reference to its primitive meaning, by implying either detriment, suddenness, violence, or separation. It is used often with additional particles, *up*, *out*, *in*, *off*, *forth*, to modify its signification.

(3.) *To BREAK A HORSE*, among sportsmen, is to make him light upon the hand in trotting, in order to make him fit for a gallop. To break a horse for hunting; is to supple him, to make him take the habit of running.

(1.) * *BREAKER*. *n. f.* [from *break*.] 1. He that breaks any thing.—

Cardinal, I'll be no *breaker* of the law. *Shak.*
—If the churches were not employed to be places to hear God's law, there would be need of them, to be prisons for the *breakers* of the laws of men. *South*. 2. A wave broken by rocks or sand banks: a term of navigation.

(2.) *BREAKERS*, (§ 3. *def.* 2.) are distinguished both by their appearance and sound, as they cover that part of the sea with a perpetual foam, and produce a hoarse and terrible roaring, very different from what the waves usually have in a deeper bottom. When a ship is unhappily driven among breakers, it is hardly possible to save her, as every billow that heaves her upwards serves to dash her down with additional force when it breaks over the rocks or sands beneath it.

* *BREAKFAST*. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. The first meal in the day.—The duke was at *breakfast*, the last of his repasts in this world. *Wotton*. 2. The thing eaten at the first meal.—Hope is a good *breakfast*, but it is a bad supper. *Bacon*.—A good piece of bread would be often the best *breakfast* for my young master. *Locke*. 3. A meal, or food in general.—

Had I been seized by a hungry lion,
I would have been a *breakfast* to the beast.

Shakespeare.

I lay me down to gasp my latest breath,
The wolves will get a *breakfast* by my death,
Yet scarce enough their hunger to supply. *Dryden*.

* *To BREAKFAST*. *v. n.* [from *break* and *fast*.]
To eat the first meal in the day.—

As soon as Phœbus's rays inspect us,
First, Sir, I read, and then I *breakfast*. *Prior*.

(1.) *BREAKING*. See *BANKRUPT*.

(2.) *BREAKING BULK*, in sea language, means unlading part of the cargo.

* *BREAKNECK*. *n. f.* [from *break* and *neck*.]
A fall in which the neck is broken; a steep place endangering the neck.—

I must

For sake the court; to do't or no, is certain
To me a *breakneck*. *Shakespeare*.

* *BREAKPROMISE*. *n. f.* [from *break* and *promise*.] One that makes a practice of breaking his promise.—I will think you the most atheistical *breakpromise*, and the most hollow lover. *Shakespeare*.

(1.) *BREAKSPEAR*, a village in Middlesex, near Uxbridge.

(2.) *BREAKSPEAR*, Nicholas. See *ADRIAN IV*.

* *BREAKVOW*. *n. f.* [from *break* and *vow*.]
He that practiseth the breach of vows.—

That daily *breakvow*, he that wins of all,
Of kings, of beggars, old men, young men,
maids. *Shakespeare*.

BREAK.

BREAK-WATER, *n. f.* The hulk of an old vessel sunk at the entrance of a harbour to break the force of the sea. *A/b.*

(1.) **BREAM**, a village in Gloucestershire, in the parish of Newland.

(2.) * **BREAM**. *n. f.* [*brame*, Fr. *cyprinus latus*, Lat.] The name of a fish.—The *bream* being at full growth, is a large fish; he will breed both in rivers and ponds, but loves best to live in ponds. He is, by *Gesner*, taken to be more elegant than wholesome. He is long in growing, but breeds exceedingly in a water that pleases him, and in many ponds, so fast as to overstock them, and starve the other fish. He is very broad, with a forked tail, and his scales set in excellent order. He hath large eyes, and a narrow sucking mouth, two sets of teeth, and a lozing bone, to help his grinders. The male is observed to have two large melts, and the female two large bags of eggs or spawn. *Walton's Angler.*—

A broad *bream*, to please some curious taste,
While yet alive in boiling water cast,

Vex'd with unwonted heat, boils, flings about.
Waller.

(1.) **BREAM**, in ichthyology. See **CYPRINUS**.

To **BREAM**, *v. a.* to burn off the filth, such as grass, ooze, shells, or sea-weed, from a ship's bottom, that has gathered to it in a voyage, or by lying long in a harbour. It is performed by holding kindled furze, faggots, or the like, to the bottom, so that the flame incorporating with the pitch, sulphur, &c. that had formerly covered it, immediately loosens and throws off whatever filth may have adhered to the planks. After this, the bottom is covered anew with a composition of sulphur, tallow, &c. which not only makes it smooth and slippery, so as to divide the fluid more readily, but also poisons and destroys those worms which eat through the planks in the course of a voyage. *Breaming* may be performed either when the ship lies a ground after the tide has ebbed from her, or by docking, or by careening.

BREAMISH, a river in Northumberland.

BREARIDGE, a village in Northumberland, near Winchester.

BREARTON, two villages; 1. in Durham, S. W. of Hartlepool: 2. in Yorkshire, 4 miles N. of K: resborough.

(1.) * **BREAST**. *n. f.* [*breost*, Saxon.] 1. The middle part of the human body, between the neck and the belly.—

No, traytress, angry Love replies,
She's hid somewhere about thy *breast*,

A place nor God nor man denies,

For Venus' dove the proper nest. *Prior.*

2. The dugs or teats of women which contain the milk.—They pluck the fatherless from the *breast*. *Job*, xxiv. 9. 3. *Breast* was anciently taken for the power of fingering.—

The better *breast*,

The lesser rest.

Tuffer of Singing Boys.

4. The part of a beast that is under the neck, between the forelegs. 5. The disposition of the mind.—

I not by wants, or fears, or age oppress'd,

Stem the wild torrent with a dauntless *breast*.

Dryden.

6. The heart; the conscience.—

Needless was written law, where none oppress'd;
The law of man was written in his *breast*.

Dryden's Ovid.

7. The seat of the passions.—

Margarita first possess'd,

If I remember well, my *breast* *Cowley.*

Each in his *breast* the secret sorrow kept,

And thought it safe to laugh, tho' Cæsar wept.

Rowe.

(2.) **BREAST**, in anatomy, the fore parts of the thorax. See **ANATOMY**, § 336.

(3.) **BREASTS**, **MAMMÆ**, in anatomy. See **ANATOMY**, **INDEX**. The breasts are usually two; though we also meet with instances of *trimammie*, or women with 3 breasts, and even some with 4, all yielding milk alike. See *Barthol. A&M. Med.* p. 171. *Cast. Lex. Med.* p. 728. *Cabrol. Observ.* 7. *Blas. Com. ad Vesling.* p. 233.

(4.) **BREAST**, **SMITING THE**, is an expression of penitence. In the Romish church, the priest beats his breast in rehearsing the general confession at the beginning of the mass.

* To **BREAST**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To meet in front; to oppose breast to breast.—

The threaden sails

Draw the huge bottoms thro' the furrow'd sea,
Breasting the lofty surge. *Shakesp. Henry V.*

The hardy Swifs

Breasts the keen air, and carols, as he goes.

Goldsmith.

(1.) * **BREASTBONE**. *n. f.* [from *breast* and *bone*.] The bone of the breast; the sternum.—The belly shall be eminent by shadowing the flank, and under the *breastbone*. *Peacham.*

(2.) **BREASTBONE**. See **ANATOMY**, § 144.

* **BREASTCASKET**. *n. f.* [from *breast* and *casket*.] With mariners. The largest and longest caskets, which are a sort of strings placed in the middle of the yard.

* **BREASTFAST**. *n. f.* [from *breast* and *fast*. In a ship.] A rope fastened to some part of her forward on, to hold head to a warp, or the like. *Harris.*

* **BREASTHIGH**. *adj.* [from *breast* and *high*.] Up to the breast.—The river itself gave way unto her, so that she was straight *breasthigh*. *Sidney.*—

Lay madam Partlet basking in the sun,

Breasthigh in sand.

Dryden's Fables.

(1.) * **BREASTHOOKS**. *n. f.* [from *breast* and *hook*.] With shipwrights.—The compassing timbers before, that help to strengthen the stem, and all the forepart of the ship. *Harris.*

(2.) **BREAST-HOOKS**, in ship-building, are thick pieces of timber incurvated into the form of knees. They are placed at different heights directly across the stem, so as to unite it with the bows on each side. The *breast-hooks* are strongly connected to the stem and hawse-pieces by tree-nails, and by bolts driven from without through the planks and hawse-pieces, and the whole thickness of the *breast-hooks*, upon whose inside those bolts are forelocked or clinched upon rings. They are usually about $\frac{1}{4}$ thicker, and twice as long, as the knees of the decks they support.

* **BREASTKNOT**. *n. f.* [from *breast* and *knot*.] A knot or bunch of ribbands worn by women on the breast.—Our ladies have still faces, and our men hearts, why may we not hope for th

achievements from the influence of this *breast-knot*. *Addison's Freeholder*.

BREAST-PAIN, called by the Italians *grandezza di petto*, is a distemper in horses proceeding from superfluity of blood and other gross humours, which being dissolved by some extreme and disorderly heat, resort downward to the *breast*, and pain them extremely. The signs of the breast-pain are, a stiff, staggering, and weak going with his fore-legs, besides, that he can hardly, if at all, bow his head to the ground.

(1.) * **BREASTPLATE**. *n. f.* [from *breast* and *plate*.] Armour for the breast.—

What stronger *breastplate* than a heart untainted?

Thrice is he arm'd, that hath his quarrel just.

Shakespeare,

'Gainst shield, helm, *breastplate*, and, instead of those,

Five sharp smooth stones from the next brook he chose

Cowley,

—This venerable champion will come into the field, armed only with a pocket-pistol, before his old rusty *breastplate* could be scoured, and his cracked headpiece mended. *Swift*.

(2.) **BREAST-PLATE**, in Jewish antiquity, a part of the sacerdotal vestments anciently worn by the high priests. It was a folded piece of the same rich embroidered stuff of which the *ephod* was made; and it was set with 12 precious stones, on each of which was engraven the name of one of the tribes. They were set in 4 rows, 3 in each row; and were divided from each other by the little golden squares or partitions in which they were set. See *Plate XLVI. fig. 8*. This breastplate was fastened at the 4 corners; those on the top to each shoulder by a golden hook or ring at the end of a wreathed chain; and those below, to the girdle of the *ephod*, by two strings or ribbons, which had likewise two rings and hooks. This ornament was never to be severed from the priestly garment; and it was called the *memorial*, to put the high-priest in mind how dear those tribes ought to be to him, whose names he wore on his breast. It is also called the *breast plate of judgment*, because it had the divine oracle of *Urim and Thummim* annexed to it. See **URIM AND THUMMIN**.

(3.) **BREAST-PLATE**, in the manege, the strap of leather that runs from one side of the saddle to the other, over the horse's breast, in order to keep the saddle tight, and hinder it from sliding backwards.

(4.) **BREAST-PLATES**, for armour, (§ 1.) are said to have been originally made of hides, or hemp twisted into small cords, but afterwards of brass, iron, or other metals; which were sometimes so exquisitely hardened, as to be proof against the greatest force.

* **BREASTPLOUGH**. *n. f.* [from *breast* and *plough*.] A plough used for paring turf, driven by the breast.—The *breastplough* which a man shoves before him. *Martinet*.

* **BREASTROPE**. *n. f.* [from *breast* and *rope*.] a ship. Those ropes which fasten the yards to the parrels, and, with the parrels, hold the yards to the mast. *Harris*.

(1.) * **BREASTWORK**. *n. f.* [from *breast* and *work*.] Works thrown up as high as the breast of

the defendants; the same with *parapet*.—Sir John Astley cast up *breastworks*, and made a redoubt for the defence of his men. *Clarendon*.

(2.) **BREAST-WORK OF A SHIP**, a sort of ballast trade or fence composed of rails or mouldings and often decorated with sculpture; it terminates the quarter-deck and poop at the fore-ends, and incloses the fore-castle both before and behind.

(1.) * **BREATH**. *n. f.* [*bratbe*, Sax.] 1. The air drawn in and ejected out of the body by living animals.—

Whither are they vanquish'd?

Into the air: and what seem'd corporal

Melted, as *breath* into the wind. *Shakeff. Macb.*

2. Life.—

No man has more contempt than I of *breath*
But whence hast thou the pow'r to give me death?

Dryden

3. The state or power of breathing freely; opposed to the condition in which a man is breathless and spent.—

At other times, he casts to sue the chace
Of swift wild beasts, or run on foot a race,
T' enlarge his *breath*, large breath in arms more needful,

Or else, by wrestling, to wax strong and hee ful.

Spenser

What is your difference? speak.—

—I am scarce in *breath*, my lord. *Shak. K. Lear*

Spaniard, take *breath*; some respite I'll afford
My cause is more advantage than your sword.

Dryden

Our swords so wholly did the fates employ,
That they, at length, grew weary to destroy;
Refus'd the work we brought, and, out of *breath*,
Made sorrow and despair attend for death.

Dryden's Aureng

4. Respite; pause; relaxation.—

Give me some *breath*, some little pause, dear lord,

Before I positively speak. *Shakeff. Richard III.*

5. Breeze; moving air.—

Vent all thy passion, and I'll stand its shock,
Calm and unruffled as a summer's sea,
When not a *breath* of wind flies o'er its surface.

Addison's Cato.

6. A single act; an instant.—

You menace me, and court me in a *breath*,
Your Cupid looks as dreadfully as death. *Dryd.*

(2.) **BREATH, THE LAST**. The ancients were very watchful over the last breath of dying persons, which the nearest relations, as the mother, father, brother, or the like, received in their mouths.

* **BREATHABLE**. *adj.* [from *breath*.] That may be breathed; as, *breathable air*.

(1.) * **To BREATHE**. *v. a.* 1. To inspire, or inhale into one's own body, and eject or expire out of it.—

They wish to live,

Their pains and poverty desire to bear,

To view the light of heav'n, and *breathe* the vital air.

Dryden.

—They here began to *breathe* a most delicious kind of æther, and saw all the fields about them covered with a kind of purple light. *Tatler*.

2. To inject by breathing: with *into*.—He *breathed into us the breath of life*, a vital active spirit; whole

whole motion, he expects, *should* own the dignity of its original. *Dryden of Pers.*—

I would be young, he *lamented*, he *behoov'd*,
Could I but *avert* *invict* into *Astrakhan*. *Dryden*.

3. To expire; to eject by breathing: with out—
He is called, by ancient authors, the tenth muse;
and, by Plutarch, is compared to Cacus, the son
of Vulcan, who *eructed* out nothing but flame.

4. To exert: to keep in breath.—

Thy greyhounds are as swift as *breathless* stage.
Shakespeare.

5. To inspire; to move or animate by breath.—

The artful youth proceed to form the quire;
They *breath* the flute, or strike the vocal wire.

Prior,

6. To exhale; to send out as breath.—

His altar *breathes*
Ambrosial odours, and ambrosial flow'rs.

Milton's Paradise Lost.

7. To utter privately.—

I have tow'rd heav'n *breath'd* a secret vow,
To live in pray'r and contemplation.

Shakespeare's Merchant of Venice,

8. To give air or vent to.—

The ready cure to cool the raging pain,
Is underneath the foot to *breath* a vein.

Dryden's Virgil.

(2.) * To BREATHE. v. a. [from *breath*.] 1. To

draw in and throw out the air by the lungs; to

live and expire.—

He safe return'd, the grace of glory past,
New to his friends embrace, had *breath'd* his last.

Pope,

2. To live.—

Let him *breath*, between the heav'n and earth,
A private man in Athens. *Shak. Ant. and Cleop.*

3. To take breath; to rest.—He presently follow'd
the victory so hot upon the Scots, that he suffered

them not to *breath*, or gather themselves together again. *Spenser's State of Ireland.*—

Three times they *breath'd*, and three times
did they drink,

Upon agreement. *Shakespeare's Henry IV.*

Rest, that gives all men life, gave him his death,
And too much *breathing* put him out of breath.

Milton.

When France had *breath'd*, after intestine
broils,

And peace and conquest crown'd her foreign
toils.

Roscommon.

4. To pass as air.—

Shall I not then be stifled in the vault,
To whose foul mouth no healthsome air *breathes*

in,
And there be strangl'd ere my Romeo comes?

Shakespeare.

* BREATHER. n. s. [from *breath*.] 1. One

that breathes, or lives.—

She shows a body rather than a life,
A statue than a *breather*. *Shak. Ant. and Cleop.*

—I will chide no *breather* in the world but myself.

Shakespeare. 2. One that utters any thing.—

No particular scandal once can touch,
But it confounds the *breather*. *Sh. Meas. for Meas.*

3. Inspirer; one that animates or infuses by inspiration.—

The *breather* of all life does now expire:
His milder father summons him away. *Norris.*

(1.) * BREATHING. n. s. [from *breath*.] 1. Aspiration; secret prayer.—

While to high heav'n his pious *breathings* turn'd,
Weeping he hop'd, and sacrificing mourn'd.

Prior.

2. Breathing place; vent.—

The warmth distends the chinks, and makes
New *breathings*, whence new nourishment the

takes. *Dryden.*

(2.) BREATHING, DIFFICULTY OF. See DYSPNOEA.

* BREATHLESS. adj. [from *breath*.] 1. Out

of breath; spent with labour.—

Well knew
The prince, with patience and sufferance dy,
So hasty heat soon cooled to subdue;

Tho' when he *breathless* wax, that battle 'gan
renew. *Fairy Queen.*

I remember, when the fight was done,
When I was dry with rage, and extreme toil,

Breathless, and faint, leaning upon my sword,
Came there a certain lord. *Shakespeare's Henry IV.*

—Many so strained themselves in their race, that
they fell down *breathless* and dead. *Hayward.*—

Breathless, and tir'd, is all my fury spent?
Or does my glutton spleen at length relent?

Dryden's Æneid.

2. Dead —

Kneeling before this ruin of sweet life,
And breathing to this *breathless* excellence,

The incense of a vow, a holy vow. *Shak. K. John.*

Yielding to the sentence, *breathless* thou
And pale shalt lie, as what thou buriest now.

Prior.

BREBAG, or } a hill of Scotland, in

BREBAGTARSKIN, } Sutherlandshire.

BREBEUF, George de, a French poet born

at Torigna, in 1618. He was chiefly distinguish-

ed by a translation of Lucan, which though a-

bounding in bombast and false brilliances, was

long admired; and procured great promises of

advancement to the author, from Cardinal Ma-

zarine, who died, however, without fulfilling

them. But the best of his works, is the 1st book

of *Lucan Translated*, which is an ingenious satire

upon the Great, whom he describes as never lo-

sing sight for a moment of their rank and dignity,

and upon the meanness and servility of those who

submit to flatter them as gods. He is said to have

had a fever that lasted above 20 years. He died

in 1661, aged 43.

BREBINCE, or BOURBINCE, a river of France,

which issues from the lake Longpendu, in the ci-

devant province of Burgundy.

BRECCA, n. s. in old records, a breach.

(1.) BRECHIN, a parish of Scotland, in For-

farshire, extending about 7½ m. from E. to W. in

length, and nearly as much in breadth from N.

to S. It rises gradually on each side of the S. Esk,

which sometimes overflows the low ground; and

the S. side of that river, W. from the bridge, is

ornamented with a large plantation of trees. The

ground on both sides is rocky, and abounds in

free-stone. The climate is dry and in general

healthy. The population is doubled within these

100 years. By the rev. Mr Bruce's report to Sir

J. Sinclair, it was about 5000 in 1791; which

was

was 1819 above that of 1755. A considerable quantity of oats and barley is exported, and meal is sometimes imported by Messrs Gillies and Co. whose spirited exertions have been of great benefit to the town, (See N. 2.) and parish.

(2.) BRECHIN, a town in the above parish (N. 1.) seated on the declivity of a hill; whence the name is probably derived, *brae* in the Scots dialect signifying a declivity; though others derive it from the Gaelic word *braerhin*, fern. It consists of one large handsome street and two smaller. At the foot of the town is a long row of houses independent of it, built on ground held in feu from the Northesk family. Brechin was a rich bishopric founded by David I. about A. D. 1150. At the Reformation, its revenues, in money and in kind, amounted to 700 l. a-year; but were reduced to 130 l. chiefly by the alienation of lands and tythes by Alexander Campbell, the first Protestant bishop, to his chieftain the earl of Argyll. The Culdees had a convent here: Their abbot Leod was witness to the grant made by king David to his new abbey of Dunfermline. In after times, they gave way to the Mathurines or Red Friars. Here was likewise an hospital called *Maison de Dieu*, founded in 1256, by William de Brechin, for the repose of the souls of the kings William and Alexander; of John earl of Chester, and his brother Huntingdon; of Henry his father, and Juliana his mother. Abbotus, bishop of Brechin, in the reign of Alexander II. was witness to the grant. By the walls which are yet standing, behind the W. end of the chief street, it appears to have been an elegant little building. The cathedral is a Gothic pile, supported by 12 pillars; is in length 166 feet, in breadth 61: part is ruinous, and part serves as the parish church. The W. end of one of the aisles is entire: its door is Gothic, and the arch consists of many mouldings; the window of it is neat tracery. The steeple is a handsome tower, 120 feet high; the 4 lower windows in form of long narrow openings; the belfry windows adorned with that species of opening called the *quatrefoil*; the top battlemented; out of which rises a handsome spire. At a small distance from the aisle stands one of those singular round towers whose use has so long baffled the conjectures of antiquaries. These towers appear to have been peculiar to North Britain and Ireland: in the latter they are common; in the former very few now exist. That at Brechin stood originally detached from other buildings. It is at present joined near the bottom by a low additional aisle to the church, which takes in about a sixth of its circumference. From this aisle there is an entrance into it of modern date, approachable by a few steps, for the use of the ringers; two handsome bells are placed in it, which are got at by means of six ladders placed on wooden semicircular floors, each resting on the circular abutments within side of the tower. The height from the ground to the roof is 80 feet; the inner diameter, within a few feet of the bottom, is 8 feet; the thickness of the wall at that part, 7 feet 4 inches; so that the whole diameter is 15 feet 2 inches; the circumference very near 48 feet; the inner diameter at top is 8 feet 7 inches; the thickness of the walls 4 feet 6 inches; the circumfe-

rence, 38 feet 8 inches: which proportion gives the building an inexpressible elegance: the top is roofed with an octagonal spire 23 feet high, which makes the whole 103. In this spire are 4 windows placed alternate on the sides, resting on the top of the tower; near the top of the tower are four others facing the 4 cardinal points: near the bottom are two arches one within another, in relief; on the top of the utmost is a crucifixion: between the mouldings of the utmost and inner are 2 figures one of the virgin Mary; the other of St John, the cup, and lamb. On each corner of the bottom of this arch is a figure of certain beasts; one possibly the Caledonian bear; and the other with a long snout, the boar. The stone work within the inner arch has a small slit or peep hole, but without the appearance of there having been a door within any modern period: yet there might have been one originally; for the filling up consists of larger stones than the rest of this curious rotund. The whole is built with the most elegant masonry, which Mr Gough observed to be composed of 60 courses.—This tower hath often been observed to vibrate with a high wind. The castle of Brechin was built on an eminence, a little S. of the town; it underwent a long siege in 1303; was gallantly defended against the English under Edward III.; and, notwithstanding all the efforts of that potent prince, the brave governor Sir Thomas Maule, ancestor of the present Mr Maule of Panmure, held out this small fortress for 20 days, till he was slain by a stone cast from an engine on the 20th of August, when the place was instantly surrendered. The family of Panmure have now a noble house on the side of the old castle.—Brechin is also remarkable for a battle fought near it, in consequence of the rebellion raised in 1452, on account of the murder of the earl of Douglas in Stirling castle. The victory fell to the royalists under the earl of Huntly. The malecontents were headed by the earl of Crawford, who, retiring to his castle of Finhaven, in the frenzy of disgrace declared, that he would willingly pass 7 years in hell, to obtain the glory that fell to the share of his antagonist. Brechin is a royal borough, and with 4 others sends a member to parliament. It lies about 8 miles from the harbour of Montrose; and the tide flows within two miles of the town; to which a canal might be made, which would be of great service in conveying down the corn of the country for exportation. Most of the merchants deal in linen and yarn, of which great quantities are sold every market day. This trade gives employment to great numbers of women, who all spin with two-handed wheels. Brechin has also a bleachfield, and a considerable tannery; besides strong ale and porter breweries, which furnish excellent liquor. It is 64 m. N. E. from Edinburgh. Lon. 2. 18. E. Lat. 56. 40. N.

BRECHINIA, the ancient name of BRACKNOCK-SHIRE.

BRECKE, *n. f.* a breach; a gap. *Chauc.*

BRECKENHAUGH, a place in Ayr-shire, in the parish of Dunlop, "one of the finest natural objects, (says Mr Brisbane the minister) to be met with;—for, walking upon level ground, which seems to be of considerable extent in all directions, we come, without expecting it, to the top of the hill,

hill, where we are struck with the greatness of the height and the grandeur of the valley below. In this situation we feel every thing which the magnificent can inspire; not without a wish to retire from it with all convenient speed." *Stat. Acc.*

BRECKNOCK, or **BRECON**, a large town of S. Wales, and capital of Brecknockshire. It is called by the Welch *Aber-Honday*, and is seated at the confluence of the Honday and the Usk, over which there is a handsome stone bridge. It is an ancient place, containing 3 churches, one of which is collegiate, and is seated at the W. end of the town. The houses are well built. It had formerly a stately castle, and a strong wall, through which there were 3 gates, that are all demolished. It sends one member to parliament. It is well inhabited, and has a considerable woollen manufactory. The markets are well supplied with cattle, corn, and provisions. It is 34 m. N. W. by W. of Monmouth, and 162 W. by N. of London. Lon. 3. 22. W. Lat 51. 54. N.

BRECKNOCK MEER, a large lake 2 m. E. of Brecknock, called by the Welch *Llyn Savaddan*. It is 3 miles in length, and nearly the same in breadth. It contains plenty of otters, tench, perch, and eels.

BRECKNOCKSHIRE, a county of Wales, bounded by Radnorshire, on the N.; Cardigan-shire and Caermarthenshire, on the W.; Herefordshire and Monmouthshire on the E.; and by Glamorganshire and Monmouthshire, on the S. It is 39 miles long, 27 broad, and about 100 in circumference; containing 600,000 acres, and 20,000 inhabitants. It is surrounded with hills, which renders the air in the valleys pretty temperate. The soil on the hills is very stony, but the streams descending from thence into the valleys render them fruitful both in corn and grass. The chief commodities are corn, cattle, fish, and otters; there are also manufactures of cloth and stockings. The principle rivers are the Usk, the Wye, and the Yrcon. The chief towns are Brecknock, Bealt, and Hay. This county sends a member to parliament. It is in the diocese of Landaff; contains 61 parishes, and 4 market towns; and is divided into six hundreds.

BRECON. See **BRECKNOCK**.

* **BRED**. *particip. pass.* [from *To breed*.] Their nature was bred in them, and their cogitation need never be changed. *Wisdom*, xii. 10.

1. **BREDA**, a city of Holland, the capital of Dutch Brabant. It is a large, populous, well built city, regularly fortified in the modern way, and is one of the strongest places on the Dutch frontiers. It is seated on the river Merck, in a marshy country, which may be overflowed and rendered inaccessible to an army. It is 4000 paces in circumference, and contains upwards of 2000 houses. The town is of a triangular figure, and the ramparts are all planted round with elms.—At every angle there is a gate built with brick. The great church is a noble structure, and has a steeple 362 feet high. The mausoleum of August II. count of Nassau, is a curious piece adorned with several statues and inscriptions. In 1717, the garrison delivered this city to the States General; but it was retaken in 1781 by Cloude de Barlaumont, assisted by the baron de Fresin,

who was prisoner in it. In 1590, prince Maurice took it again from the Spaniards. In 1625 it was invested by the Marquis of Spinola; when it endured a siege, so extraordinary, that it is worthy of a particular detail. The citadel was surrounded by a ditch of prodigious depth filled with water, and a strong wall defended by 3 great bastions. The arsenal was extensive and contained vast quantities of arms and military stores. Spinola, acquainted with its strength, resolved to reduce it by famine, as attended with least danger to his army; and accordingly began with drawing trenches round, for the space of 4 miles, and erecting forts and redoubts at certain distances.—On the other hand, the garrison, consisting of 7000 infantry, and several troops of horse, composed of English, French, and Dutch soldiers, took the most vigorous measures for their defence. The English were under the command of Col. Morgan; who had distinguished his valour in the service of the states: the French were directed by Col. de Hauteville; and the troops were under Col. Lohre; though the whole received their instructions from Justin de Nassau, the governor. The first advantage was gained by Baglioni, who seized a large convoy of provisions and stores coming up the river. This loss reduced the besieged to a stated allowance of bread; and was followed by the death of Prince Maurice, from whom they were in hopes of relief. Meanwhile Spinola prosecuted the siege with the utmost vigour. On his pushing his trenches near the bastions, the besieged began a terrible fire, and kept it up with such vehemence, that Spinola hoped they must soon surrender for want of ammunition. But here he formed a false judgment. Justin, finding he could not accomplish his purpose by firing, resolved to try the effect of water. With this view, he stopped up the course of the river Merck; and having formed a large basin of water, opened the sluices, overflowed the whole country, and swept away men, horses, and houses, in one torrent. Its chief force fell upon Spinola's quarters, and he exerted his utmost ability to counteract its effects. He dug large pits, and cut out ditches to receive the water; but these being filled, and the whole ground covered over, so as to appear one uniform mass of water, served only to entrap his cavalry. The inundation was augmented by the rains; a mortality among his soldiers and horses ensued; and of his whole army, he had scarce 12,000 men fit for service by December. With this small body lines of vast extent were to be defended, the works to be advanced, the sallies from the garrison repulsed, and provisions to be conveyed into the camp, while Spinola himself was confined to a sick bed. In the garrison an epidemical disease and scarcity likewise prevailed; but the excellent regulations made, and strictly observed, enabled the town to hold out 3 or 4 months beyond the time expected. The magistrates bought the corn for the bakers; obliging them to sell the bread to the inhabitants and garrison at a price affixed. Various other prudent regulations were established, scarce equalled in history, all evincing the steadiness, sagacity, courage, and ability, of Justin de Nassau. A kind of rivalry appeared between him and Spinola, who

who should best fulfil his duty. The Spanish general caused himself to be carried about the works in a litter; he inspected and directed every thing; and displayed the activity of full health, when his life was in imminent danger. He ordered several breaches in the lines to be repaired, which the Hollanders had made by sap, to introduce succours to the besieged. He drove piles into all the ditches and canals through which their boats could pass. He made drains to clear off the waters of the river Merck; and succeeded in a great measure by dint of perseverance. He was now reinforced with a body of 8000 foot, and 1500 horse; many of the sick were perfectly recovered by his care; and his army was again become formidable, amounting to twenty five thousand infantry, and eight thousand cavalry. Nor was prince Henry idle, who had now succeeded his brother Maurice, and was elected governor of the States. He was joined by a body of French cavalry under the count de Rouffi and the marquis de Rambures. With this reinforcement, and a body of German infantry, he attacked the enemy's line, but after an obstinate conflict was repulsed. He advanced a 2d time, but Spinola seized upon a convenient post, and obliged the prince again to retire to Bois-le-duc. Henry finding he could not relieve the garrison, sent permission to the governor to surrender on the best conditions he could obtain. This was signed with no name. It fell into the hands of the besiegers, and Spinola sent it open, by a trumpet, to Justin de Nassau, offering him an honourable capitulation; but that intrepid governor suspecting the letter was forged, replied civilly, that a *permission* was not an *order*; that he should better follow the prince of Orange's intention, and show his respect for Spinola, by continuing to defend the city to the last extremity. By this time the garrison was diminished by disease, fatigue, want, and hardship, to half the original number; but Justin put on such a countenance, as concealed his situation from Spinola. He frequently sallied out upon Baglioni's quarters, where the Italians were perishing with cold and hunger, the whole subsistence of the besiegers depending on the contributions raised in the neighbouring territories. This produced a mutiny in the camp, that could not be appeased without executing the chief ringleaders in sight of the whole army. One of the mutineers blew up Spinola's chief magazine, valued at 200.000 livres. Urged more by necessity than compassion, Spinola sent a message to the governor, exhorting him not to force him to extremities, which might be attended with fatal consequences to a brave garrison; but Justin with equal art, answered, that Spinola was certainly ill served by his spies, as he appeared wholly unacquainted with the state of affairs in Breda, which was fully provided for a siege of several months, and defended by soldiers who prefer death to surrendering. At that time the besieged were not informed of the death of the prince of Orange. They flattered themselves with the hopes of speedy succour, and were entirely ignorant of prince Henry's late disappointment. When they wrote to the army an account of their miserable condition, Henry returned an answer, written and signed with his own hand, apprising them of

the death of Maurice, the unsuccessful attempts made to raise the siege and throw in succours, the great inferiority of his troops in point of numbers, and the death of king James, whereby he was disappointed of a strong reinforcement; concluding, that he left the city entirely to the discretion of the governor and other principal officers. Justin was thunderstruck with this letter. He had hitherto concealed the total want of provision and ammunition from all but a few officers, in whom he could confide. Hauterive and Morgan would listen to no propositions, saying that the honour of their several countries were concerned. They therefore required an express order from the prince of Orange to surrender, notwithstanding they pined under the united pressure of fatigue, scarcity, and disease. Justin acquainted the prince with their resolution, and he sent back an order to surrender, threatening with capital punishment all who should disobey; but he requested that the garrison would first acquaint him, by a certain number of fires, lighted up in different parts of the city, how many days they should be able to hold out. Upon receipt of this order, eleven fires were kindled; but as the prince had sent a duplicate of his order by another messenger, and this fell into the hands of the enemy, Spinola was now acquainted with the desperate circumstances of the besieged, as well as with the mystery of the 11 fires. He called a council of war to deliberate whether they should stay the 11 days, and then oblige the garrison to surrender at discretion, or immediately offer conditions worthy of so brave a garrison. The Spanish officers were of the former opinion; the count de Berg and Spinola supported the latter. At last the marquis, determined to pursue the dictates of his own generosity, sent such terms as could not be refused. The count de Berg conducted the negotiation. Two separate capitulations were drawn up, one for the garrison and the other for the city, and both the most honourable and advantageous that could be devised. They were accepted, and the garrison marched out on the 6th of June, after having sustained a siege for ten months, whereby they were diminished two thirds; nor was the loss inferior on the part of the inhabitants. Spinola drew up his army to salute them, and, surrounded by his field officers, paid particular compliments to the governor, the colonels Morgan, Hauterive, and Lohre. He distributed money among the soldiers, ordered the sick and wounded to be treated with the utmost tenderness, conveyed the rest to Gertruydenburgh, and displayed all the sentiments of a true hero, in the regard he paid to the valour and merit of his enemies. Breda was retaken by the prince of Orange, in 1657. In 1667, a congress was held in it, and peace concluded between the Dutch and English. In Feb. 1793, it was surrendered to the French republican army, by count Byland, after a siege of only 3 days. It was retaken soon after. It lies 22 m. W. by S. of Bois-le-duc; 22 N. E. of Bergen-op-zoom; 25 N. N. E. of Antwerp; and 60 S. of Amsterdam. Lon. 4. 50. E. Lat. 51. 35. N.

(2.) BREDA, Alexander VAN, an eminent painter, of Antwerp, much esteemed for his landscapes, fair views of particular scenes in Italy, and varieties of animals and figures.

(3.) BREDA,

(3.) **BREDA**, John VAN, the son of Alexander, (N^o 1,) was born at Antwerp, in 1683. Having the advantage of the good example and directions of his father, he continued with him till he was 18 years of age. Among the various capital paintings, then in the possession of John De Wit, at Antwerp, Breda fixed upon those of Velvet Breugel, which he copied with extraordinary success; and he was also employed for 9 years in copying the pictures of several other great masters; which he performed with such incredible exactness as scarcely to leave it in the power of any person to distinguish the originals from the copies. After this he went to London with Rysbrack the sculptor, where he rose into such esteem, that he was employed by the court and the nobility; and could scarce execute the demand for his performances. After residing some years in England, he returned to Antwerp loaded with riches, the honourable testimonies of English liberality, as well as of his own merit. In 1746, Louis XV. arriving in that city, purchased 4 of his pictures, viz. two scriptural pieces, and two landscapes, exquisitely imitated from Breugel, and his conversations, historical figures, fairs, skirmishes, and battles, in the manner of Wouvermans. He had as much fire in his composition, and perhaps more genius than Breugel; his figures are generally well placed, his ground skilfully broken; every small figure hath its particular character, and occupies its proper place. In short, he is a painter of such a rank, that the value of his works must always increase. He died in 1750.

(4.) **BREDA PARVA**, a village in Dorsetshire, N. of Abbotsbury.

BREDAGH, a village of Ireland, in Down.

BREDBURY, in Cheshire, E. of Stockport.

(1.) * **BREDE**. *n. f.* See **BRAID**—In a curious *b-red* of needlework, one colour falls away by such just degrees, and another rises so insensibly, that we see the variety without being able to distinguish the total vanishing of the one, from the first appearance of the other. *Addison*.

(2.) **BREDE**. *n. f. obs.* bread; breadth. *Cbauc.*

To BREDE. *v. n. obs.* to make broad.

BREDELEY, a village in Staffordshire.

BREDERALE HEAD, and } Two villages in
BREDERALE FOOT, } Westmoreland,
near Orton.

BREDEWITE, in ancient law writers, an amendment arising from some default in the assize of bread.

BREDGAR, a town near Sittingburn, Kent.

BREDICOT, a village near Worcester.

BREDLESFORD, in Isle of Wight Hampshire.

(1.) **BREDON**, at the foot of the hills, (N^o 2.)

(2.) **BREDON HILLS**, in Worcestershire.

BREDWARDEN, a village in Herefordshire, 2 miles W. of Mock.

To BREE, *v. a. obs.* to frighten. *Cbauc.*

* **BREECH**. *n. f.* [supposed from *bracan*, Sax.]

1. The lower part of the body; the back part.—When the king's pardon was offered by a herald, a lewd boy turned towards him his naked *b-eech*, and used words suitable to that gesture. *Hayward*.—The storks devour snakes and other serpents; which when they begin to creep out at their

breeches, they will presently clap them close to a wall, to keep them in. *Grew's Museum*. 2. *Breeches*.—

Ah! that thy father had been so resolv'd?—That thou might still have worn the petticoat,

And ne'er had stol'n the *breech* from Lancaster.

Shakepeare.

3. The hinder part of a piece of ordnance.—

So cannons, when they mount vast pitches,
Are tumbl'd back upon their *breeches*. *Anonym.*

* *To BREECH*. *v. a.* [from the noun] 1. To put into breeches 2. To fit any thing with a breech; as, to *breech* a gun.

(1.) * **BREECHES**. *n. f.* [*brac*, Sax. from *bracca*, an old Gaulish word; so that *Skinner* imagines the name of the part covered with *breeches*, to be derived from that of the garment. In this sense it has no *singular*.] 1. The garment worn by men over the lower part of the body.—Petruchio is coming in a new hat and an old jerkin, and a pair of old *breeches*, thrice turned *Shut-f. Turn. of the Screw*.

Rough satires fly remarks, ill-natur'd speeches,
Are always aim'd at poets that wear *breeches*.

Prior

Give him a single coat to make, he'd do't;
A vest or *breeches*, singly; but the brute,
Cou'd ne'er contrive all three to make a suit.

King

2. To wear the *breeches*, is, to usurp the authority of the husband—The wife of Xanthus was domineering, as if her fortune and her extraction, had entitled her to the *breeches*. *L'Estrange*.

(2.) "BREECHES" (says Mr Chambers,) "appear to be a habit peculiar to the barbarous nations; especially those who inhabit the colder countries of the North, whence Tacitus calls them *barbarum tegmen*." He should, however, have excepted the Scots Highlanders. The ancient Romans, indeed, had nothing in their dress answering to our modern breeches and stockings. Instead of them, under their lower tunics and waistcoats they sometimes bound their thighs and legs round with filken scarves or fasciæ, called *tibiaia* and *femoralia*. We find mention made of breeches among the ancient Getæ, Sarmatæ, Gauls, Germans, and Britons; they also obtained among the Medes and Persians, being of Scythian origin. They afterwards got footing in Italy, some pretend as early as the time of Augustus; but that emperor's breeches, mentioned by Suetonius, were only swaths tied over his thighs. Breeches, however, were at last received into Italy, and grew so highly in fashion, that it was thought necessary, under Honorius and Arcadius, to restrain them by law, and expel the *braccarii* or breeches-makers out of the city; it being thought unworthy of a nation that commanded the world to wear the apparel of barbarians.

BREECHINGS, in the sea language, the ropes with which the great guns are lashed to the ship's side; so called, because made to pass round the breech of the gun.

(1.) * **BREED**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. A cast; a kind; a subdivision of species.—

I bring you witnesses,

Twice fifteen thousand hearts of England's
breed.

Shakespeare.

—The

—The horses were young and handsome, and of the best *breed* in the north. *Shakesp. Henry VIII.*
 —Walled towns, stored arsenals, and ordnance; all this is but a sheep in a lion's skin, except the *breed* and disposition of the people be stout and warlike. *Bacon's Essays.*—

Infectious streams of crowding sins began,
 And through the spurious *breed* and guilty nation ran. *Roscommon.*

Rode fair Ascanius on a fiery steed,
 Queen Dido's gift, and of the Tyrian *breed*. *Dryden.*

2. A family generation; in contempt.—A cousin of his last wife's was proposed; but John would have no more of the *breed*. *Arbutnot's History of J. Bull.* 3. Progeny; offspring.—

If thou wilt lend this money, lend it not
 As to thy friend; for when did friendship take
 A *breed* of barren metal of his friend? *Shakesp. Merchant of Venice.*

4. A number produced at once; a hatch.—She lays them in the sand, where they lie till they are hatched; sometimes above an hundred at a *breed*. *Grew.*

(2.) BREED, in geography, a village in Sussex, NW. of Winchelsea.

(1.) * To BREED. v. a. preter. I bred, I have bred. [*bradan*, Sax.] 1. To procreate; to generate; to produce more of the species.—

None fiercer in Numidia bred,

With Carthage were in triumph led. *Roscommon.*

2. To produce from one's self.—Children would breed their teeth with less danger. *Locke.* 3. To occasion; to cause: to produce.—

Thereat he roared for exceeding pain,

That, to have heard, great horror would have bred. *Fairy Queen.*

—Our own hearts we know, but we are not certain what hope the rites and orders of our church have bred in the heart of others. *Hooker.*—What hurt ill company, and overmuch liberty, breedeth in youth! *Ascham's Schoolmaster.*—Intemperance and lust breed infirmities and diseases, which, being propagated, spoil the strain of a nation. *Tillotson.* 4. To conceive; to hatch; to plot.—My son Edgar! had he a hand to write this! a heart and brain to breed it in! *Shakesp. King Lear.* 5.

To give birth to; to be the native place: so, there are breeding ponds, and feeding ponds.—Mr Hard-
 ing, and the worthiest Divine Christendom hath bred for the space of some hundreds of years were brought up together in the same university. *Hooker.*—

Hail foreign wonder!

Whom, certain these rough shades did never breed. *Milton.*

6. To educate; to form by education.—

Whoe'er thou art, whose forward ears are bent
 On state affairs to guide the government;
 Hear first what Socrates of old has said,
 To the lov'd youth, whom he at Athens bred. *Dryden.*

To breed up the son to common sense,
 Is evermore the parent's least expence.

Dryden's Juvenal.

And left their pillagers, to rapine bred,
 Without controul, to strip and spoil the dead. *Dryden.*

—His farm may not remove his children too far from him, or the trade he breeds them up in. *Locke.* 7. To bring up; to take care of from infancy.—

Ah, wretched me! by fates averse decreed
 To bring thee forth with pain, with care to breed. *Dryden.*

8. To conduct through the first stages of life.—

Bred up in grief, can pleasure be our theme?
 Our endless anguish, does not nature claim?
 Reason and sorrow are to us the same. *Prior.*

(2.) * To BREED. v. n. 1. To bring young.—Lucina, it seems, was breeding, as she did nothing but entertain the company with a discourse upon the difficulty of reckoning to a day. *Spectator.*

2. To be increased by new production.—

But could youth last, and love still breed,
 Had joys no date, and age no need;
 Then these delights my mind might move
 To live with thee, and be thy love. *Raleigh.*

3. To be produced; to have birth.—

Where they most breed and haunt; I have observ'd,

The air is delicate. *Shakesp. Macbeth.*

—There is a worm that breedeth in old snow, and dieth soon after it cometh out of the snow. *Bacon's Natural History.*—The caterpillar is one of the most general of worms, and breedeth of dew and leaves. *Bacon.*—It hath been the general tradition and belief, that maggots and flies breed in putrefied carcases. *Bentley.* 4. To raise a breed.—In the choice of swine, choose such to breed of as are of long large bodies. *Mortimer.*

* BREEDBATE. n. f. [from breed and bate.] One that breeds quarrels; an incendiary.—An honest, willing, kind fellow, as ever servant shall come in house withal: and, I warrant you, no teltale, nor no breedbate. *Shakesp. Merry Wives of Windsor.*

* BREEDER. n. f. [from breed.] 1. That which produces any thing.—Time is the nurse and breeder of all good. *Shakespeare.* 2. The person which brings up another.—Time was, when Italy and Rome have been the best breeders and bringers up of the worthiest men. *Ascham's Schoolmaster.* 3. A female that is prolific.—Get thee to a nunnery; why should thou be a breeder of sinners? *Shakesp. Hamlet.*—

Here is the babe, as loathsome as a toad,
 Amongst the fairest breeders of our time.

Shakesp. Tit. And.

—Let there be 100 persons in London, and as many in the country, we say, that if there be 60 of them breeders in London, there are more than 50 in the country. *Graunt.*—

Yet if a friend a night or two should need her,
 He'd recommend her as a special breeder. *Pope.*

4. One that takes care to raise a breed.—The breeders of English cattle turned much to dairy, or else kept their cattle to 6 or 7 years old. *Temple.*

(1.) * BREEDING. n. f. [from breed.] 1. Education; instruction; qualifications.—

She had her breeding at my father's charge,
 A poor physician's daughter. *Shakesp.*

—I am a gentleman of blood and breeding. *Shakesp. King Lear.*—I hope to see it a piece of none of the meanest breeding, to be acquainted with the laws of nature. *Glanville's Scyllis, Pref.*

2. Man-

2. **Manners; knowledge of ceremony.**—

As men of *breeding*, sometimes men of wit,
T' avoid great errors, must the less commit.

Pope.

The Graces from the court did next provide
Breeding, and wit, and air, and decent pride.

Swift.

3. **Nurture; care to bring up from the infant state.**—

Why was my *breeding* order'd and prescrib'd,
As of a person separate to God,

Design'd for great exploits? *Milton's Agonistes.*

(2.) **BREEDING**, in a moral sense, (§ 1. *def.* 2.)

denotes a person's behaviour in the external offices of social life. In this sense we say *well-bred*, *ill-bred*, *a man of breeding*, &c. Good breeding is hard to define; none can understand the theory but those who have the practice. Good breeding amounts to much the same with what is otherwise called **POLITENESS**, among the ancient Romans **URBANITY**. Good breeding is near to virtue, and will often lead a man a great part of the way towards it; although it must be owned, there are too many instances of its failing to produce this happy effect. Lord Chesterfield, with all his good breeding, was a very bad moralist. Good breeding teaches a man to rejoice in acts of civility, to seek out objects of compassion, and to be pleased with every occasion of doing them good offices. Lord Shaftesbury compares the well-bred man with the real philosopher: both characters aim at what is excellent, aspire to a just taste, and keep in view the model of what is beautiful and becoming. The conduct and manners of the one are formed according to the most perfect ease, and good entertainment of company; of the other, according to the strictest interest of mankind; the one according to his rank and quality in his private station; the other according to his rank and dignity of station. See **MANNERS**. **HORACE** seems to have united both characters:

Quid verum atque decens curo et rogo, et omnis in hoc sum.

(3.) **BREEDING OF FISH**. See **POND**.

(4.) **BREEDING OF HORSES**. See **HORSE**.

BREEDING-STONE, in mineralogy, a sort of mass of pebbles, joined by a sparry cement; frequent in divers parts of Hertfordshire.

BREEDON ON THE HILL, a village in Leicestershire, near Stanton-Harold.

BREEF CARDS, a kind of false cards, either a little longer or broader than the rest, whereby they may be felt and distinguished.

BREEM, *adj. obs.* fierce. *Spenser.*

BREENBERG, Bartholomew, an excellent painter, born at Utrecht in 1620; and best known by his christian name Itализed, **BARTOLOMEO**, having spent the early part of his life in Rome. His pictures were held in the highest estimation. He excelled in landscapes, which he enriched with historical subjects. The figures and animals were drawn in a masterly manner. He also etched from his own designs a set of 24 *Vieues and Landscapes*, ornamented with *Ruins*. He died in 1660, aged 40.

* **BREESE**. *n. s.* [*briosfa*, Saxon.] A stinging fly; the gadfly.—

Cleopatra,

The *breeze* upon her, like a cow in June,
Hoists sail, and flies. *Shakesp. Ant. and Cleop.*

The learn'd write, the insect *breeze* . . .

Is but the mongrel prince of bees. *Hudibras.*

A fierce loud buzzing *breeze*, their stings
draw blood,

And drive the cattle gadding through the wood

Dryden.

(1.) * **BREEZE**. *n. s.* [*brezza*, Ital.] A gentle gale; a soft wind.—We find, that those hottest regions of the world, seated under the equinoctial line, or near it, are so refreshed with a gale of easterly wind, which the Spaniards call *breeze*, that doth ever more blow stronger in the heat of the day. *Raleigh.*—

From land a gentle *breeze* arose by night,
Serenely shone the stars, the moon was light,
And the sea trembled with her silver light. *Dryd.*

Gradual links the *breeze*

Into a perfect calm, that not a breath
Is heard to quiver through the closing wood.

Thomson.

(2.) **BREEZE**, a shifting wind that blows from sea or land for certain hours in the day or night; common in Africa and some parts of the E. and W. Indies. Breezes differ from **ETESIAE** or trade winds, as the former are diurnal, or have their periods each day; and the latter are annual, and blow at a distance from land. The sea breezes rule by day, and the land breezes by night, being constant as the seasons of the year, or course of the sun, on which they seem to depend: not but that they appear sooner or later, stronger or weaker, in some places than in others; and vary the alternative according to the several latitudes, situations, and soils, &c. of the countries where they are found. See **WIND**.

(3.) **BREEZE**, in brick-making, small ashes and cinders sometimes made use of instead of coals, for the burning of bricks. But as this does not so well answer the end, the use of it was prohibited by 12 Geo. I. cap. 35. but allowed by 3 Geo. II. cap. 22. and 10 Geo. III. cap. 49.

BREEZE ALY. See **BREESE**, and **TABANUS**.

* **BREEZY**. *adj.* [from *breeze*.] Fanned with gales.—

The seer, while zephyrs curl the swelling deep,
Basks on the *breezy* shore, in grateful sleep,
His oozy limb. *Pope.*

BREGANZON, a strong castle of France, in the ci-devant province of Provence.

BREGENTZ, or **BERGENTZ**, a town of Tyrol in Germany, situated at the E. end of the lake of Constance, 6 miles S. of Lindau. It was taken possession of by a column of the French army under Gen. Kellerman, in July 1796. Lon. 9. 40. E. Lat. 47. 36. N.

BREGMA, in anatomy, the same with **SINCI-PUT**, or the fore-head. The bregma consists chiefly of two bones, hence also called *bregmatis ossa* or *ossa parietalia*. See **ANATOMY**, § 119, 178. Bregma properly denotes the middle and fore part of the head, situated over the forehead, and extending on both sides to the temples. The origin of the word is obscure, and has been much controverted between Hoffman and Lindenius.

BREGNA, a fortress of Hungarian Dalmatia, in Morlachia.

(1.) **BREHAR**, one of the Scilly islands, lying

30 miles almost directly W. of the Land's End in Cornwall, between the isles of Micarlo, Guel, Trescaw, and Samson. It is the roughest and most mountainous of them all, and not many years ago, there were only two families in it, but now there are 13. There are several **BARROWS** edged with stone, in which they buried considerable persons in ancient times; besides many monuments of the **DRUIDS**. Some are of opinion, that this with the rest made but one island, which is the reason why so many antiquities are now found in most of them.

(2.) **BREHAR**, the only town or rather village in the island, (N^o 1.) consisting of a few houses.

BREHILL, a town near Andover, Hampshire.

(1.) * **BREHON**. *n. s.* An Irish word.—In the case of murder, the *brehon*, that is, their judge, will compound between the murderer and the party murdered, which prosecute the action, that the malefactor shall give unto them, or to the child or wife of him that is slain, a recompence, which they call an *erlach*. *Spenser*.

(2.) **BREHONS** were the provincial judges among the ancient Irish, by whom justice was administered, and controversies decided. These judges were a distinct tribe, and had competent lands allowed them in inheritance. In criminal cases the *brehon* had the 11th part of all the fines; which could not but be considerable at a time when murders, rapes, robberies, and the like offences, were only subject to pecuniary computations.

BREHONICÆ LEGES, } the general rules
BREHON LAWS, } of law observed by the *Brehons*, and having the force of laws throughout all the provinces of Europe. Several fragments of the *leges Brehonicæ* are still extant in public and private libraries. The most complete collection is that belonging to the duke of Chandos; containing 22½ sheets close written, full of abbreviated words, and not very legible. By the statute of Kilkenny, made under Edward III. it is enacted that no English subject shall submit to a trial by the *Brehon* law, on the penalty of high treason: Notwithstanding which, many were still under a necessity of being concluded by the Irish laws and customs, till the whole kingdom was settled on an English bottom by King James I.

BREID, *adj. obs.* bred.

To **BREID**, *v. n. obs.* to be in like condition.

BREIDE, *v. pret. obs.* did arise, *Chauc.*

BREMBLE, a town E. of Chippenham, Wilts.

BREMBLEHAM, near Malmesbury Wiltshire.

(1.) * **BREME**. *adj.* [from *bremman*, Saxon; to rage or fume] Cruel; sharp; severe. Not used.—

And when the shining sun laugheth once,

You deem the spring come at once:

But erst, when you count, you freed from fear,

Comes the *breme* winter, with chamfred brows,

Full of wrinkles, and frosty furrows. *Spenser*.

(2.) **BREME**, *adv. obs.* fiercely. *Spenser*.

BREMFGARTEN, or **BREMGARTON**, a considerable town of Switzerland, in the territory of Fyen-Aempter, between the cantons of Zurich and Bern. The inhabitants are Roman Catholics, and deal chiefly in paper. It is very advantageously seated on the river Rusa, 10 miles W. of Zurich. Lon. 8. 17. E. Lat. 47. 28. N.

(A) **BREMEN**, a duchy of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, lying between the rivers Weser and the Elbe; of which the former separates it from the duchy of Oldenburgh, and the other from that of Holstein. The air is cold; but the country is fertile, and well peopled. It formerly belonged to Sweden, but was afterwards conquered by the king of Denmark, who sold it to the king of Great Britain, as elector of Hanover, 1716. In winter it is subject to inundations. On Christmas, 1617, several thousand cattle were drowned, besides several hundred people; and the country was so covered with water, that it has cost immense sums to repair the dykes.

(2.) **BREMEN**, a large, populous, and very strong town, the capital of the duchy, (N^o 1.) with an archbishop's see. The river Weser runs through it, and divides it into the old and new town. In September 1739, while the inhabitants were asleep, the powder magazine was set on fire by lightning; and all the houses were shaken, as if there had been a violent earthquake. This town is governed by its own magistrates, and is divided into 4 quarters, each of which has a *Burgomaster*. In the middle there is a large marketplace, with the statue of Rolando. It has a great trade for iron, flax, hemp, and linen, with France, England, Spain, and Portugal; and in return imports provisions, with which it supplies Westphalia and the countries about Hanover. It also gets a great deal by its fisheries; the trade for blubber with the S. of Germany is very considerable. It is 70 miles NW. of Zell. Lon. 8. 48. E. Lat. 53. 6. N.

BREMEN-VEERD, or } a town in **BREMEN**, (N^o
BREMEN-WOERD, } 1.) seated on the river Oost. Lon. 8. 35. E. Lat. 53. 48. N.

BREMER, a town near Blandford, Dorsetshire.

BREMERUVOIDE, a fortified town of Lower Saxony, 27 miles N. of Bremen. Lon. 8. 35. E. Lat. 53. 48. N.

BREMGARTEN. See **BREMGARTEN**.

BREMPTON, near Webmore, Somersetshire.

(1.) **BREN**, in Cornwall, 4 miles W. of Bodmin.

(2.) **BREN**, *n. s. obs.* bran. *Chauc.*

To **BREN**, *v. n. obs.* to burn. *Spenser*.

BRENCHLEY, a village in Kent, 6 miles from Tunbridge Wells.

BRENDE, *adj. obs.* burnt; burnished. *Chauc.*

To **BRENDE**, *v. a. obs.* to burn. *Chauc.*

BRENGHORN, a village in Northumberland, S. of Rothbury.

BRENNAGE, } in authors of the mid-
BRENNAGIUM, or } dle age, a kind of tri-
BRENNATICUM, } bute paid in lieu of

bran, or bran itself, which the tenants were obliged to furnish for the support of the lord's hounds.

BRENNE, a ci-devant territory of France, in the late province of Touraine, now included in the department of Indre and Loire.

BRENNING, a river of S. Wales, in Cardiganshire.

BRENNINGLY, *adv. obs.* warmly. *Chauc.*

BRENNUS, a celebrated captain among the Gauls, who, about A. C. 388, entered Italy with a powerful army; made great conquests there; defeated the Romans; and sacked Rome. The capital alone was defended; and Camillus coming to its relief, drove the Gauls not only out

of Rome, but out of all Italy. See **ROMF**, HISTORY OF.

BRENSET, a village W. of N. Romney, Kent.

(1.) **BRENT**. *adj.* [from *brennan*, Saxon, to burn.] Burnt. Obsolete.

What flames, quoth he, when I thee present see

In danger rather to be drent than *brent*?

Fairy Queen.

(2.) **BRENT**, a river of Somersetshire

(3.) **BRENT**, a small town of Devonshire, with a market on Saturdays and two fairs, on May 13th and Oct. 10th, for horned cattle. It lies on the road from Exeter to Plymouth, 6 miles from Ashburton, 26 SW. from Exeter, and 198 W. by S. of London. Lon. 4. 2. W. Lat. 50. 33. N.

(4.) **BRENT**, or **BRENT-BROOK**, a rivulet of Middlesex, which rises near Finchley Common, and passes through the W. part of Brentford, (to which it gives name,) into the Thames.

(5.) **BRENT** Sir Nathaniel, LL. D. was born at Little Woolford, Warwickshire, in 1573; educated at Oxford, where he took his degrees. In 1613, he travelled abroad, and on his return he married the daughter and heiress of Dr Abbot, Bp. of Salisbury and niece of Abp. Abbot; who sent him to Venice in 1617, to procure a copy of the *History of the Council of Trent*, from the joint authors; fathers Paul and Fulgentio; which he translated from Italian into English. He received several promotions from the archbishop, and was knighted by king Charles I. but was afterwards deprived of them for joining the Puritans and taking the covenant. In 1646, when Oxford surrendered to the parliament, he was restored to his warden-ship of Merton college and appointed chief visitor of that university. He died at London in 1652, aged 79.

(6.) **BRENT, EAST**, } three English villages in

(7.) **BRENT, SOUTH**, } Somersetshire, about 18

(8.) **BRENT, WEST**, } miles from Bristol.

BRENTA, in ornithology, the **BRENT GOOSE**, a species of **ANAS**, with a black neck and a white collar round it. It has been usually confounded with the **BARNACLE**, (See **ANAS**, N^o 5, & 16. and **BARNACLE**, N^o 5.) and supposed to differ from it only in sex; but this is erroneous. It is somewhat larger than the barnacle, and is longer bodied. R. 7. See *Plate XLVI. Fig 9.*

BRENT-BROOK. See **BRENT**, N^o 4.

BRENTE, a river of Germany, which rises in Trent, and running SE. through the Venetian territories in Italy, falls into the Adriatic opposite to Venice.

BRENT-ELEY, a village in Suffolk, E. of Lavenham.

BRENTFORD, a town of Middlesex, 7 miles from London, on the great road to the W. It is divided into the old and new town, in which last are the church, and the market-house where the country elections are held. It is long, well stocked with public houses is seated on the river Thames, and has a considerable trade in corn. Lon. 0. 10. W. Lat. 51. 26 N.

BRENT GOOSE. See **BRENTA**, N^o 2.

BRENTINGBY, a village in Leicestershire, near Melton-Mowbray.

BRENT-KNOLL, in Somersetshire, near the Brent Marshes.

BRENT MARSHES are situated in Somersetshire between Glastonbury and Start-point.

BRENT-STREET, a village in Middlesex, in the parish of Hendon.

BRENT-TOR, in Devonshire, on the top of a high hill, between Lidford and Milton-Abbey. It serves for a sea mark.

BRENTWOOD, or **BURNTWOOD**, a town of Essex, on a rising ground in the road from London to Colchester. It has several good inns, and lies 11 miles WSW. of Chelmsford, and 18 ENE. of London. Lon. 0. 25. E. Lat. 51. 38. N.

BRENUTH, the ancient name of **BIRNIE**.

BREOCK ST, a village in the county of Cornwall, near Wardbridge.

BREPHOTROPHIUM, [from *βρεφος*, infant, and *τροφή*, nourishment,] an hospital for foundlings or orphans.

BREPHOTROPHY, the nurture of infants.

BRERE, *n. f. obs.* a brier. *Cbuv.*

BRERETON, a town near Congleton, Chesh.

BREREWOOD, Edward, a very learned English mathematician and antiquary, the son of Robert Brerewood a tradesman, who was thrice mayor of Chester; was born in that city in 1565. He was educated in Chester; and admitted, in 1581, of Brazen-nose college, Oxford. In 1596, he became the first professor of astronomy in Gresham college in London, where he led a very retired life. He died there of a fever, Nov. 4, 1613. He was a great searcher into antiquity and curious knowledge; but never published any thing during his life. After his death came out the following works. 1. *De ponderibus et precibus veterum nummorum*. 2. *Inquiries touching the diversities of languages and religion through the chief parts of the world*. 3. *Elementa logica in gratiam studiosae juventutis in Acad. Oxon.* 4. *Tractatus quidam logici*. 5, 6. Two treatises on the Sabbath. 7. *Tractatus duo, quorum primus est de meteoris, secundus de oculo*. 8. *Commentarii in ethica Aristotelis*. Mr Wood tells us, that the original MS. of this, written with his own hand, is in the smallest and neatest characters that his eyes ever beheld; and that it was finished by him on the 27th of October, 1586. 9. *Patriarchal government of the ancient church*.

BRESCIA, the capital of Bresciano, a strong town with a bishop's see and a good citadel. It is seated on an agreeable plain on the river Garza, which runs through it. Its walls are also washed by the Mela on the W. and the Navilio on the E. It contains about 50,000 inhabitants. They manufacture cloths and hard wares. In March 1797, they solicited to be annexed to the new republic of **LOMBARDY**. It lies 35 miles N. of Cremona, and 95 W. of Venice. Lon. 10. 5. E. Lat. 45. 31. N.

BRESCIANO, a province of Italy in the territory of Venice; bounded on the N. by the Grisons and the bishopric of Trent; on the E. by the lake Garda, the Veronese, and the duchy of Mantua; on the S. by Mantua and the Cremonese; and on the W. by the Cremasco, the Burgomasco.

and the Valtelina. It is watered by several small rivers, which render it very fertile; and is full of towns and villages.

BRESCICATE, in commerce, a kind of bays, of which there is some trade carried on with the negroes, between the river Gambia and Sierra Leona. The best sorts for that purpose are the blue and the red.

BRESELLO, a small town of Italy, in Modena; seated on the Po. Lon. 10. 25. E. Lat. 44. 55. N.

BRESILIA, in ornithology, a species of *TANAGRA*, in the order of *passeres*.

BRESINI, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Lencici.

CRESINGHAM, a town near Diss, Norfolksh.

(1.) BRESLAU, or BRESLAW, a small duchy of lower Silesia, in Germany, lying between those of Wolaw, Olffe, Brieg, Schwednitz, and Lignitz. It is every where level and flat; is an excellent corn and pasture country, abounding with herds of cattle and flocks of sheep; but destitute of wood, except in one district. The roads in general are very bad. Both the property and jurisdiction belong to the king of Prussia; forming a part of one of the 3 bailiwicks, into which all the immediate principalities are divided.

(2.) BRESLAU, or } the chief town of the duchy,
BRESLAW, } (N^o 1.) and of all Silesia, situated at the conflux of the Oder and Ohlau. Including the suburbs, it is of great extent; having many large regular squares, broad streets, stately public and private edifices; but the fortifications are of no importance. It has many churches (besides convents) belonging to the catholics; several to the Lutherans, one to the Calvinists, and another to the Greeks. The Jews have likewise two synagogues, the bishop a stately palace, and the Lutherans two gymnasiums. The Popish university is a noble structure, and the exchange is magnificent. This city is the seat of all the high colleges; and the 3d in rank, next to Berlin and Konigsberg, in the whole Prussian dominions. Its trade and manufactures are very considerable. Several of the monasteries and nunneries are very magnificent; and there are also some good public libraries in it, with two armouries, a college of physicians, and a mint. It is very populous, and much frequented by Hungarian, Bohemian, Polish, and other merchants, having several fairs. It was taken by the king of Prussia in 1741, and retaken by the Austrians in 1757; but the king of Prussia took it back again the same year, and gained a signal victory over the Austrians at Leuthen, a village not far from the capital. Breslaw is 112 m. E. of Prague, and 165 N. of Vienna. Lon. 17. 14. E. Lat. 51. 3. N.

(1.) BRESLE, a river in the N. of France.

(2.) BRESLE, a town of France, in the department of Rhone and Loire, and ci-devant province of Lyonnois.

BRESMA, in ichthyology, a name given by Hildegard and several others, to the bream. See *CYPRINUS*.

(1.) BRESSAY, or BRASSA, an island of Scotland, about 4 miles long and 2 broad, lying to the E. of the coast of Shetland, from which it is separated by the Sound, (N^o 3.) It consists of 366

marks of land, and contained 670 inhabitants in 1792. They have 26 fishing boats.

(2.) BRESSAY, BURRA, and QUARFF, 3 united parishes of Scotland, in the county and on the coast of Shetland, comprehending also the islands of NOSS, HAVERA, and HOUSE. They are, in all, above ten miles long and 2 broad, and rent at about 4000 l. Scots, annually, besides more than double that sum in fishings. The climate is damp, but healthy. The population, in 1792, as stated by the rev. Mr Menzies, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1225; and had increased 127, since 1755. The number of sheep was 5000, and of milck cows 500, besides many oxen and horses. About 60 boats are employed in fishing and catch about 300 ling each annually. "The fishing," however, Mr Menzies observes, "is a great obstacle to improvements in agriculture, the chief object of the proprietors being to have as many fishermen on their grounds as possible. The farms, consequently, are very small. Few leases are granted. Many services, the sad marks of slavery, are demanded. They must fish for their masters, who either give them a fee entirely inadequate to their labour and dangers, or take their fish at a lower price than others would give. It is true, (he adds,) that in the years of scarcity, they must depend upon their landlords for subsistence, and are often deep in their debt. But why not allow them to make the best of their situation? Why not let them have leases upon reasonable terms, and dispose of their produce to those who will give them the best price? Why not let them fish for themselves? Why should the laird have any claim, except for the stipulated rent? Neither the climate nor the soil are favourable for improvements in agriculture; but with proper management much might be done." *Stat. Acc. x. 197.*

(3.) BRESSAY, or BRASSA SOUND is reckoned by Mr Menzies "one of the best harbours in the world." See BRASSA, N^o 2.

(1.) BRESSE, a ci-devant province of France, bounded on the N. by Burgundy and Franche Comte; on the E. by Savoy; on the S. by Viennois; on the W. by Dombes and the Somme. It is 40 miles from N. to S. and 23 from E. to W. It is fertile in corn and hemp, has fine pastures, and several lakes with plenty of fish. It was divided into the higher, on the side of Bourges, and the lower towards St Trivier and the river Sonne. The French got possession of it in 1601. The principal places are Bourg, Bresse, Montluel, Pont de Vaux, and Coligny. It now forms the department of Ain.

(2.) BRESSE, a town of France in the department of Ain.

BRESSICI. See BRESTE.

BRESSUIRE, a town of France in the department of the Two Sevrés, and ci-devant province of Poictou. It is 35 miles NW. of Poitiers. Lon. 0. 30. W. Lat. 46. 50. N.

BRESSUMERS. See BREST SUMMERS.

(1.) BREST, a maritime town of France, in the department of Cape Finisterre, and ci-devant province of Brittany, seated on the declivity of a hill on the side of its port, which is the largest in the kingdom, and will hold 500 ships at a time. It

has an arsenal with sea-stores, placed there on account of its nearness to the woods, mines of iron, and other things proper for the building of ships. It was entirely consumed by fire in 1644. The craggy entrance into the port is narrow and guarded by a strong castle seated on a rock, which cannot be attempted on the sea side; and it is defended on the land side by a large ditch and other fortifications. The streets are very narrow, ill contrived, few in number, and have all a descent. A great quay surrounds this side of the port, which is above a mile long, and 200 paces broad; and there are magazines on the quay full of foreign merchandizes. On the other side of the port the fine church of Notre Dame is situated; and in a suburb which is as big as half the city, there is a strong tower opposite to the castle, at the entrance of the port; there is also a great quay on this side, bordered with large magazines, partly within the rock, which has been cut away to enlarge the place. These are extended almost as far as the bottom of the harbour, where there are two docks very commodious for the building of large ships: the shops and houses of the workmen are all around them: the ropewalks are separated from the city by one of these docks. The entrance into the harbour is called the *Gallet*, and is a passage extremely difficult on account of the sunk rocks on both sides of the shore; but there are experienced pilots who carry ships in very safely. It is 30 miles S.E. of Morlaix, and 325 W. by S. of Paris. Lon. 4. 26. W. Lat. 48. 23. N.

(2.) * **BREST**. *n. f.* [In architecture.] That member of a column, called also the *torus* or *tore*.

(1.) **BRESTE**, a palatinate, and province of Cujavia, in Poland. It lies between the palatinates of Ploesko, Rava, and Lencici Wladislaw. It is divided into 4 chatelanies.

(1.) **BRESTE**, **BRESSICH**, or **BREZESC**, the capital of the palatinate, (N. E.) and of Polesia, in Poland, seated on the river Bog, 80 miles E. of Warsaw, and subject to Poland. It is a fortified town, and has a castle built upon a rock; with a famous synagogue, resorted to by the Jews from all the countries in Europe. Lon. 24. 6. E. Lat. 52. 4. N.

To **BRESTE**, *v. n. obs.* To burst. *Chauc.*

(1.) * **BREST SUMMERS**. The pieces in the outward parts of any timber building; and in the middle floors, into which the girders are framed. *Harris.*

(2.) **BREST SUMMERS**. See **GIRDERS**.

BRESWORTH, a village in Suffolk, near Mendham.

(1.) * **BREST**. *n. f.* A fish of the turbot kind, also *brut* or *brut*. *DiB.*

(2.) **BRET** is a name given on the coasts of Lincolnshire to the turbot, a fish extremely plentiful there, and taken in vast numbers. They are caught in a net, trailed by two horses, the one going up to the middle of his body in water, the other on shore.

BRETACHIAE; in writers of the middle age, denote wooden towers or castles, wherewith towns or camps were defended.

BRETAGNE, a ci-devant province of France, now formed into 5 departments, viz. North Coast,

Finisterre, Ile and Vilaine, Lower Loire, and Morbihan. See **BRITTANY**.

BRETBEY, a village 7 miles from Derby.

BRETESSE, in heraldry, denotes a line embattled on both sides.

BRETEUIL, a town of France, in the department of Lower Seine, seated on the river Iton, 15 m. S.W. of Evreux. Lon. 1. 0. E. Lat. 48. 56. N.

BRETFORD, a village in Warwickshire, near Baggington.

BRETFORTON, near Evesham, Worcestersh.

(1.) * **BRETHREN**. *n. f.* [The plural of *brother*.] See **BROTHER**.—All these sects are *brethren* to each other in faction, ignorance, iniquity, perverseness, pride. *Swift.*

(2.) **BRETHREN AND CLERKS OF THE COMMON LIFE**, a denomination assumed by a religious fraternity towards the end of the 13th century. They lived under the rule of St Augustin, and were eminently useful in promoting the cause of religion and learning. Their society was first formed, in the 14th century, by Gerard de Groote, a native of Deventer; but did not flourish till it obtained the approbation of the council of Constance. It became very respectable in Holland, the Lower Germany, and the adjacent provinces. It was divided into two classes; the *lettered brethren* or *clerks*; and the *illiterate*: they lived in separate habitations, but maintained the closest fraternal union. The former applied to the study of polite literature, and the education of youth; whilst the latter were employed in manual labour, and the mechanic arts. They are frequently called *Beghards* and *Lollards*, by way of reproach.

(3.) **BRETHREN AND SISTERS OF THE FREE SPIRIT**, in ecclesiastical history, an appellation assumed by a sect which sprung up towards the close of the 13th century, and gained many adherents in Italy, France, and Germany. They took their denomination from the words of St Paul, Rom. viii. 2, 14. and maintained, that the true children of God were invested with perfect freedom from the jurisdiction of the law. They were enthusiasts to a degree of distraction, both in their principles and practice. They resembled the **BEGHARDS**, by which name they were sometimes called, in their aspect, apparel, and manner of living. Some of their professed principles resembled those of the Pantheists; for they held, that all things flowed by emanation from God; that rational souls were portions of the Deity, and that the universe was God; and that, by the power of contemplation, they were united to the Deity, and acquired hereby a glorious and sublime liberty, both from the sinful lusts and the common instincts of nature: and hence they concluded, that the person, who was thus absorbed in the abyss of the Deity, became a part of the Godhead, and was the son of God, in the same sense and manner that Christ was, and that he was freed from the obligation of all laws human and divine. They treated with contempt all Christian ordinances, and all external acts of religion, as unsuitable to the state of perfection at which they were arrived. Some of them were honest but deluded enthusiasts; and they endured the torments inflicted on them by the inquisitors with astonishing heroism and triumph.

triumph. Others proceeded to the most extravagant licentiousness of conduct. They held their secret assemblies stark naked and lay in the same bed with their spiritual sisters, and indiscriminately with other women, without the least scruple: modesty and delicacy being, according to their creed, marks of inward corruption. And some of them proceeded still farther, and maintained, that the *divine man*, or believer, could not sin, let his conduct be ever so atrocious. Many edicts were published against them; but notwithstanding the severities they suffered, they continued till about the middle of the 14th century. They were called by several other names, such as Schwestriones, Picards, Adamites, and Turlupins.

(4.) BRETHREN, WHITE, *fratres albi*, were the followers of a priest from the Alps, about the beginning of the 14th century, who was arrayed in a white garment; and as they were also clothed in white linen, they were distinguished by this title. Their leader carried about a cross, like a standard, and his apparent sanctity and devotion drew together a number of followers. This enthusiast practised many acts of mortification and penance, endeavoured to persuade the European nations to renew the holy war, and pretended that he was favoured with divine visions. Boniface IX. ordered him to be apprehended and committed to the flames, upon which his followers dispersed.

BRETON, a river in Suffolk.

(1.) BRETON, CAPE, OR CAPE BRITAIN, an island near the eastern continent of N. America, lying between 45° and 47° lat N. It is separated from Nova Scotia by a narrow strait called *Canis*, and is about 100 m. in length, and 50 in breadth. It is surrounded with little sharp-pointed rocks, separated from each other by the waves, above which some of their tops are visible. All its harbours are open to the E. turning towards the S. On other parts of the coast there are but a few anchoring places for small vessels, in creeks, or between islets. Except in the hill parts, the surface of the country has but little solidity, being every where covered with a light moss, and with water. The dampness of the soil is exhaled in fogs, without rendering the air unwholesome. In other respects the climate is very cold; owing either to the prodigious quantity of lakes, which cover above half the island, and remain long frozen; or to the number of forests, that totally intercept the rays of the sun; which are also intercepted by perpetual clouds.

(2.) BRETON, CAPE, HISTORY, TRADE, &c. OF. Though some fishermen had long resorted to this island every summer, not above 20 or 30 had ever fixed there. The French, who took possession of it in August 1713, were properly the first inhabitants. They changed its name into that of *Ile Royale*, and fixed upon fort Dauphin for their principle settlement. This harbour was 2 leagues in circumference. The ships came to the very shore, and were sheltered from winds. Forests affording oak sufficient to fortify and build a large city, were near at hand; the ground appeared less barren than in other parts, and the fish were more plentiful. The harbour might have been rendered impregnable at a trifling expence; but the dif-

ficulty of approaching it (a circumstance that had at first made a stronger impression than the advantages resulting from it) occasioned it to be abandoned, after a great labour had been bestowed upon the undertaking. They then turned their views to Louisbourg, the access to which was easier; and convenience was thus preferred to security: the fortification of Louisbourg, however, was not begun till 1720. In 1714, some fishermen, who till then had lived in Newfoundland, settled in this island. It was expected that their number would soon have been increased by the Acadians, who were at liberty, from the treaties that had been granted them, to remove with all their effects, and even to dispose of their estates; but these hopes were disappointed. The Acadians chose rather to retain their possessions under the dominion of Britain, than to give them up for any precarious advantage they might derive from their attachment to France. Their place was supplied by some distressed adventurers from Europe, who came over from time to time to Cape Breton, and the number of inhabitants gradually increased to 4000. They were settled at Louisbourg, Fort Dauphin, Port Toulouse, Nerucka, and on all the coasts where they found a proper beach for drying the cod. The inhabitants never applied themselves to agriculture, the soil being unfit for it. They often sowed corn, but it seldom came to maturity; and when it did thrive so much as to be worth reaping, it had degenerated so considerably, that it was not fit for seed next spring. They have only continued to plant a few pot-herbs that are tolerably well tasted, but must be renewed every year from abroad. The poverty and scarcity of pastures has likewise prevented the increase of cattle. In a word the soil of Cape Breton seemed calculated to invite none but fishermen and soldiers. Though the island was entirely covered with forests before it was inhabited, its woods has scarce ever been an object of trade. A great quantity, however, of soft wood was found there fit for firing, and some that might be used for timber; but the oak has always been scarce, and the fir never yielded much resin. The peltry trade was a very inconsiderable object. It consisted only in the skins of a few lynxes, elks, muskrats, wild cats, bears, otters, and foxes: both of a red and silver-gray colour. Some of these were procured from a colony of Micma Indians, who had settled on the island with the French, and never could raise more than 60 men able to bear arms. The rest came from St John's, or the neighbouring continent. Greater advantages might possibly have been derived from the coal mines which abound in the island. They lie in a horizontal direction; and being only 6 or 8 feet below the surface, may be worked without digging deep, or draining off the waters. Notwithstanding the prodigious demand for this coal from New England, from 1745 to 1749, these mines would probably have been forsaken, had not the ships which were sent out to the French islands wanted ballast. In one of these mines a fire has been kindled, which could never yet be extinguished. The people of Cape Breton did not send all their fish to Europe. They sent part of it to the French southern islands, on board 20 or 25 ships from 70

—

—

bomb proof. The garrison which was to defend the place consisted only of 2900 men. Notwithstanding all these disadvantages, the besieged determined to make an obstinate resistance. They were confirmed in their resolution by the courage of a woman. Madame de Drucourt was continually upon the ramparts, with her purse in her hand; and firing herself three guns every day, seemed to dispute with the governor, her husband, the glory of his office. The besieged were not dismayed at the success of their several sallies, or the masterly operations concerted by admiral Boscawen and general Amherst. It was but at the eve of an assault, which it was impossible to sustain, that they talked of surrendering. They made an honourable capitulation; and the conqueror showed the respect due to his brave enemies, and did not sully his glory by any act of barbarity or avarice. The possession was confirmed to Great Britain by the peace in 1763; since which, the fortifications have been blown up and the town of Louisbourg dismantled.

BRET'S-HALL, a village in Warwickshire.

BRETTEL, N. of Sturbridge, Staffordshire.

BRETTENHAM, two villages: 1. in Norfolkshire, NE. of Thetford: 2. in Suffolk, NW. of Bilston.

BRETTIGAW, a territory or valley of the Grisons, lying between the Rhine and the county of Tyrol, and along the river Lanquet. Castels is the principal town.

BRETTON, a town near Wakefield, Yorksh.

BRETTON-HALL, NW. of Bransley, Yorksh.

(1.) **BREVE**, in law, is any writ directed to the chancellor, judges, sheriffs, or other officers, whereby a person is summoned, or attached, to answer in the king's court, &c. See § 4 and 5.

(2.) * **BREVE**. *n. f.* [In musick.] A note or character of time, equivalent to two measures or minims. *Harris*.

(3.) **BREVE**, in music, is in the form of a diamond or square, without any tail.

(4.) **BREVE DE RECTO**, is a writ of right or licence, for a person ejected, to sue for the possession of the estate detained from him.

(5.) **BREVE PERQUIRERE**, the purchasing of a writ or licence for trial in the king's courts; whence comes the present use of paying 6s. 8d. fine to the king in suit, for money due on bond, where the debt is L. 40, and 10s. where it is L. 100, &c.

BREVET, in the ci-devant French customs, denoted the grant of some favour or donation from the king; partly answering to our warrant, and partly to letters patent. It was particularly applied to the commission of a subaltern officer, being only written on parchment, and without seal.

(1.) **BREUGEL**, John, commonly called *Velvet Breugel* from his generally wearing velvet clothes, was the son of Peter Breugel (Nº 2.) and born about 1570. He first applied himself to painting flowers and fruit, in which he excelled; and afterwards had great success in drawing landscapes, and views of the sea, set off with small figures.—He lived long at Cologne, where he acquired great reputation. He travelled to Italy, where his fame had got before him; and where his fine landscapes,

with small figures superior to those of

his father, gave great satisfaction. As he left a great number of pictures behind him, all highly finished, he must have been exceedingly industrious. Nor did he satisfy himself with embellishing his own works only, but was very useful in this respect to his friends. Even Reubens made use of Breugel's hand in the landscape part of several of his small pictures, such as his *Vertumnus* and *Pomona*; the satyr viewing the sleeping nymph; and the terrestrial paradise, which is looked upon as his master-piece. He died in 1642. Several of his works are to be seen in the archbishop's gallery at Milan; and in the Ambrosian library there are 20 of his pieces.

(2.) **BREUGEL**, Peter, an eminent painter, was born at a village of the same name near Breda, in the year 1565; and was the first pupil of Peter Cock, whose daughter he married. It was customary with him to dress like a countryman, in order to be more easily admitted into the company of country people, and be allowed to join in their frolics, by which means he became perfectly acquainted with their manners and gestures, of which he made excellent use in his pictures. He travelled to France and Italy, and studied landscapes on the mountains of Tyrol. His humorous turn of mind displayed itself in all his pictures, which generally consisted of country dances, marriages, sports, and diversions; though he sometimes performed pieces from the historical parts of the Bible. At his return from Italy, he settled at Antwerp, and in his last illness caused his wife gather together all his immodest pieces and burn them before his face. Some of his works are in the possession of the Emperor, the Grand duke of Tuscany, and the Elector Palatine. He is also said to have engraved some plates of landscapes and grotesque subjects.

(3.) **BREUGEL**, Peter, the younger, was the son of Old Peter (Nº 2.) and nicknamed *Hellish Breugel*, from the horrible subjects he delighted to represent. He engraved also, according to M. Heineken; but his works are not specified. He died 1642.

BREVIARIUM. See **BREVIARY**, § 2, and 3.

(1.) * **BREVIARY**. *n. f.* [*breviaire*, Fr. *breviary*, Lat.] 1. An abridgment; epitome; a compendium.—Cresconius, an African bishop, has given us an abridgment, or *breviary* thereof. *Ayliffe*. 2. The book containing the daily service of the church of Rome.

(2.) **BREVIARY**, **BREVIARIUM**, in Roman antiquity, a book first introduced by Augustus, containing an account of the application of the public money.

(3.) **BREVIARY**, in the Romish church, is composed of matins, lauds, 1st, 3d, 6th, and 9th vespers, and the compline or post communion. It is general, and may be used in all places; but on its model various others have been built, appropriated to dioceses, and different orders of religious. The institution of the breviary is not very ancient; there have been inserted in it the lives of the saints, full of ridiculous stories, which gave occasion to several reformations of it, by several councils, particularly those of Trent and Cologne; by several popes, particularly Pius V. Clement VIII. and Urban VIII. and also by several cardinals and bishops;

wits of that time, as may be more particularly gathered from an elegant compliment paid to him in a poem called *Steps to Parnassus*, wherein he is supposed to have a magic power to call the Muses to his assistance, and is even set on an equality with the immortal Shakespeare himself. There are, however, great disputes as to the number of his works. Those which have been ascribed to him with any certainty are, 1. The country girl, a comedy. 2. The love-sick king, a comedy. And, 3. *Lingua*: a piece in regard to which Winstanley records a remarkable anecdote. He tells us, that, when this play was acted at Cambridge, Oliver Cromwell, then a youth, acted a part in it, and entered warmly into the ideal character. The substance of the piece is a contention among the Senses for a crown, which *Lingua* had laid for them to find. The part allotted to young Cromwell, was that of *Tactus* or Touch; who having obtained the contested coronet, makes this spirited declamation:

Roses and bays, pack hence; this crown and robe

My brows and body circles and invests:
How gallantly it fits me! sure the slave
Measur'd my head who wrought this coronet.—
They lie, that say complexions cannot change!
My blood's ennobled, and I am transform'd
Unto the sacred temper of a king.
Methinks I hear my noble parasites
Styling me *Cæsar*, or Great *Alexander*,
Licking my feet, &c.

It is ascribing too much, however, to such a trifling circumstance, to suppose, as some have done, that this speech first fired Cromwell's soul with ambition, and excited him from the possession of an imaginary crown to stretch his views to that of a real one. The fact is, Cromwell was naturally ambitious, and the confusion of the times concurred with his abilities to raise him to the protectorate.

(2.) * BREWER. *n. f.* [from *brew*.] A man whose profession it is to make beer.—

When *brewers* marr their malt with water.

Shakespeare.

—Men every day eat and drink, though I think no man can demonstrate out of Euclid or Apollonius, that his baker, or *brewer*, or cook, has not conveyed poison into his meat or drink. *Tillotson*.

(3.) BREWERS. There are companies of brewers in most capital cities; that of London was incorporated in 1437 by Henry VI. and that of Paris was still older. The brewers of Edinburgh, however, are not a corporation.

BREWERS-HAVEN, a good harbour at the N. end of the island of Chiloe, on the coast of Chili, in South America, lying in the South Sea. The Dutch landed forces here in 1643, designing to get possession of some part of Chili; but they were driven from thence by the Spaniards and the natives. Lon. 82. 0. W. Lat. 42. 0. S.

BREWER'S-HILL, near Winchester, Hampshire.

BREWERTON, N. of Litchfield, Staffordshire.

(1.) * BREWHOUSE. *n. f.* [from *brew* and *house*.] A house appropriated to brewing.—In

our *brewhouses*, bakehouses, and kitchens, are made divers drinks, breads, and meats. *Bacon*.

(2.) BREWHOUSE, APPARATUS AND UTENSILS OF A. These are, a furnace made close and hollow for saving fuel, and for discharging the smoke lest it taint the liquor; a copper; a mash-vat near the head; a cooler near the mash-vat; and a guile-vat under the cooler. Adjoining to these, several clean tubs, to receive the worts and liquor, are required.

(1.) * BREWING *n. f.* [from *brew*.] Quantity of liquor brewed at once.—A *brewing* of new beer, set by old beer, maketh it work again. *Bacon*.

(2.) BREWING, the operation of preparing ale or beer from MALT. Though this art is a part of chemistry, and certainly depends on fixed and invariable principles, as well as every other branch of that science, these principles have never yet been thoroughly investigated. For want of a settled theory, therefore, the practice of this art is found to succeed with some, whilst with others it is unsuccessful. Some few hints, however, to establish a regular theory of brewing, we shall here detail for the information of those who are unacquainted with the subject.

(3.) BREWING, COMMON PROCESS OF. The usual process of brewing is as follows: A quantity of water being boiled, is left to cool till the height of the steam be over; when so much is poured to a quantity of malt in the mashing-tub, as makes it of a consistence stiff enough to be just well rowed up. After standing thus for a quarter of an hour, a second quantity of water is added, and rowed up as before. Lastly, the full quantity of water is added; and that in proportion as the liquor is intended to be strong or weak.—This part of the operation is called *mashing*.—The whole now stands 2 or 3 hours, more or less, according to the strength of the wort or the difference of the weather, and is then drawn off into a receiver; and the mashing repeated for a second wort, in the same manner as for the first, only the water must be cooler than before, and must not stand above half the time. The two worts are then to be mixed, the intended quantity of hops added, and the liquor close covered up, and gently boiled in a copper for the space of an hour or two; then let into the receiver, and the hops strained from it into the coolers. When cool, the barm or yeast is applied; and it is left to work or ferment till it be fit to turn up. For small beer there is a third mashing with the water nearly cold, and not left to stand above three quarters of an hour; to be then hopped and boiled at discretion. For double beer or ale, the liquors resulting from the two first mashings must be used as liquor for a third mashing of fresh malt. From considering this process, and the multiplicity of circumstances to be attended to in it, we cannot but see that it must be a very precarious one. The success of the operation, *i. e.* the goodness of the beer, must depend upon the quality of the malt from which it is made; on that of the water with which it is infused; on the degree of heat applied in the infusion; on the length of the time the infusion is continued; on the proper degree of boiling

that no addition of water will rise into the vessels of plants, but such as will pass the filter; the pores of which appearing somewhat similar to the fine strainers or absorbing vessels employed by nature in her nicer operations, we, by analogy, conclude, that properties so intimately blended with water as to pass the one, will enter and unite with the economy of the other, and *vice versa*. Supposing the malt to have obtained its utmost perfection, according to the criterion here inculcated; to prevent its farther progress, and secure it in that state, we are to call in the assistance of a heat sufficient to destroy the action of vegetation, by evaporating every particle of water, and thence leaving it in a state of preservation, fit for the present or future purpose of the brewer. Thus having all its moisture extracted, and being by the previous process deprived of its cohesive property, the body of the grain is left a mere lump of flour, so easily divisible, that the husk being taken off, a mark may be made with the kernel, as with a piece of soft chalk. The extractible qualities of this flour are, a saccharum closely united with a large quantity of the farinaceous mucilage peculiar to bread-corn, and a small portion of oil, enveloped by a fine earthy substance, the whole readily yielding to the impression of water applied at different times and different degrees of heat, and each part predominating in proportion to the time and manner of its application. In the curing of malt, as nothing more is requisite than a total extrication of every aqueous particle; if we had in the season proper for malting, a solar heat sufficient to produce perfect dryness, it were practicable to reduce beers nearly colourless; but that being wanting, and the force of custom having made it necessary to give our beers various tinctures and qualities resulting from fire, for the accommodation of various tastes, we are necessitated to apply such heats in the drying as shall not only answer the purpose of preservation, but give the complexion and property required. To effect this with certainty and precision, the introduction of the thermometer is necessary; but the real advantages of its application are only to be known by experiment, on account of the different construction of different kilns, the irregularity of the heat in different parts of the same kiln, the depth of the malt, the distance of the bulb of the thermometer from the floor, &c. &c. for though similar heats will produce similar effects in the same situation, yet is the dispersion of heat in every kiln so irregular, that the medium spot must be found for the local situation of the thermometer, ere a standard can be fixed for ascertaining effects upon the whole. That done, the several degrees necessary for the purposes of porter, amber, pale beers, &c. are easily discovered to the utmost exactness, and become the certain rule of future practice. Though custom has laid this arbitrary injunction of variety in our malt liquors, it may not be amiss to imitate the losses we often sustain, and the inconveniences we combat, in obedience to her mandate. The further we pursue the deeper tints of colour by an increase of heat beyond that which simple preservation requires, the more we injure the valuable quantities of the malt. It is well known that

bed oils turn black, and that calcined sugar

assumes the same complexion. Similar effects are producible in malts, in proportion to the increase of heat, or the time of their continuing exposed to it. The parts of the whole being so united by nature, an injury cannot be done to the one, without affecting the other; accordingly we find, that such parts of the subject, as might have been severally extracted for the purposes of a more intimate union by fermentation, are, by great heat in curing, burnt and blended so effectually together, that all discrimination is lost; the unfermentable is extracted with the fermentable, the integrant with the constituent, to a very great loss both of spirituousity and transparency. In paler malts, the extracting liquor produces a separation which cannot be effected in brown, where the parts are so incorporated, that unless the brewer is very well acquainted with their several qualities and attachments, he will bring over, with the burnt mixture of saccharine and mucilaginous principles, such an abundance of the scorched oils, as no fermentation can attenuate, no precipitants remove; for being in themselves impediments to the action of fermentation, they lessen its efficacy; and being of the same specific gravity with the beer, they remain suspended in, and incorporated with the body of it, an offence to the eye, and a nausea to the palate, to the latest period."—From this account it is evident that the drying of malt is an article of the utmost consequence. Concerning the proper degrees of heat to be employed for this purpose, M. Combrune has related some experiments made in an earthen pan, of about two feet diameter, and three inches deep, in which was put as much of the palest malts, very unequally grown, as filled it on a level to the brim. This being placed over a little charcoal in a small stove, and kept constantly stirred from bottom to top, exhibited different changes, according to the degree of heat employed. On the whole he concludes, that "true germinated malts are charred in heats between 175 and 180 degrees; and that, as these correspond to the degrees in which pure alcohol, or the finest spirit of the grain itself boils, or disengages itself therefrom, they may point out to us the reason of barley being the fittest grain for the purposes of brewing." From these experiments, he has also constructed a kind of table of the different degrees of the dryness of malt, with the colour occasioned by the difference of heat. Thus malt exposed to 119 deg. is white; to 124, cream colour; 129, light yellow; 134, amber colour; 138, high amber; 143, pale brown; 148, brown; 152, high brown; 157, brown inclining to black; 162, high brown speckled with black; 167, blackish brown with black specks; 171, colour of burnt coffee; 176, black. This not only shews us how to judge of the dryness of malt from its colour, but also, when a grist is composed of several sorts of malt, what effect the whole will have when blended together by extraction. Experience proves, that the less heat we employ in drying malt, the shorter time will be required before the beer which is brewed from it is fit to be used; and of this M. Combrune has given the following table:

Deo.

Deg.	Deg.	Deg.
119 2 weeks.	138 6 months.	152 15 months.
124 1 month.	143 6 months.	157 20 months.
129 3 months.	148 10 months.	162 2 years.
135 4 months.		

He has also given a table, which shews the comparative tendency beers have to become fine, when properly brewed from malts of different degrees of dryness.

(5.) BREWING, QUALITY OF WATER FIT FOR. The next consideration in brewing is the *quality of the water* to be employed; and here soft water is universally allowed to be preferable to hard, both for the purposes of mashing and fermentation. Transparency is however more easily obtained by the use of hard than soft water; first, from its inaptitude to extract such an abundance of that light mucilaginous matter, which, floating in the beer for a long time, occasions it to be turbid; 2dly, from its greater tendency to a state of quietude after the vinous fermentation is finished, by which those floating particles are more disposed to subside; and, lastly, from the mutual aggregations of the earthy particles of the water with those of the materials, which, by their great specific gravity thus aggregated, not only precipitate themselves, but carry down also that lighter mucilage just mentioned. For these reasons, hard water is not well adapted to the brewing of porter, to such beers as require a fulness of palate as in the London brewery, and some country situations. The purity of water is determined by its lightness; and in this respect, distilled water only can claim any material degree of perfection. Rain water is the purest of all naturally produced: but having once descended to the surface of the earth, it is liable to a variety of intermixtures unfavourable to the purposes of brewing. With regard to others, though a matter of considerable importance, no precise rule can be laid down. Where there is liberty of choice, a preference should doubtless be given to that water which, from natural purity, equally free from the austerity of saline substances and the rankness of vegetable putrefaction, has a soft fulness upon the palate, is totally flavourless, inodorous, and colourless; whence it is the better prepared for the reception and retention of such qualities as the process of brewing is to communicate.

(6.) BREWING, QUANTITY OF HEAT REQUISITE FOR. The next thing to be considered is the proper *degree of heat* to be employed in making the infusion: and here it is evident, that though this must be very material to the success of the operation, it is extremely difficult, perhaps impossible, to fix upon a precise standard that shall at all times fully answer the purpose. On this subject Mr Richardson says: "The quality of the saccharine part of malt resembles that of common sugar, to which it is practicable to reduce it; and its characteristical properties are entirely owing to its intimate connection with the other parts of the malt, from which such distinguishing flavours of beers are derived as are not the immediate result of the hop. Were it not for these properties, the brewer might adopt the use of sugar, molasses, honey, or the sweet of any vegetable, to equal advantage: which cannot now

be done, unless an eligible succedaneum be found to answer that purpose. As we are at present circumstanced, a search on the other side would turn more to the brewer's account. We have in malt a superabundance of the grosser principles; and would government permit the introduction of a foreign addition to the saccharine, which is too deficient, many valuable improvements might be made from it; as we could, by a judicious application of such adventitious principle, produce a 2d and 3d wort, of quality very little inferior to the first. But in these experiments a very particular attention would be necessary to the solvent powers of the water at different degrees of heat, and to the inquiry how far a menstruum saturated with one principal may be capable of dissolving another. Such a consideration is the more necessary on this occasion to direct us clear of two extremes equally disagreeable; the first is, that of applying the menstruum pure, and at such a heat as to bring off an over proportion of the oleaginous and earthy principles, which would occasion in the beer, thus wanting its natural share of saccharum, a harshness and austerity which scarce any time the brewer could allow would be able to dissipate; the other is, that of previously loading the menstruum with the adopted sweet in such abundance as to destroy its solvent force upon the characteristical qualities we wish to unite with it, and thereby leave it a mere solution of sugar. The requisite mean is that of considering what portion of the saccharine quality has been extracted in the first wort, according to the quality of water, and degree of heat applied; and then to make such a previous addition of artificial sweet as will just serve to counterbalance the deficiency, and assimilate with that portion of the remaining principles we are taught to expect will be extracted with the succeeding wort. From the nature of the constituent principles of malt, it is easy to conceive, that the former, or saccharine or mucilaginous parts, yield most readily to the impression of water, and that at so low a degree of heat as would have no visible effect upon the latter. If therefore we are to have a certain proportion of every part, it is a rational inference, that the means of obtaining it rest in a judicious variation of the extracting heat according to the several proportions required. A low degree of heat, acting principally upon the saccharum, produces a wort replete with a rich soft sweet, fully impregnated with its attendant mucilage, and in quantity much exceeding that obtainable from increased heat; which, by its more powerful insinuation into the body of the malt acting upon all the parts together, extracts a considerable portion of the oleaginous and earthy principles, but falls short in softness, fulness, sweetness, and quantity. This is occasioned by the coagulating property of the mucilage, which, partaking of the nature of flour, has a tendency to run into paste in proportion to the increase of heat applied; by which means it not only locks up a considerable part of the saccharum contained therein, but retains with it a proportionate quantity of the extracting liquor, which would otherwise have drawn out of the imprisoned sweet, thence lessening both the quantity and quality of the worts. And this has sometimes

times been known to have had so powerful an effect, as to have occasioned the *setting of the goods*, or the uniting the whole into a pasty mass; for though heat increases the solvent powers of water in most instances, there are some in which it totally destroys them. Such is the presence of flour, which it converts into paste; besides those of blood, eggs, and some other animal substances, which it invariably tends to harden. From a knowledge of these effects, we form our ideas of the variations necessary in the heat of the extracting liquor; which are of more extensive utility than has yet been intimated, though exceedingly limited in their extent from one extreme to the other. The most common effects of too low a heat, besides sometimes producing immediate acidity, are an insipidity of the flavour of the beer, and a want of early transparency, from the superabundance of mucilaginous matter extracted by such heats, which, after the utmost efforts of fermentation, will leave the beer turbid with such a cloud of its lighter feculencies as will require the separation and precipitation of many months to disperse. The contrary application of too much heat, at the same time that it lessens the mucilage, has, as we have seen before, the effect of diminishing the saccharum also; whence that lean thin quality observable in some beers; and, by extracting an over proportion of oleaginous and earthy particles, renders the business of fermentation difficult and precarious, and impresses an austerity on the flavour of the liquor which will not easily be effaced. Yet the true medium heat for each extract cannot be universally ascertained. An attention not only to the quality of the malt, but to the quantity wetted, is absolutely necessary to the obtaining every due advantage; nor must the period at which the beer is intended for use be omitted in the account. The quality of the water also claims a share in the consideration, in order to supply that deficient thinness and want of solvent force in hard, and to allow for the natural fulness and fermentative quality of soft—a particular to which London in a great measure owes the peculiar mucilaginous and nutritious quality of its malt liquors. Although the variations above alluded to are indispensable, it is easy to conceive, from the small extent of the utmost variety, that they cannot be far distant. If therefore we know that a certain degree extracts the first principles in a certain proportion, we need not much consideration to fix upon another degree that shall produce the required proportion of the remaining qualities, and effect that equal distribution of parts in the extract which it is the business of fermentation to form into a consistent whole.”

(7.) BREWING, USE OF BOILING THE WORTS, &c. IN. The principal use of *boiling the worts* is to separate the grosser parts of the extract, preparatory to that more minute separation which is to be effected in the guile tun. The eye is a very competent judge of this effect; for the concretions into which the continued action of boiling forms those parts are obvious to the slightest inspection, whilst the perfect transparency of the juices of the worts points out its utility in attaining that desirable quality in the beer. Coagulable parts are formed from the su-

perabundant mucilage already mentioned; and hence they are found in a greater proportion in the first worts than in those that come after; at the same time, they are in these last so mingled with a quantity of oleaginous matter, that they become much more difficultly coagulable in the weak worts than in such as are stronger; and hence these require to be much longer boiled than the others. During this operation the *hops* are generally added, which are absolutely necessary to prevent the too great tendency of beer to acidity. The fine essential oil of hops being most volatile, and soonest extracted, we are thence taught the advantage of boiling the first wort no longer than is sufficient to form the extract, without exposing it to the action of the fire so long as to dissipate the finer parts of this most valuable principle, and defeat the purposes of it. To the subsequent worts we can afford a larger allowance, and pursue the means of preservation so long as we can keep in view those of flavour; to which no rules can positively direct, the process varying with every variety of beer, and differing as essentially in the production of porter and pale ale, as the modes of producing wine and vinegar. The effects of not allowing a sufficient time for the due separation of the parts of the wort, and extraction of the requisite qualities of the hop, must be obvious. If we proceed to the other extreme, we have every thing to apprehend from the introduction of too large a quantity of the grosser principles of the hop, which are very inimical to fermentation; and from impairing the fermentative quality of the worts themselves, by suffering their too long exposure to the action of the fire, whereby they are reduced to a more dense consistence, and their parts too intimately blended to yield the separating force of fermentation. The last step in the process of brewing is to *ferment the liquor* properly; for if this is not done, whatever care and pains have been taken in the other parts, they will be found altogether insufficient to produce the beverage we desire. The first thing to be done here is to procure a proper ferment. There are only two kinds of artificial ferments procurable in large quantity, and at a low price, viz. beer-yeast, and wine-yeast. Brewers have found it a considerable difficulty to procure these ferments in sufficient quantities, and preserve them constantly ready for use; and this has been so great a discouragement to the business, that some have endeavoured to produce other ferments, or to form mixtures or compounds of particular fermentable ingredients. See BAKING, § 2. BARM, § 2. and YEAST. The greatest circumspection is necessary in regard to the quality of the ferment. It must be chosen perfectly sweet and fresh; for all ferments are liable to grow musty. If the ferment is sour, it must by no means be used for any liquor; for it will communicate its flavour to the whole, and give it an *acetous*, instead of a vinous tendency. When the proper quantity is got ready, it must be put to the liquor in a state barely tepid. The whole intended quantity being loosely mixed in some of the luke-warm liquor, and kept covered, and in a warm situation, more of the insensibly warm liquor ought, at proper intervals, to be added, till by degrees the whole quantity is put together. When the whole

makers to try their skill in making a new kind of brick, or a composition of clay and sand, whereof to form window-frames, chimney-pieces, door-cases, and the like. It is to be made in pieces fashioned in moulds, which, when burnt may be set together with a fine red cement, and seem as one entire piece, by which may be imitated all manner of stone work. The thing should seem feasible, by the earthen pipes made fine, thin, and durable, to carry water under-ground at Portsmouth; and by the earthen backs and grates for chimneys, formerly made by Sir John Winter, of a great bigness and thickness. If chimney-pieces thus made in moulds, and dried and burnt, were not found smooth enough, they might be polished with sand and water; or were care taken, when they were half dry in the air, to have them polished with an instrument of copper or iron, then leave them till they were dry enough to burn, it is evident they would not want much polishing afterwards. The work might even be glazed, as potters do their fine earthen ware, either white or of any other colour; or it might be veined in imitation of marble, or painted with figures of various colours, which would be much cheaper, perhaps equally durable, and as beautiful, as marble itself.

(VII.) BRICKS, OIL OF, olive oil imbibed by the substance of bricks, and afterwards distilled from it. This oil was once in great repute for curing many diseases, but is now justly laid aside.

(VIII.) BRICKS, PATENT. Mr Cartwright's patent bricks are a capital improvement. The following account of them was given in the specification, dated April 14, 1795. "The principle of this invention will readily be comprehended, by supposing the two opposite sides of a common brick to have a groove or rabbet down the middle, which must be a little more than half the width of the side of the brick in which it is made; there will then be left a shoulder on each side of the groove, each of which shoulders will be nearly equal to one quarter of the width of the side of the brick, or to one half of the groove or rabbet. See *Plate XLII. fig. 11.* A course of these bricks being laid shoulder to shoulder, as in *fig. 15*, they will form an indented line, of nearly equal divisions; the grooves or rabbets being somewhat wider than the two adjoining shoulders, to allow for mortar, &c. When the next course comes on, the shoulders of the bricks which compose it will fall into the grooves of the first course; and the shoulders of the first course will fit into the grooves or rabbets of the 2d; and so on, as is clearly shewn in the plate. This mode of shaping the bricks is to be preferred, as being perfectly simple; the principle, however, will be preserved, in whatever manner they may be made to lock into or cramp each other, by whatever form of indenture, or whether by one groove, or more. But it must be observed, in whatever manner the variation from the simple form *fig. 11.* is made, except by straight line, the two sides of the brick, &c. must proportionally vary, so that, when they come together in work, they may correspond and fit, each to each, an example of which is exhibited in *fig. 12.*

a and *b* shew the opposite sides of a brick, which may make some small saving in the ex-

pence, though perhaps not a prudent one, if the bricks, &c. were of such a width as to admit a common brick, or piece of plain stone, between the shoulders of each of these bricks; in that case, the groove must be made proportionably wider. For the purpose of turning the angles, it may be expedient to have bricks or stones of such size and shape as to correspond with each wall respectively; this however is not absolutely necessary, as the groove in the bricks, &c. of each wall, where they cross or meet each other, may be levelled, and the bricks lap over, as in the common mode. For the purpose of breaking the joints in the depth of the walls, bricks will be required of different lengths, though of the same width. Buildings constructed with bricks of this principle, will require no bond timber, one universal bond running through, and connecting the whole building together; the walls of which can neither crack nor bulge out, without breaking through the bricks themselves. When these bricks, &c. that is to say, of the simple form, *fig. 11.* are used for the construction of arches, the sides of the grooves and the shoulders should be radii of the circle, of which the intended arch is to be a segment. See *fig. 13.* though, if the circle be very large, the difference of the width of the bricks, &c. at the top and bottom will be so trifling as to make a minute attention to this particular scarcely, if at all necessary. When these arches are required to be particularly flat, or are applied in such situations as admit not of end walls, as in the construction of bridges, &c. it may be expedient to have the shoulders dovetailed, to prevent the arch cracking across, or giving way endwise. See *fig. 14.* If the bricks are as wide at the bottom as the top, the manner of putting them together by a dove-tail is obvious; when not so wide at the bottom as the top, on one side of the brick, &c. the sides of the shoulders must be parallel, and on the other the sides of the grooves or rabbets must be parallel, so that the two sides of the bricks, &c. which fall together, may correspond. See *fig. 14. b, c.* In forming an arch, the bricks must be coursed across the centre on which the arch is turned, and a grooved side of the bricks must face the workmen. See *fig. 16.* It may be expedient, though not absolutely necessary, in laying the first 2 or 3 courses at least, to begin at the crown, and work downwards each way. In archwork, the bricks, &c. may be either laid in mortar, or dry, and the interstices afterwards filled and wedged up, by pouring in lime-putty, plaster of Paris, grouting, or any other convenient material, at the discretion of the workman or builder. It is obvious that arches upon this principle, having no lateral pressure, can neither expand at the foot nor spring at the crown; consequently they will want no abutments, requiring only perpendicular walls to be let into, or to rest upon; and they will want no superincumbent weight upon the crown to prevent their springing up, a circumstance of great importance in many instances in the construction of bridges. Another advantage attending this mode of arching is that the centres may be struck immediately; so that the same centre (which in no case need be many feet wide, whatever may be the breadth of the arch) may be regularly shifted, as the work proceeds.

proceeds. But the greatest and most striking advantage attending this invention is the absolute security it affords, and at a very reasonable rate, against the possibility of fire; for, from the peculiar properties of this arch, requiring no abutments, it may be laid upon, or let into, common walls no stronger than what are required for timbers, of which it will preclude the necessity, and save the expence."

(IX.) BRICKS, USEFUL EXPERIMENTS WITH. In Dr Percival's essays, Vol. I. p. 302, we have the following experiments of the effects of bricks in water. "Two or 3 pieces of common brick were steeped 4 days in a basin full of distilled water. The water was then decanted off, and examined by various chemical tests. It was immiscible with soap, struck a lively green with syrup of violets, was rendered slightly lactescent by the volatile alkali, and quite milky by the fixed alkali and by a solution of saccharum saturni. The infusion of tormentil root produced no change in it." The experiment, he observes, affords a striking proof of the impropriety of lining wells with brick, a practice very common in many places, and which cannot fail of rendering the water hard and unwholesome. Clay generally contains a variety of heterogeneous matters. The coloured loams often participate of bitumen, and the ochre of iron. Sand and calcareous earth are still more common ingredients in their composition; and the experiments of Mr Geoffrey and Mr Pott prove, that the earth of alum also may in large quantity be extracted from clay. Now as clay is exposed to the open air for a long space of time, is then moulded into bricks, and burnt, this process resembles in many respects that by which the alum stone is prepared. And it is probable that the white efflorescence, frequently observable on the surface of new bricks, is of an aluminous nature. The long exposure of clay to the air, before it is moulded into bricks, the sulphureous exhalations of the bit coal used for burning it, together with the suffocating and bituminous vapours, which arise from the ignited clay itself, sufficiently account for the combination of a vitriolic acid with the earth of alum.

* To BRICK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To lay with bricks.—The sexton comes to know where he is to be laid, and whether his grave is to be plain or *bricked*. *Swift*.

* BRICKBAT. *n. s.* [from *brick* and *bat*.] A piece of brick.—Earthen bottles, filled with hot water do provoke in bed a sweat more daintily than *brickbats* hot. *Bacon*.

* BRICKCLAY. *n. s.* [from *brick* and *clay*.] Clay used for making brick.—I observed it in pits brought for tile and *brickclay*. *Woodward*.

* BRICKDUST. *n. s.* [from *brick* and *dust*.] Dust made by pounding bricks.—This ingenious author, being thus sharp set, got together a considerable quantity of *brickdust*, and disposed of it into several papers. *Spectator*.

* BRICEARTH. *n. s.* [from *brick* and *earth*.] Earth used in making bricks.—They grow very well both on hazelly *bricearths*, and on gravel. *Mortimer*.

BRICKHAMPTON, a village in Gloucestershire, near Cheltenham,

BRICKHILL-BOW,

BRICKHILL MAGNA, and

BRICKHILL PARVA,

} Three villages in
Buckinghamshire,
near Woburn.
BRICKING, *n. s.* among builders, the counterfeiting of a brick wall on plaster. It is done by smearing it over with red ochre, and making the joints with an edged tool; these last are afterwards filled with a fine plaster.

* BRICK-KILN. *n. s.* [from *brick* and *kiln*.] A kiln; a place to burn bricks.—Like the Israelites in the *brick-kilns*, they multiplied the more for their oppression. *Decay of Piety*.

(1.) * BRICKLAYER. *n. s.* [from *brick* and *lay*.] A man whose trade it is to build with bricks; a brick mason.—

The elder of them, being put to nurse,
And ignorant of his birth and parentage,
Became a *bricklayer* when he came to age.

Shakesp

If you had liv'd, fir,
Time enough to have been interpreter
To Babel's *bricklayers*, sure the tow'r had stood,

Downes

(2.) BRICK-LAYERS in London are a regular company, which was incorporated in 1568; and consists of a master, two wardens, 20 assistants, and 78 on the livery.

(1.) BRICK-LAYERS, MATERIALS AND TOOLS USED BY. These are bricks, tiles, mortar, laths, nails, and tile-pins. Their tools are a brick-trowel, wherewith to take up mortar; a brick-axe, to cut bricks to the determined shape; a saw, for sawing bricks; a rub-stone, on which to rub them; a square, wherewith to lay the bed or bottom, and face or surface of the brick, to see whether they are at right angles; a bevel, by which to cut the under sides of bricks to the angles required; a small trammel of iron, wherewith to mark the bricks; a float-stone, with which to rub a moulding of brick to the pattern described; a banker, to cut the bricks on; line-pins to lay their rows or courses by; plumb-rule, whereby to carry their work upright; level, to conduct it horizontal; square, to set off right angles; ten foot rod, wherewith to take dimensions; jointer, wherewith to run the long joints; rammer, wherewith to beat the foundation; crow and pick-ax, wherewith to dig through walls.

BRICK-LAYING, the art of framing edifices of bricks. This business in London, includes tiling, walling, chimney-work, and paving with bricks and tiles. In the country it also includes the mason's and plasterer's business. Moxon has an express treatise on the art of brick-laying; in which he describes the materials, tools, and method of working, used by brick-layers. Great care is to be taken, that bricks be laid joint on joint in the middle of the walls as seldom as may be; and that there be good bond made there; as well as on the outsides. Some brick-layers, in working a brick and half wall, lay the header on one side of the wall perpendicular to the header on the other side, and so all along the whole course; whereas, if the header on one side of the wall were toothed as much as the stretchers on the other side, it would be a stronger toothing, and the joints of the headers of one side would be in the stretchers of the other side.

course they lie upon of the other side. If bricks be laid in winter, let them be kept as dry as possible, if in summer, it will quit cost to employ boys to wet them, for that they will then unite with the mortar better than if dry, and will make the work stronger. In large buildings, or where it is thought too much trouble to dip all the bricks separately, water may be thrown on each course after they are laid, as was done at the building the physician's college, by order of Dr Hooke. If brick are laid in summer, they are to be covered; for if the mortar dries too hastily, it will not bind so firmly to the bricks as when left to dry more gradually. If the bricks be laid in winter, they should also be covered well, to protect them from rain, snow and frost; which last is a mortal enemy to mortar, especially to all such as have been wetted just before the frost assaults it.

BRICKLEHAMPTON, a village in Worcestershire, near Pershore.

BRICKLESEY, near Mersey isle, Essex.

BRICKLEY-LODGE, in Needwood forest, Staffordshire.

* **BRICK-MAKER**. *n. f.* [from *brick* and *make*.] One whose trade it is to make bricks.—They are common in claypits; but the *brickmakers* pick them out of the clay. *Woodward*.

BRICK-MAKING is mostly performed at some small distance from cities and towns; and though some, through ignorance, look upon it as a very mean employment, because laborious, yet the masters about London, and other capital cities, are generally men of substance. See **BRICKS**, § IV.

BRICK-RIVER, a river in Kerry, Ireland.

BRICKTON, a town in Hampshire, near Fording-
-Bridge.

BRICKY, a river of Ireland, in Waterford.

BRICOIL, or } The rebound of a ball, after a
BRICOLE, } side stroke at tennis.

BRICOLS, engines used before the invention of gun-powder to batter the walls of towns and castles.

(1.) * **BRIDAL**. *adj.* [from *bride*.] Belonging to a wedding; nuptial; connubial.—

Our wedding cheer to a sad fun'ral feast,
Our solemn hymns to sullen dirges change,
Our *bridal* flowers served for a buried corse.

Shakespeare.

Come, I will bring thee to thy *bridal* chamber.

Shakespeare.

The amorous birds of night

Sung spousal, and bid haste the ev'ning star,
On his hill-top to light the *bridal* lamp. *Milt.*

Your ill-meaning politician lords,
Under pretence of *bridal* friends and guests,
Appointed to await me thirty spies. *Milton.*

When to my arms thou brought'st my virgin love,

Fair angels sung our *bridal* hymn above. *Dryd.*
With all the pomp of woe, and sorrows
pride!

Oh, early lost! oh, fitter to be led
In cheerful splendour to the *bridal* bed. *Walsh.*

For her the spouse prepares the *bridal* ring,
For her white virgins hymeneals sing. *Pope.*

(2.) * **BRIDAL**. *n. f.* The nuptial festival.—
Nay, we must think, men are not gods;

Nor of them look for such observance always,
As fits the *bridal*. *Shakespeare's Othello.*

Sweet day, so cool, so calm, so bright,
The *bridal* of the earth and sky,
Sweet dew shall weep thy fall to-night;

For thou must die. *Herbert.*

In death's dark bow'rs our *brideals* we will
keep,

And his cold hand

Shall draw the curtain when we go to sleep.

Dryden.

BRIDDISTOW, a village in Devonshire, 4 m.
SW. of Oakhampton.

(1.) * **BRIDE**. *n. f.* [*bruid*, Saxon; *bruder*, in
Runick, signifies a beautiful woman.] A woman
new married.—

Held me mine own love's praises to resound,
Ne let the fame of any be envy'd;

So Orpheus did for his own *bride*. *Spenser.*

The day approach'd, when fortune should
decide

Th' important enterprize, and give the *bride*.

Dryden.

These are tributes due from pious *brides*,
From a chaste matron, and a virtuous wife.

Smith.

(2.) **BRIDES**, ANCIENT CUSTOMS RESPECTING.
Among the ancient Greeks, it was customary for the bride to be conducted from her father's house to her husband's in a chariot, the evening being chosen for that purpose, to conceal her blushes; she was placed in the middle, her husband sitting on one side, and one of her most intimate friends on the other; torches were carried before her, and she was entertained in the passage with a song suitable to the occasion. When they arrived at their journey's end, the axle tree of the coach they rode in was burnt, to signify that the bride was never to return to her father's house.—Among the Romans, the bride was to seem to be ravaged by force from her mother, in memory of the rape of the Sabines under Romulus; she was to be carried home in the night to the bridegroom's house, accompanied by 3 boys, one of whom carried a torch, and the other two led the bride; a spindle and distaff being carried with her: she brought 3 pieces of money, called *asses*, in her hand to the bridegroom, whose doors on this occasion were adorned with flowers and branches of trees; being here interrogated who she was, she was to answer *Caia*, in memory of Caia Cecilia, wife of Tarquin the Elder, who was an excellent spinster; for the like reason, before her entrance, she lined the door posts with wool, and smeared them with grease. Fire and water being set on the threshold, she touched both; but starting back from the door, refused to enter, till at length she passed the threshold, being careful to step over without touching it: here the keys were given her, a nuptial supper was prepared for her, and minstrels to divert her; she was seated on the figure of a priapus, and here the attendant boys resigned her to the *probrue*, who brought her into the nuptial chamber and put her to bed. This office was to be performed by matrons who had only been once married, to denote that the marriage was to be for perpetuity.

* **BRIDE**.

* **BRIDEBED.** *n. f.* [from *bride* and *bed*.] Marriage bed.—

Now until break of day,
Through this house each fairy stray;
To the best *bridebed* will we,
Which by us shall blessed be. *Shakespeare.*
Could David's son, religious, just and brave
To the first *bridebed* of the world receive
A foreigner, a heathen, and a slave? *Prior.*

* **BRIDECAKE.** *n. f.* [from *bride* and *cake*.] A cake distributed to the guests at the wedding.—

With the phant'ies of hey troll,
Troll about the bridal *bridecake*
Round about the bride's stake. *Ben Jonson.*

The writer, resolved to try his fortune, fasted
1 day, and, that he might be sure of dreaming
on something at night, procured an handsome
piece of *bridecake*, which he placed very conveni-
ently under his pillow. *Spectator.*

(1.) * **BRIDEGROOM.** *n. f.* [from *bride* and
room.] A new married man.—

As are those dulcet sounds in break of day,
That creep into the dreaming *bridegroom's* ear.
And summon him to marriage. *Shakespeare.*

Why, happy *bridegroom*!
Why dost thou steal so soon away to bed?

Dryden.

(2.) **BRIDEGROOMS, ANCIENT CUSTOMS RE-
PECTING.** The Spartan bridegrooms commit-
ted a kind of rape upon their brides. For mat-
rimony being agreed on between them, the woman
contrived and managed the match, having
wound the bride's hair close to her skin, dressed
up in man's clothes, and left her upon a mat-
tress; this done, in came the bridegroom, in his
wedding dress, having supped as ordinary, and steal-
ing as privately as he could to the room where
the bride lay, and untying her virgin girdle, took
her to his embraces; and having stayed a short
time with her returned to his companions, with
whom he continued to spend his life, remaining
with them by night as well as by day, unless he
took a short visit to his bride, which could not be
done without a great deal of circumspection, and
care of being discovered. Among the Romans,
the bridegroom was decked to receive his bride;
his hair was combed and cut in a particular form;
he had a coronet or chaplet on his head and was
dressed in a white garment. By the ancient can-
ons, the bridegroom was to forbear the enjoy-
ment of his bride the first night, in honour of the
nuptial benediction given by the priest on that
night. In Scotland, and some parts of England, a
very shameful custom anciently prevailed, called
reiver, whereby the lord of the manor was en-
titled to the bridegroom's privilege with his ten-
ant's bride the first night. See **MARSHET**. What
terrible oppression must the lower classes have
laboured under, when such iniquity was esta-
blished by law!

BRIDEKIRK, a village in Cumberland, 3 m.
N. of Cockermouth.

BRIDEMAIDS. *n. f.* The attendants on the
bride.

BRIDEMEN. *n. m.* The attendants on the
bridegroom.

BRIDEMIF. in the Persian Tables, the name
of the constellation, *LUPUS*, or the Wolf.

BRIDENBURY, a village in Herefordshire,
near Bromyard.

BRIDE-RIVER, a river of Ireland, in Cork.
BRIDE, ST. two villages in Monmouthshire.
1. near Iston: 2. S. of Tredgar.

BRIDE'S BAY, ST. a bay on the coast of Pem-
broke-shire, where ships anchor at 7 fathoms wa-
ter.

BRIDE'S, ST. a town near Caernarvon.

* **BRIDESTAKE.** *n. f.* [from *bride* and *stake*.]
It seems to be a post set in the ground, to dance
round, like a maypole.—

Round about the *bride-stake*. *Ben Jonson.*

(1.) * **BRIDEWELL.** *n. f.* [The palace built by
St *Bride's*, or *Bridget's well*, was turned into a
workhouse.] A house of correction.—He would
contribute more to reformation than all the work-
houses and *Bridewells* in Europe. *Spectator.*

(2.) **BRIDEWELL**, is also a workhouse for vag-
rants, strumpets, and other disorderly persons:
who are made to work; being maintained with
clothing and diet; and when it seems good to
their governors, they are sent by passes into their
native countries. While they remain in Bridewell
they are not only made to work, but, according
to their crimes, receive, once a fortnight, such a
number of stripes as the governor commands.

(3.) **BRIDEWELL**, near Fleet-street, is a foun-
dation of a mixt and singular nature, partaking
of the hospital, the prison, and workhouse; it
was founded in 1553, by Edward VI. who gave
the place where K. John formerly kept his court,
and which had been repaired by Henry VIII. to
the city of London, with 700 merks of land, bed-
ding, and other furniture. Several youths are
sent to the hospital as apprentices to manufac-
turers, who reside there; they are clothed in blue
doublets and breeches, with white hats. Having
faithfully served for 7 years, they have their free-
dom, and a donation of L. 10 each, for carrying
on their respective trades.

(4.) **BRIDEWELL, EDINBURGH**, is seated on
the Calton hill. The foundation stone was laid
Nov. 30, 1791: and the first prisoners admitted
in 1794. The expence was L. 12,000.

(1. 1.) * **BRIDGE.** *n. f.* [*bric*, Sax.] 1. A building
raised over the water for convenience of passage.

What need the *bridge* much broader than the
flood. *Shakespeare.*

And proud Araxes, whom no *bridge* could
bind. *Dryden.*

2. The upper part of the nose.—The raising gently
the *bridge* of the nose, doth prevent the deformi-
ty of a saddle nose. *Bacon.* 3. The supporter of
the strings in stringed instruments of musick.

(2.) **BRIDGE**, in architecture, is a work either
of stone or timber, consisting of one or more
arches built over a river, canal, or the like. See
ARCHITECTURE, *Index*, **CANAL**, and **MACHA-
NICS**.

(3.) **BRIDGE, CONDITIONS REQUIRED IN A**
It is requisite that a bridge be well designed, com-
modious, durable, and suitably decorated. The
piers of stone bridges should be so placed, that
there may be one pier between every two arches,
commonly the current is so regulated, that the
force is not too great on the piers, and the
of the arch, the common way of building
bridges, to prevent the water from being too
strongly driven against the piers.

strongest arches are those whose sweep is a whole semicircle; as the piers of bridges always diminish the bed of a river, in case of inundations, the bed must be sunk or hollowed in proportion to the space taken up by the piers, as the waters gain in depth what they lose in breadth, which otherwise conduce to wash away the foundation and endanger the piers: to prevent this, they sometimes diminish the current, either by lengthening its course, or by making it more winding, or by stopping the bottom with rows of planks, stakes, or piles, which break the current.

(4.) BRIDGE, ESSENTIAL PARTS OF A. These are, the piers; the arches; the pavement, or way over for cattle and carriages; the foot way on each side, for foot-passengers; the rail or parapet, which incloses the whole; and the buttments or ends of the bridge on the bank.

(5.) BRIDGE, IRON. See § 9. N° vi.

(5.) BRIDGES, ANCIENT. The first inventor of bridges, as well as of ships and crowns, is by some learned men supposed to be Janus: their reason is, that on several ancient Greek, Sicilian, and Italian coins, there are represented on one side a Janus, with two faces; and on the other a bridge, crown or a ship. Bridges are a sort of edifices very difficult to execute on account of the inconvenience of laying foundations and walling under water. The earliest rules and instructions relating to the building of bridges are given by Leon Babbista Alberti. *Archit.* l. viii. Others were afterwards laid down by Palladio, l. iii. Serlio, l. iii. c. 4. and Scammozzi, l. v. all of which are collected by M. Blondel, *Cours d'Archit.* p. 629, *seq.* The best of them are given by Goldman, *Baukunst*, l. iv. c. 4. p. 134. and Hawkesmoor's History of London bridge, p. 26, *seq.* M. Gautier has a piece express on bridges, ancient and modern; *Trait des Ponts*, Paris 1716, 12mo. Among the Romans, the building and repairing of bridges was first committed to the pontifices or priests; whence the epithet, *pontifex*. i. e. a bridge-maker; then to the censors, or curators of the roads; lastly, the emperors took the care of bridges into their own hands. Thus Antoninus Pius built the Pons Janiculensis of marble; Gordian restored the Pons Cestius; and Adrian built a new one denominated from him. In the middle age, bridge building was reckoned among the acts of religion; and a regular order of Hospitalers was founded by St Benezet, towards the end of the 12th century, under the denomination of *pontifices*, or bridge-builders, whose office it was to be assistant to travellers, by making bridges, settling ferries and receiving strangers in hospitals, or houses built on the banks of rivers. We read of one hospital of this kind at Avignon, where the hospitallers dwelt under the direction of their first superior St Benezet. The Jesuit Raynaldus has a treatise express on St John the bridge-builder. Among the bridges of antiquity, that built by Trajan over the Danube is allowed to be the most magnificent.

(7.) BRIDGES, FLOATING, are ordinarily made of two small bridges, laid one over the other, so that the uppermost stretches and runs out, by the help of cords running through pulleys placed along the sides of the under bridge, which pull it for-

wards till the end of it joins the place it is designed to be fixed on. When these two bridges are stretched out to their full length, so that the two middle ends meet, they are not to be above 4 or 5 fathoms long; for if longer, they will break.—Their chief use is for surprising out-works, or posts that have but narrow moats. In the memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences we find an ingenious contrivance of a floating bridge, which lays itself on the other side of the river.

(8.) BRIDGES, FLYING, *Pontes du Flo-ii*, an appellation given to bridges made of pontoons, leather boats, hollow beams, casks, or the like, laid on a river, and covered with planks, for the passage of an army. A flying bridge, *pont volant*, more particularly denotes a bridge composed of one or two boats joined together by a sort of flooring, and surrounded with a rail or balustrade; having also one or more masts, to which is fastened a cable, supported at proper distances, by boats, and extended to an anchor, to which the other end is fastened, in the middle of the water: by which contrivance the bridge becomes moveable, like a pendulum from one side of the river to the other, without any other help than the rudder.—Such bridges sometimes also consist of two stories, for the quicker passage of a great number of men, or that both infantry and cavalry may pass at the same time. In *Plate XLIV*, is represented a flying bridge of this kind. *Fig. 1.* gives a perspective view of the course of a river and its two banks. *a, b, c, d*, Two long boats or batteaux, which support the flying bridge. *GH, KL*, two masts joined at their tops by two transverse pieces, or beams, and a central arch, and supported in a vertical position by two pair of shrouds and two chains *LN, HR*. *M*, a horse, or cross piece, over which the rope or cable *M, F, e, f*, that rides or holds the bridge against the current, passes. *E*, a roll or windlass round which the rope *M, F, e, f*, is wound. *a, b*, The rudders. *AB*, and *CD*, two portions of bridges of boats fastened to the bank on each side, and between which the flying bridge moves in passing from one side of the river to the other. *e, f*, Chains supported by two punts, or small flat-bottomed boats; there are 5 or 6 of these punts at a about 40 fathoms from one another. The first, or farthest from the bridge, is moored with anchors in the middle of the bed of the river. *Fig. 2.* Is a plan of the same bridge. *a, b, c, d*, The two boats that support it. *K* and *G*, the two masts. *K F G*, the transverse pieces or beam over which the cable passes. *E*, the roll, or windlass, round which the rope or cable is wound. *a, b*, The rudders. *O*, a boat. *e*, One of the punts, or small flat-bottomed boats that support the chain. *N, N*, pumps for extracting the water out of the boats. *P, P*, capstans. *Fig. 3.* A lateral elevation of the bridge. *a, c*, One of the boats. *b*, The rudder. *E*, the roll, or windlass. *M*, The horse, or cross-piece. *G H*, One of the masts. *E, M, H, F*, The cable. In this view the balustrade running along the side of the bridge is plainly exhibited. *Fig. 4.* Elevation of the hinder or stern part of the bridge. *a, b*, The two boats. *G H, K L*, The two masts. *H L*, The upper transverse beam. *p, q*, The lower transverse beam, or that over which the cable passes, and on which

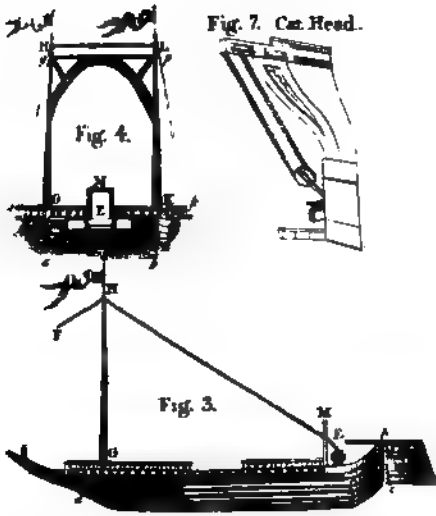


Fig. 7. Car Head.



Fig. 8. Burroughs' Machine.

Fig. 10. Burroughs' Machine.



Fig. 9.



It slides from one mast to the other; this beam is therefore always kept well greased. *p, k, g, g,* Shrouds extending from the sides of the bridge to the tops of the masts. *M,* The horse or cross-piece, over which the cable passes to the roll or windle's E.

(9.) **BRIDGES, MODERN.** Amongst the numerous bridges erected in modern times, we think the following merit particular notice: viz.

i. **BRIDGE OF BLACKFRIARS,** situated near the centre of London, and built according to a plan drawn by Mr Robert Mylne. It is an exceeding light and elegant structure. The arches are only 9 in number; but very large, and of an elliptical form. The centre arch is 100 feet wide; those on the sides decrease in a regular gradation; and the width of that near the abutment at each end is 70 feet. It has an open balustrade at the top, and a foot way on each side, with room for 3 carriages abreast in the middle. It has also recesses on the sides for the foot passengers, each supported by two lofty Ionic columns.

ii. **BRIDGE OF LONDON,** consists of 20 locks or arches, 19 of which are open, and one filled up, or obscured. It is 900 feet long, 60 high, and 70 broad, with almost 20 feet aperture in each arch. It is supported by 18 piers, from 25 to 34 feet thick; so that the greatest water way when the tide is above the sterlings is 450 feet, scarce half the width of the river; and below the sterlings, the water-way is reduced to 194 feet. Thus a river 900 feet wide is here forced through a channel of 194 feet. London bridge was first built of timber, some time before the year 994, by a college of priests, to whom the profits of the ferry of St Mary Overy's had descended; it was repaired, or rather new built of timber, in 1163. The stone bridge was begun by king Henry in 1176, and finished by king John in 1209. The architect was Peter of Colechurch, a priest. For the keeping it in repair, a large house is allotted, with a great number of offices, and a vast revenue in land, &c. The chief officers are two bridge-masters, chosen yearly out of the body of the livery. The defects of this bridge are the narrowness and irregularity of the arches, and the largeness of the piers, which, together with the sterlings, turn the current of the Thames into many turbulent cataracts, which must obstruct and endanger the navigation through the bridge. The sterlings have been added, to hinder the piers from being undermined by the rotting of the piles on which they are built: for by means of these sterlings the piles are kept constantly wet; and thus the timber is kept from decaying, which always happens when it is suffered to be alternately wet and dry.

iii. **BRIDGE OF PERTH.** It would doubtless appear an unpardonable omission in an *ENCYCLOPEDIA PERTHENSIS*, were we to say nothing, under this article of the bridge of Perth. Mr Dunbar, minister of Kinnoul gives the following account of it. "The old bridge over the Tay, at this place, having been carried away by a great flood in the river, in the year 1621, the communication between Kinnoul and Perth, was afterwards carried on by means of ferry boats, which were always attended with considerable inconvenience

and expence; and frequently with great danger. No fewer than 30 boats, and as many boat-men, were employed on this ferry, as it was one of the most frequented passes in Scotland. Some of these boats were occasionally employed as lighters, for vessels in the river. In this state things continued until 1765, when a subscription for a new bridge was opened, chiefly by the patronage of the late Earl of Kinnoul, to whose patriotic exertions, it is well known, the present bridge over the Tay at Perth, owed its existence. It was reared under his auspices; he pledged a considerable part of his private fortune to carry on the work; and it will remain a lasting monument to the honour of that great and worthy nobleman. The subscription soon amounted to L 11,498 : 17 : 6, of which government furnished no less a sum than L 4000. The foundation stone was laid on the 13th September 1766, by its principal promoter, the Earl of Kinnoul, in presence of the sheriff-depute of the county, the provost and magistrates of Perth, and several other gentlemen, amidst the applauses of thousands of spectators. The bridge was completed, and the last of the workmen paid off, 13th of November 1771. The Earl of Errol's coach was the first that passed along the bridge, in the winter between 1770 and 1771. The plan was drawn by Mr Smeaton architect, and the work executed according to his orders, by Messrs Guyn, Morton, and Jamieson. The bridge consists of ten arches, one of which is a land arch. The clear water way, is 589 feet 9 inches. The extent of all the arches, 730'9. The wing walls, 176. So that the total length of the bridge is 906 feet 9 inches; and to the credit of the architect and undertakers, it has remained hitherto firm and unshaken. The utility of this bridge is not confined to Perth and its neighbourhood, but extends to the country at large; as all are more or less concerned in an easy and safe communication, at so central a situation, between the northern and southern parts of Scotland. The whole expence of the bridge, was L 26,446 : 12 : 3."

iv. **BRIDGE OF SUNDERLAND.** The IRON BRIDGE over the Wear, at Sunderland, in Durham, is quite a new invention in bridge-building. An obliging correspondent has favoured us with the following description of it. "The principles, upon which this stupendous work is constructed, are entirely different from those of any former bridge which has been attempted with the same materials: It does not consist of long ribs of metal, which rest upon the abutments, and approach towards the centre; but it is built upon the principles of a stone arch; the inventor availing himself of the power, which cast iron afforded him, of rendering the arch infinitely lighter than it could have been, if constructed of stone, by reason of the great voids which that metal will permit, and the ease with which it can be made to adopt any form. The blocks, which serve as arch stones, are cast of the shape and dimensions delineated on *Plate XLI. Fig. 6.* Their thickness is only 4 inches, and they weigh about 400 weight each; they are bound together by bars of wrought iron, which run along the grooves, *a a a*, on each side of the blocks, and are bolted through at equal distances, to cross braces of cast iron, passing be-

tween the ribs; of 6 of which, placed 5 feet from each other, the bridge consists. The spandrels are filled up with iron circles, gradually diminishing from the sides towards the centre; the whole is braced and tied together at top by a strong frame of timber, on which a lead roof and the material of the road are laid. The span of the arch is 236 feet; its height, from the surface of the river at low water, is 100 feet; spring of the arch 33 feet, and the breadth 32. The whole weight of iron is 250 tons, 210 of which are cast, and 40 tons wrought iron. It is worthy of remark, that the whole of the metal part of the bridge was put together in 12 days. The iron work was cast by Messrs Walker and Co. of Rotherham, under the direction of Rowland Burdon, Esq. M. P. the inventor and patentee. The foundation stone was laid Sept. 24th, 1793, and the bridge was opened for the use of the public, August 9th, 1796.

V. BRIDGE OF WESTMINSTER. Among modern bridges, that of Westminster, built over the river Thames, may be accounted one of the finest in the world: it is 44 feet wide, a commodious foot way being allowed for passengers, on each side, of about 7 feet broad, raised above the road allowed for carriages, and paved with broad moor-stones, while the space left behind them is sufficient to admit three carriages and two horses to go a-breast, without any danger. Its extent from wharf to wharf is 1220 or 1223 feet, being full 300 feet longer than London bridge. The free water-way under the arches of this bridge is 870 feet, being 4 times as much as the free water-way left between the sterlings of London bridge: this disposition, together with the gentleness of the stream, are the chief reasons why no sensible fall of water can ever stop, or in the least endanger, the smallest boats in their passage through the arches. It consists of 13 large and 2 small arches, together with 14 intermediate piers. Each pier terminates with a salient right angle against either stream: the two middle piers are each 17 feet in thickness at the springing of the arches, and contain 3000 cubic feet, or near 200 tons, of solid stone; and the others decrease in width equally on each side by one foot. All the arches of this bridge are semicircular; they all spring from about two feet above low-water mark; the middle arch is 76 feet wide, and the others decrease in breadth equally on each side by 4 feet. This bridge is built of the best materials; and the size and disposition of these materials are such, that there is no false bearing, or so much as a false joint in the whole structure; (See ARCHITECTURE, INDEX;) besides that it is built in a neat and elegant taste, and with such simplicity and grandeur, that, whether viewed from the water, or by the passengers who walk over it, it fills the mind with an agreeable surprize. The semioc-tangular towers which form the recesses of the foot-way, the manner of placing the lamps, and the height of the balustrade, are at once the most beautiful, and, in every other respect, the best contrived.

VI. BRIDGES, EXTRAORDINARY. The longest bridge in England is that over the Trent at Burton, built by Bernard abbot of Burton, in the 12th

is all of squared free stone, strong and

lofty, 1545 feet in length, and consisting of 30 arches. Yet this comes far short of the wooden bridge over the Drave, which according to Dr Brown is at least 5 miles long. But the most singular bridge in Europe is that built over the Tave in Glamorganshire. It consists of one stupendous arch, the diameter of which is 175 feet, the chord 140, the altitude 35, and the abutments 32. This magnificent arch was built by William Edward, a poor country mason, in 1756. The famous bridge of Venice, called the RIALTO, consists of but a single arch, and that a flat or low one, and passed for a masterpiece of art. It was built in 1591, on the design of Michael Angelo; the span of the arch is 98½ feet, and its height above the water only 23.—Poulet mentions a bridge of a single arch in the city of Munster in Bothnia, much bolder than that of the Rialto at Venice. But these are nothing to a bridge in China, built from one mountain to another, consisting of a single arch 400 cubits long and 500 in height, whence it is called the *flying bridge*. A figure of it is given in the Philosophical Transactions. Kircher also speaks of a bridge in the same country, 360 perches long, and supported by 300 pillars.

VII. BRIDGES OF EDINBURGH. These bridges differ from most other bridges in being built, not over waters, but dry land. They are distinguished by the names of the North and South Bridge, and afford an easy and elegant communication, between the inhabitants of the New Town, and those in the extended royalty, and the suburbs on each side of it. They have contributed very much to the rapid improvement of the metropolis of Scotland since they were erected. See EDINBURGH. There is also a bridge of communication towards the castle between the Old and New Town, consisting of an immense mound of earth, above 800 feet in length, across a deep morass;—"a work unrivalled, (says Mr Creech, in his account of Edinburgh,) by any but Alexander the Great's at Tyre." *Sir J. S's Stat. Acc.* VI. 585.

(10.) BRIDGES, NATURAL, are such as are not constructed by art, but the result of some operation of nature. Our own country is not destitute of these natural curiosities. The rev. Mr Arkle in his account of the parish of Castletown in Roxburghshire, gives the following description of a natural bridge in that parish. "One of the greatest curiosities," (says he,) "to be seen in this country, or perhaps in Scotland, is a bridge of stone over the river Blackburn. It stretches across the stream, and joins the hills on each side. It is 55 feet long, 10 feet wide, and the thickness of the arch is 2 feet 4 inches of solid stone. It is not composed of one entire rock, but has the appearance of many stones, about a foot and a half square, set neatly together. The bridge slopes a little downwards, and the water rushes under the arch, through an opening of 31 feet." (*Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. Vol. XVI. p. 79.*) We have already described another on the coast of Caithness. See BORROWSTON. Mr Jefferson, (now vice-president of the United States of America,) gives a particular description of a most wonderful work of this kind, in his *State of Virginia*. It is on the ascent of a hill, which seems to have been cloven through its length by some great convul-

son. The fissure, just at the bridge, is, by some admeasurements, 270 feet deep, by others only 205. It is about 45 feet wide at the bottom, and 90 feet at the top; this of course determines the length of the bridge, and its height from the water. Its breadth in the middle is about 60 feet, but more at the ends, and the thickness of the mass at the summit of the arch about 40 feet. A part of this thickness is constituted by a coat of earth, which gives growth to many large trees. The residue, with the hill on both sides, is one solid rock of lime-stone. The arch approaches the semi-elliptical form; but the larger axis of the ellipse, which would be the cord of the arch, is much longer than the transverse. Though the sides of this bridge are provided in some parts with a parapet of fixed rocks, yet few men have a resolution to walk to them and look over into the abyss. One involuntarily falls on his hands and feet, creeps to the parapet, and peeps over it. Looking down from this height about a minute, gave Mr Jefferson a violent headach. If the view from the top be painful and intolerable, that from below is delightful in an equal extreme. It is impossible for the emotion arising from the sublime to be felt beyond what they are here: so beautiful an arch, so elevated, so light, and springing as it were up to heaven, the rapture of the spectator is really indescribable! The fissure continuing narrow, deep, and straight for a considerable distance above and below the bridge, opens a short but very pleasing view of the North mountains on one side and Blue-ridge on the other, at the distance of about 5 miles each. This bridge is in the county of Rockbridge, to which it has given name, and affords a public and commodious passage over a valley, which cannot be crossed elsewhere for a considerable distance. The stream passing under it is called CEDAR-CREEK. It is a water of James River, and sufficient in the driest seasons to turn a grist mill, though its fountain is not more than two miles above. Don Ulloa mentions a break similar to this, in the province of Angaraez, in South America. It is from 16 to 21 feet wide, 111 feet deep, and of 1.3 miles continuance, English measure. Its breadth at top is not sensibly greater than at bottom. Don Ulloa inclines to the opinion, that this channel has been effected by the wearing of the water which runs through it, rather than that the mountain should have been broken open by any convulsion of nature. But if it had been worn by the running of water, would not the rocks which form the sides have been worn plain? Or if, meeting in some parts with veins of harder stone, the water had left prominences on one side, would not the same cause have sometimes, or perhaps generally, occasioned prominences on the other side also? Yet Don Ulloa tells us, that on the other side there are always corresponding cavities, and that these tally with the prominences so perfectly, that, were the two sides to come together, they would fit in all their indentures, without leaving any void. In fact, this does not resemble the effect of running water, but looks rather as if the two sides had parted asunder. The sides of the break, over which is the Natural bridge of Virginia, consisting of a veiny rock which yields to time, the corre-

spondence between the salient and re-entering qualities, if it existed at all, has now disappeared. This break has the advantage of the one described by Don Ulloa in its finest circumstance; no portion in that instance having held together, during the separation of the other parts, so as to form a bridge over the abyss.

(11.) BRIDGES OF BOATS are either made of copper or wooden boats, fastened with stakes or anchors, and laid over with planks. One of the most notable exploits of Julius Cæsar was his expeditious making a bridge of boats over the Rhine. Modern armies carry copper or tin boats, called *pontoons*, to be in readiness for making bridges; several of these being joined side by side till they reach across the river, and planks laid over them, make a plane for the men to march on. There are fine bridges of boats at Beaucaire and Rouen, which rise and fall with the water; and that at Seville is said to exceed them both. The bridge of boats at Rouen, built in lieu of the stately stone bridge erected there by the Romans, is represented by a modern writer as the wonder of the present age. It always floats, and rises and falls with the tide, or as the land waters fill the river. It is near 300 yards long, and is paved with stone, like streets; carriages with the greatest burdens go over it with ease, and men and horses with safety, though there are no rails on either hand. The boats are very firm, and well moored with strong chains, and the whole well looked after and constantly repaired, though now very old.

(12.) BRIDGES OF COMMUNICATION are those made over rivers, by which armies, or forts, separated by rivers, have a free communication with one another.

(13.) BRIDGES, PENDENT, or } are those not
BRIDGES, PHILOSOPHICAL, } supported either by posts or pillars, but hung at large in the air, only supported at the two ends or butments. Instances of such bridges are given by Palladio and others. Dr Wallis gives the design of a timber bridge 70 feet long, without any pillars, which may be useful in some places where pillars cannot be conveniently erected. Dr Plot assures us, that there was formerly a large bridge over the castle ditch at Tilbury in Staffordshire, made of pieces of timber, none much above a yard long, and yet not supported underneath either with pillars or archwork, or any sort of prop whatever.

(14.) BRIDGES, RUSHEN, &c. *Ponts de jonc*, are made of large sheaves of rushes growing in marshy grounds, which they cover with boards or planks; they serve for crossing ground that is boggy, miry, or rotten. The Romans had also a sort of subitaneous bridges made by the soldiers, of boats, or sometimes of casks, leathern bottles, or bags, or even of bullocks bladders blown up and fastened together, called *ascogafri*. M. Couplet gives the figure of a portable bridge 200 feet long, easily taken asunder and put together again, and which 40 men may carry. Frezier speaks of a wonderful kind of bridge at Apurima in Lima, made of ropes, formed of the bark of a tree.

(II.) BRIDGE, in geography, the name of two villages; 1. in Kent, 4 miles S. E. of Canterbury: 2. in Westmoreland, near Appleby.

(III.) BRIDGE, in gunnery, the two pieces of timber

timber which go between the two transoms of a gun-carriage, on which the bed rests.

(IV.) BRIDGE, in music. See § 1. *def.* 3. The bridge of a violin is about one inch and a quarter high, and near an inch and a half long.

* To BRIDGE, *v. a.* [from the noun.] To raise a bridge over any place.—

Came to the sea; and over Hellepont

Bridging his way, Europe with Asia join'd. Milt.

BRIDGE-BOTE, *n. s.* a tax formerly levied for repairing bridges.

BRIDGE-BUILDING, *n. s.* the art of building bridges. See ARCHITECTURE, INDEX, and BRIDGE, § 1, 3.

BRIDGE-COURT, a village in E. Medina, in the Isle of Wight.

BRIDGE-END, a thriving village of Perthshire, in the parish of Kinnoul, situated at the E. end of Perth bridge, along the eastern banks of the Tay, at the foot of Kinnoul hill. In 1794-5, by the rev. Mr Dunbar's report to Sir J. Sinclair, it consisted of 98 houses; some of which rent at 50l. a-year, and many of them at 10l. and upwards. It has a tannery, a brewery, and a malt-house; in the last of which 2008 bolls of barley were malted in 1794; which paid 761l. 10s. 9d. of duty. By the Earl of Kinnoul's charter, this village is appointed to be called *the burgh of Kinnoul*.

(1.) BRIDGEFORD, a village in Devonshire, 4 miles E. of Chagford.

(2.) BRIDGEFORD, EAST, in Nottinghamshire, N. of Bingham.

(3.) BRIDGEFORD, GREAT, and } 3 miles N. W.

(4.) BRIDGEFORD, LITTLE, } of Stafford.

(5.) BRIDGEFORD, WEST, near Nottingham.

BRIDGEHAM, near E. Harling, Norfolkshire.

BRIDGEHAMPTON, a post town of New-York, in Suffolk county, Long Island, between E. and S. Hampton; 106 miles from Philadelphia. It has a presbyterian church.

BRIDGEHOUSE BAY, a bay on the coast of Kirkcudbright, where vessels of light burden anchor occasionally.

BRIDGE-MASTER, *n. s.* one who is entrusted with the care of a bridge, to keep it in repair.

BRIDGEMORE, a village in Cheshire, 6 miles S. E. of Nantwich.

(1.) BRIDGEND, a town of S. Wales in Glamorganshire, seated on the Ogmor, which divides it into two parts, connected by a bridge. It is 7 miles W. by N. of Cowbridge, 27 from Cardiff, and 177½ W. from London. It has a considerable market on Saturday for cattle and provisions: with 2 fairs on 17 November and Holy Thursday. Lon. 3. 38. W. Lat. 51. 30. N.

(2.) BRIDGEND, a village of Scotland in Kirkcudbrightshire, in the parish of Troquire, containing 1302 inhabitants, in 1790.

(3.) BRIDGEND. See BRIDGE-END.

BRIDGENORTH, or BRUGES, a town of Shropshire, seated on the Severn, which divides it into two parts, united by a handsome stone bridge, and called the *upper* and *lower town*. It is said to have been built by Ethelfleda, widow of Ethelred king of the Mercians, about A. D. 675. Robert de Belizma, son of Robert de Montgomery, built the castle, and maintained it against King Henry I. by which means it was forfeited to

the crown, and remained so till the reign of Richard III. who gave it to John Sutton lord Dudley. This town has undergone several sieges; and in the civil war it suffered very much, many fine buildings, and the whole town, being almost destroyed by fire, when Sir Lewis Kirke defended the citadel for king Charles. There are now no other remains of the castle than a small part of the towers, and a place yet called the *castle*, within the walls of the old one; within which stands one of the churches, dedicated to St Mary Magdalen, which was made a free chapel, and exempted from episcopal jurisdiction. The other church is at the N. end of the town, on the highest part of the hill. Near its church-yard stood a college, which was burnt during the civil wars, together with the church, which has been since rebuilt by the inhabitants. On the W. bank of the river are the remains of a magnificent convent, under which were several remarkable vaults and caverns running to a great length. Part of the cow-gate street is a rock, rising perpendicularly, in which are several houses and tenements that make a very agreeable grotesque appearance. In many other places there are also caves and dwellings for families, in the rocks; and indeed the whole town has an appearance surprisingly singular. This town sends two members to parliament. It is 20 miles W. by N. of Birmingham, and 139 N. W. of London. Lon. 2. 28. W. Lat. 52. 36. N.

BRIDGEREVEL, a village in Devonshire, W. of Houlsworth.

BRIDGERULE, in Cornwall, near Devonshire.

BRIDGESELLERS, W. of Hereford.

BRIDGESTOCK, in Northamptonshire, near

Oundle, 3 miles from Thrapston. It has fairs May 6, September 5, and November 22.

BRIDGET, or BRIGIT, St, a Swedish lady of the 14th century, famous for her revelations, and for being the founder of the order of the BRIGITTINES. Some represent her as a queen, but Fabricius on better grounds, says she was only a princess, and the daughter of king Birgenes of Upland.

BRIDGETINES. See BRIGITTINES.

BRIDGETON, or } a thriving village in

(1.) BRIDGETOWN, } the barony of Glasgow, containing, along with that of Calton, 6693 inhabitants, in 1792.

(2.) BRIDGETOWN, a town of England, in Warwickshire, near Stratford upon Avon.

(3.) BRIDGETOWN, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

(4.) BRIDGETOWN, in Clare, 90 m. from Dublin.

(5.) BRIDGETOWN, a town of Maryland, in the eastern shore, seated on the Chester, partly in Kent, and partly in Queen Anne's county. It is 14 miles E. by N. of the town of Chester, and 65 S. W. of Philadelphia.

(6.) BRIDGETOWN, a town of New-Jersey, 74 miles from Philadelphia.

(7.) BRIDGETOWN, a village of Scotland, in Fife-shire, 2 miles N. E. of Kinghorn.

(8.) BRIDGE-TOWN, the capital of Barbadoes, situated in the inmost part of Carlisle bay, which is capable of containing 500 ships. This was originally a most unwholesome situation, and was chosen entirely for its convenience for trade; but is now deemed as healthy as any place in the island. The town would make a figure in any European

European kingdom. It contains 1500 houses, and some contend that it is the finest the British possess in America. The houses in general are well built and finished, and their rent as high as such houses would let for in London. The wharfs and quays are well defended from the sea, and very convenient. The harbour is secured from the N. E. wind, which is the constant trade wind there. But what renders Bridge-town the finest and most desirable town in the West Indies, is its security against the attacks from foreign enemies. It is defended on the W. by James fort, which mounts 18 guns. Near this is Willoughby's fort, which is built upon a tongue of land running into the sea, and mounts 12 guns. Needham's fort has three batteries, and is mounted with 20 guns; and St Anne's fort, which is the strongest in the island, stands more within land. In short, according to Mr Douglas, there is all along the lee-shore a breast-work and trench, in which, at proper places, were 29 forts and batteries, having 308 cannon mounted, while the windward shore is secured by high rocks, steep cliffs, and foul ground. Such was the state of the fortifications in 1717; but since that time they have been much strengthened. Bridge-town has all the elegancies and conveniences of life that any city of Europe can afford. The church of St Michael exceeds many English cathedrals in beauty, largeness, and convenience; and has a fine organ, bells, and clock. It has a free school for the instruction of poor boys, an hospital, and a college. The latter was erected by the society for propagating the Christian religion, in pursuance of the will of Colonel Christopher Codrington, who left about 2000 l. a year for its endowment, for maintaining professors and scholars to study and practise divinity, surgery, and physic. See CODRINGTON. Lon. 59. 36. W. Lat. 13. 5. N.

(9.) BRIDGE-TOWN, the capital of Cumberland county in New-Jersey. It is situated on Cohanzey creek, 12 miles N. E. of Greenwich. The county court is held in it quarterly. It is 54 miles S. of Philadelphia, Lon. 6. 2. E. Lat. 39. 29. N.

BRIDGEWATER, a town of Somersetshire, seated on the river Parret, over which there is a stone bridge, near which ships of 100 tons burden may ride with ease. It is a large well frequented place, and sends two members to parliament. There are in it several large inns, and the market is well supplied with provisions. It is 31 miles S. S. W. of Bristol, 137 W. by S. of London, and 1 from Star-point. Lon. 3. 10. W. Lat. 51. 7. N.

BRIDGUME, *n. s. obs.* A bridegroom.

(1.) * BRIDLE. *n. s.* [*bride*, Fr.] 1. The head-stall and reins by which a horse is restrained and governed.—

They seiz'd at last

His courser's *bridle*, and his feet embrac'd. *Dryd.*
2. A restraint; a curb; a check.—The king resolved to put that place, which some men fancied to be a *bridle* upon the city, into the hands of such a man as he might rely upon. *Clarend.*—A bright genius often betrays itself into many errors, without a continual *bridle* on the tongue. *Watts.*

(2.) BRIDLE, PARTS OF A, &c. These are the bit or snaffle; the head-stall, or leathers from the top of the head to the rings of the bit; the fillet,

over the fore-head and under the fore-top; the throat-band, which buttons from the head-band under the throat; the reins, or long thongs of leather that come from the rings of the bit, and being cast over the horse's head, the rider holds them in his hand; the nose-band, going through loops at the back of the head-stall, and buckled under the cheeks; the trench; the cavesson; the martingal; and the chaff-halter.

(3.) BRIDLES, ANCIENT ACCOUNTS OF. Pliny assures us that one Pelethronius first invented the bridle and saddle; though Virgil ascribes the invention to the Lapithæ, to whom he gives the epithet, *Pelethronii*, from a mountain in Thessaly named PELETHRONIUM, where horses were first begun to be broken. The first horsemen, not being acquainted with the art of governing horses with bridles, managed them only with a rope or a switch, and the accent of the voice. This was the practice of the Numidians, Getulians, Libyans, and Massilians. The Roman youth also learned the art of fighting without bridles, which was an exercise or lesson in the manege; and hence it is, that on the Trajan column, soldiers are represented riding at full speed without any bridles on.

(4.) BRIDLES, BOWLING. See BOWLING BRIDLES.

(5.) BRIDLES, SCOLDING. See BRANK, N° 1.

(1.) * To BRIDLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To restrain, or guide by a bridle.—

*I bridle in my struggling muse with pain,
That longs to launch into a bolder strain. Addison.*
2. To put a bridle on any thing.—

The queen of beauty stop'd her *bridled* doves;
Approv'd the little labour of the Loves. *Prior.*
3. To restrain; to govern.—The disposition of things is committed to them, whom law may at all times *bridle*, and superiour power controul. *Hooker.*

With a strong, and yet a gentle hand,
You *bridle* faction, and our hearts command.

Waller.

(2.) * To BRIDLE. *v. z.* To hold up the head.

* BRIDLEHAND. *n. s.* [from *bridle* and *hand*.] The hand which holds the bridle in riding.—In the turning, one might perceive the *bridlehand* something gently stir; but, indeed, so gently, as it did rather distil virtue than use violence. *Sidney.*—The heat of summer put his blood into a ferment, which affected his *bridlehand* with great pain. *Wisevan.*

BRIDLINGTON, or BURLINGTON, a sea-port town in the E. riding of Yorkshire. It is seated on a creek of the sea near Flamborough-head, having a commodious quay for ships to take in their lading. It has a safe harbour, and is a place of good trade. It is 36 miles N. of Hull, and 208 of London. Lon. 6. 5. W. Lat. 54. 8. N.

BRIDON, } or SNAFFLE, after the English
BRIDON, } fashion, is a very slender bit-mouth without any branches. The English make much use of them, and scarcely use any true bridles except in the service of war. The French call them *bridons*, by way of distinction from bridles.

BRIDPORT, a neat and well built sea-port town of Dorsetshire, situated between two rivers, on a small hill, 6 miles from Lyme. It sends two members to parliament, who are chosen by such of the inhabitants as are housekeepers. It is noted for

for making ropes and cables for shipping; whence arises the proverb of a man that is hanged, that he is *stabbed with a Bridport dagger*. It is 12 miles W. of Dorchester, and 135 W. by S. of London. Lon. 2. 52. W. Lat. 50. 42. N.

BRIDSTOW, a village in Herefordsh. near Ross.

- (1.) BRIDY, BONVIL's, } three English vil-
(2.) BRIDY, LITTLE, and } lages in Dorsetsh.
(3.) BRIDY, LONG, } near each other.

(1.) BRIE, a ci-devant territory of France, now comprehended in the department of Seine and Marne. It abounds in corn, cattle, and pasture; and has been long noted for excellent cheese.

(2.) BRIE, or } a town of France, in

BRIE COMTE ROBERT, } the department of Seine and Marne. The latter name is doubtless now disused, as favouring of the ancient aristocracy.

BRIECH, a river of Scotland, in Mid Lothian, which falls into the Amon.

(1.) * BRIEF. *adj.* [*brevis*, Lat. *brief*, French.] 1. Short; concise. It is now seldom used but of words.—

A play there is, my lord, some ten words long,
Which is as *brief* as I have known a play;
But by ten words, my lord, it is too long,
Which makes it tedious. *Shakespeare.*

I will be mild and gentle in my words.—

—And *brief*, good mother, for I am in haste.

Shakespeare.

I must begin with rudiments of art,

To teach you gamut in a *brief*er sort,

More pleasant, pretty, and effectual. *Shakespeare.*

—They nothing doubt prevailing, and to make it *brief* wars. *Shakespeare. Coriolanus.*—The *brief* stile is that which expresseth much in little. *Ben Jonson.*

—If I had quoted more words, I had quoted more profaneness; and therefore Mr Congreve has reason to thank me for being *brief*. *Collier.* 2. Contracted; narrow.—

The shrine of Venus, or straight pight Minerva,

Postures beyond *brief* nature. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) * BRIEF. *n. f.* [*brief*, Dutch, a letter.] 1. A writing of any kind.—

There is a *brief*, how many sports are ripe:
Make choice of which your highness will see first. *Shakespeare.*

—The apostolical letters are of a twofold kind and difference, *viz.* some are called *briefs*, because they are comprised in a short and compendious way of writing. *Ayliffe.* 2. A short extract, or epitome.—

But how you must begin this enterprize,

I will your highness thus in *brief* advise.

Fairy Queen.

—I doubt not but I shall make it plain, as far as a sum or *brief* can make a cause plain. *Bacon.*—

The *brief* of this transaction is, these springs that arise here are impregnated with vitriol. *Woodward.*

3. [In law.] A writ whereby a man is summoned to answer to any action; or it is any precept of the king in writing, issuing out of any court, whereby he commands any thing to be done. *Cowel.* 4. The writing given the pleaders, containing the case.—

—The *brief* with weighty crimes was charg'd,
The pleader much enlarg'd. *Swift.*

5. Letters patent, giving licence to a charitable collection for any publick or private loss. 6. [In musick.] A measure of quantity, which contains two strokes down in beating time, and as many up. *Harris.*

(3.) BRIEF, in English law, (§ 2. *def.* 3.) an abridgment of the client's case, made out for the instruction of council on a trial at law; wherein the case of the plaintiff, &c. is to be briefly but fully stated: the proofs must be placed in due order, and proper answers made to whatever may be objected to the client's cause by the opposite side; and herein great care is requisite, that nothing be omitted, to endanger the cause.

(4.) BRIEF, in Scots law, a writ issued from the chancery, directed to any judge ordinary, commanding and authorising that judge to call a jury to inquire into the case mentioned in the brief, and upon their verdict to pronounce sentence.

(5.) BRIEFS, APOSTOLICAL, letters which the pope dispatches to princes, or other magistrates, relating to any public affair.—These briefs are distinguished from bulls, the latter being more ample, always written on parchment, and sealed with lead or green wax; whereas briefs are very concise, written on paper, sealed with red wax, and with the seal of a fisherman, or St Peter in a boat.

* BRIEFLY. *adv.* [from *brief*.] Concisely: in few words.—I will speak in that manner which the subject requires; that is, probably, and moderately, and *briefly*. *Bacon.*—

The modest queen a while, with downcast eyes,
Ponder'd the speech; then *briefly* thus replied. *Dryden.*

* BRIEFNESS. *n. f.* [from *brief*.] Conciseness; shortness.—They excel in grandity and gravity, in smoothness and propriety, in quickness and *briefness*. *Camden.*

(1.) BRIEG, a territory of Silesia in Germany.

(2.) BRIEG, a town in the above territory. (N^o 1.) It was a handsome place before the last siege; the castle, the college, and the arsenal, being very great ornaments, and most of the houses very well built. But the Prussians, who besieged it in 1741, threw 2172 bombs into it, and 4714 cannon bullets, which reduced a great part of the town to ashes, and quite ruined a wing of the castle. It was obliged to surrender, after sustaining a continual fire, for 7 days. The Prussians, to whom it was ceded by the peace, augmented the fortifications, and built a new suburb. It stands upon the Oder; on the other side of which there are plenty of fallow deer, and large forests of beech and oak trees. It has a fair, at which above 12,000 horned cattle are annually sold. Since 1728, a manufacture of fine cloth has been established. It is 20 miles S. E. of Breslaw. Lon. 17. 20. E. Lat. 50. 50. N.

BRIEL, or BRILL, a maritime town of the United Provinces, and capital of the island of Vuorn. It was one of the cautionary towns which was delivered into the hands of Q. Elizabeth, and garrisoned by the English during her reign and part of the next. The Dutch took it from the Spaniards, in 1572, which was the foundation of their republic. It is seated at the mouth of the Meuse, 13 miles S. W. of Rotterdam. Lon. 3. 56. E. Lat. 51. 53. N.

BRIENNE,

BRIENNE, a town of France, in the ci-devant province of Champagne.

BRIENNOIS, a ci-devant territory of France, on the Loire. It was the S. division of Burgundy.

BRIENTZ, a lake of Switzerland in Bern.

(1.) * **BRIER**. *n. f.* [*brær*, Sax.] A plant. The sweet and the wild sorts are both species of the *rye*.—

What subtle hole is this,
Whose mouth is cover'd with rude growing
briers? *Shakespeare.*

Then thrice under a *brier* doth creep,
Which at both ends was rooted deep,
And over it three times doth leap;
Her magick much availing. *Drayton's Nymph.*

(2.) **BRIER**, in botany. See *ROSA*.

BRIERLEY, the name of three English villages; viz. 1. in Herefordshire, S. E. of Leominster: 2. in Staffordshire, E. of Sedgley: and 3. in Yorkshire, near Barnsley.

* **BRIERY**. *adj.* [from *brier*.] Rough; thorny; full of briers.

BRIESCIA, a palatinate of Poland, in the duchy of Lithuania; by some called *POLESIA*. It is bounded on the N. by Novogrode and Troki; on the W. by Bielsko and Lublin; on the S. by Chelm and Upper Volhinia; and on the E. by the territory of Rziczica. It is of considerable extent from E. to W. and is watered by the rivers Bug and Pripefe: it is full of woods and marshes; and has lakes that yield large quantities of fish, which are salted by the inhabitants, and sent into the neighbouring provinces.

BRIETIUS, Philip, a learned French geographer, born at Abbeville, in 1601. He became a Jesuit in 1619, and died librarian of their college at Paris in 1668. His *Parallelæ Geographiæ Veteris et Novæ*, published in 3 vols. 4to, 1648-9, is a very exact methodical work. He published also *Annales Mundi*, in 7 vols. 12mo, from the creation to A. D. 1663: and *Theatrum Geographiæ Europæ Veteris*, in 1653, fol. He was likewise concerned in a Chronological work with father Labbé.

BRIEUX, ST., a town of France, in the department of Finisterre, and ci-devant province of Upper Brittany. It is seated in a bottom, surrounded with mountains, which deprive it of a prospect of the sea, though it is not above a mile and a quarter from it, and there forms a small port. The churches, streets, and squares, are tolerably handsome; but the town is without walls and ditches. The church of Michael is in the suburb of the same name, and is the largest in the place. The convent of the Cordeliers is well built, and the garden is spacious. The college, which is very near, is maintained by the town for the instruction of youth. Lon. 2. 38. W. Lat. 48. 31. N.

BRIEY, a town of France, in the department of Moselle, and ci-devant province of Lorraine; 30 miles N. E. of St Michael.

(1.) * **BRIG**, and possibly also **BRIX**, is derived from the Saxon *bricg*, a bridge; which, to this day, in the northern counties, is called a *brigg*, and not a *bridge*. *Gibson's Camden.*

(2.) **BRIG**, or **BRIGANTINE**, a merchant ship with two masts. This term is not universally confined to vessels of a particular construction, or

which are masted and rigged in a manner different from all others. It is variously applied, by the mariners of different European nations, to a peculiar sort of vessel of their own marine. Amongst British seamen, this vessel is distinguished by having her main-sails set nearly in the plane of her keel; whereas the mainmasts of larger ships are hung athwart, or at right angles with the ship's length, and fastened to a yard which hangs parallel with the deck: but in a brig, the foremost edge of the mainmast is fastened in different places to hoops which encircle the mainmast, and slide up and down it as the sail is hoisted or lowered: it is extended by a gaff above and a boom below.

(3.) **BRIG**, **BRIGG**, or **GLANDFORD BRIDGES**, a town in Lincolnshire, seated on the river Ankam; 25 miles N. of Lincoln, and 153 N. of London. Lon. 0. 20. W. Lat. 53. 40. N.

BRIGA, *n. f.* in old records, a quarrel.

(1.) * **BRIGADE**. *n. f.* [*brigade*, Fr. It is now generally pronounced with the accent on the last syllable.] A division of forces; a body of men, consisting of several squadrons of horse, or battalions of foot.—

Or fronted *brigades* form. *Milton.*

Here the Bavarian duke his *brigades* leads,

Gallant in arms, and gaudy to behold. *Philips.*

(2.) **BRIGADES**. An army is divided into brigades of horse and brigades of foot. A brigade of horse is a body of 8 or 10 squadrons; a brigade of foot consists of 4, 5, or 6 battalions. The eldest brigade has the right of the first line, and the second the right of the second; the two next take the left of the two lines, and the youngest stand in the centre.

* **BRIGADE MAJOR**. An officer appointed by the brigadier to assist him in the management and ordering of his brigade; and he there acts as a major does in an army. *Harris.*

(1.) * **BRIGADIER GENERAL**. An officer who commands a brigade of horse or foot in an army; next in order below a major general.

(2.) **BRIGADIER GENERAL** is a post to which the eldest colonels are generally advanced. He that is upon duty is brigadier of the day.—They march at the head of their own brigades, and are allowed a serjeant and ten men of their own brigade for their guard.—But the rank of brigadier general in the British service is now abolished.

BRIGADIERS, or **SUB-BRIGADIERS**, are posts in the horse-guards.

* **BRIGAND**. *n. f.* [*brigand*, Fr.] A robber; one that belongs to a gang of robbers.—There might be a rout of such barbarous thievish *brigands* in some rocks; but it was a degeneration from the nature of man, a political creature. *Bramball against Hobbes.*

* **BRIGANDINE**, **BRIGANTINE**. *n. f.* [from *brigand*.] 1. A light vessel; such as has been formerly used by corsairs or pirates.—

Like as a warlike *brigandine*, apply'd

To fight, lays forth her threatful pikes afore

The engines, which in them sad death do hide.

Spenser.

In your *brigantine* you sail'd to see

The Andriatick wedded. *Ottaway's Venice Pres.*

—The consul obliged him to deliver up his fleet,
and

and restore the ships, reserving only to himself two brigantines. *Arbutnot.* 2. A coat of mail.—

Then put on all thy gorgeous arms, thy helmet

And brigandine of brags, thy broad habergeon,
Vantbrags, and greves. *Milt. Samson Agonistes.*

(2.) BRIGANDINES, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) were a kind of ancient defensive armour, consisting of thin jointed scales of plate, pliant and easy to the body.

(1.) BRIGANTES, an ancient people of Britain, who occupied the territory from sea to sea, the whole breadth of the island; now called Yorkshire, Lancaster, Durham, Westmoreland, and Cumberland.

(2.) BRIGANTES, an ancient people of Ireland, of uncertain position.

(1.) BRIGANTIA, or BRIGANTIUM, in ancient geography, a town of Vindelicia; now called BREGENTZ.

(2.) BRIGANTIA. See BRIGANTINUS, N. 1.

BRIGANTII, an ancient people of Rhætia, who dwelt near the Brigantine lake.

BRIGANTINE. See BRIG, and BRIGANDINE.

(1.) BRIGANTINUS LACUS, in ancient geography, a lake of Rhætia, or Vindelicia, which Tacitus includes in Rhætia. Ammianus calls it BRIGANTIA. It took its name either from the BRIGANTII, or from the adjoining town. It is now called CONSTANCE or BODENZEE.

(2.) BRIGANTINUS PORTUS, in ancient geography, a port of the Hither Spain; so called from Plavium Brigantium; now *El Puerto de la Coruna*, and more commonly the GROVNE.

(1.) BRIGANTIUM, in ancient geography, a town in the Alpes Cottiae, now thought to be BRIANCON.

(2.) BRIGANTIUM. See BRIGANTIA, No. 1.

BRIGG. See BRIG, No. 3.

BRIGGE, *n. f. obs.* A bridge. *Chauc.*

BRIGGENS, a village in Hertfordshire, near Hunsdon and Epping Forest.

BRIGGESLEY, 6 m. S. of Grimsby, Lincolnshire.

(1.) BRIGGS, a range of rocks on the N. side of Carrickfergus bay, in Down, Ireland.

(2.) BRIGGS, Henry, one of the greatest mathematicians in the 16th century, was born at Warley Wood, Yorkshire, in 1556. In 1592, he was made examiner and lecturer in mathematics, and soon after reader of the physical lecture founded by Dr Linacer. When Gresham college in London was established, he was chosen the first professor of geometry there, in 1596. In 1609, he contracted an intimacy with Mr Usher afterwards Abp. of Armagh, which continued many years by letters, two of which, written by Mr Briggs, are yet extant. In one of these letters, dated Aug. 1610, he tells his friend, he was engaged in the subject of eclipses; and in the other, dated March 20th, 1615, he acquaints him with his being wholly employed about the noble invention of logarithms, then lately discovered, in the improvement of which, he had afterwards a large share.

In 1619, he was made Savilian professor of geometry at Oxford; and resigned his professorship of that college on the 25th of July, 1620. Soon after going to Oxford, he was made M. A. in

that university; where he continued till his death, on Jan. 26, 1630. Dr Smith gives him the character of a man of great probity; a contemner of riches, and contented with his own station; preferring a studious retirement to all the splendour of life. He wrote, 1. *Logarithmorum abiliis primis*. 2. *Arithmetica logarithmica*. 3. *Trigonometria Britannica*. 4. A small tract on the north-west passage; and some other works.

(3.) BRIGGS, William, an eminent physician in the latter end of the 17th century, was the son of Augustine Briggs, Esq; 4 times member for the city of Norwich, where our author was born. He studied physic at Cambridge, and travelled into France, where he attended the lectures of the famous anatomist M. Vieussens at Montpellier. After his return, he published his *Ophthalmographia*, in 1676. In 1677, he was created M. D. at Cambridge; and soon after was made fellow of the college of physicians, at London. In 1682, his *Theory of Vision* was published by Hooke. In 1683, he sent to the Royal Society a continuation of this discourse, which was published in their transactions; and the same year, he was, by K. Charles II. appointed physician to St Thomas's hospital. In 1684, he communicated to the Royal Society two remarkable cases relating to vision, which were also printed in their transactions; and, in 1685, he published a Latin version of his *Theory of Vision*, at the desire of Mr Newton, afterwards Sir Isaac, professor of mathematics at Cambridge, with a recommendatory epistle from him prefixed to it. He was afterwards made physician in ordinary to K. William, and continued in great esteem for his skill in his profession till Sept. 4, 1704, when he died.

BRIGGS'S LOGARITHMS are that species of them in which 1 is the logarithm of the ratio of 10 to 1, or the logarithm of 10.

BRIGHAM, two villages, viz. 1. in Cumberland, 2 m. W. of Cockermouth: 2. in Yorkshire, near Frodingham.

* BRIGHT. *adj.* [*beort*, Sax.] 1. Shining; full of light.—

Through a cloud

Drawn round about thee like a radiant shrine,
Dark, with excessive bright, thy skirts appear.

Milton

Then shook the sacred shrine, and sudden
light

Sprung through the roof, and made the temple
bright.

Dryden

2. Shining as a body reflecting light.—

Bright brags, and brighter doomes. *Chapman*

Thy eyes are seen in diamonds bright. *Gay*

Bright as the sun her eyes the gazers strike.

Pope

3. Clear; conspicuous.—

From the brightest wines

He'd turn abhorrent.

Thomson

While the bright Seine t' exalt the soul,

With sparkling plenty crowns the bowl. *Fletcher*

4. Clear; evident.—He must not proceed too hastily, that he may with more ease, and with brighter evidence, and with surer success, draw the learner on. *Watts's Improvement of the Mind.* 5. Resplendent with charms.—

Thy



Thy beauty appears,
In its graces and airs,
All *bright* as an angel new drop'd from the sky.

Parnell.

O Liberty, thou goddess heav'nly *bright*,
Profuse of bliss, and pregnant with delight!

Addison.

Bright as the sun, and like the morning fair,
Such Chloe is, and common as the air. *Granv.*

To-day black omens threat the *brightest* fair
That e'er engag'd a watchful spirit's care.

Pope.

Thou more dreaded foe, *bright* beauty, shine:

Young.

6. Illuminated with science; sparkling with wit.—

Gen'rous, gay and gallant nation,
Great in arms, and *bright* in art. *Anonym.*

If parts allure thee, think how Bacon shin'd,
The wisest, *brightest*, meanest of mankind. *Pope.*

7. Illustrious; glorious.—

This is the worst, if not the only stain,
I th' *brightest* annals of a female reign. *Cotton.*

(1.) * To BRIGHTEN. *v. a.* [from *bright*.]

1. To make bright; to make to shine.—

The purple morning rising with the year,
Salutes the spring as her celestial eyes
Adorn the world, and *brighten* up the skies.

Dryden.

2. To make luminous by light from without.—

An ecstasy, that mothers only feel,
Plays round my heart, and *brightens* all my sor-
row,

Like gleams of sunshine in a lowering sky.

Philips.

3. To make gay, or cheerful.—

Hope elevates, and joy

Brightens his crest. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

4. To make illustrious.—The present queen would
brighten her character, if she would exert her au-
thority to instil virtues in her people. *Savist.*—

Yet time ennobles, or degrades each line;
It *brighten'd* Craggs's, and may darken thine.

Pope.

5. To make acute, or witty.

(2.) * To BRIGHTEN. *v. n.* To grow bright;
to clear up: as, the sky *brightens*.—

But let a lord once own the happy lines,
How the stile *brightens*, how the sense refines.

Pope.

BRIGHTHELMSTONE, or BRIGHTON, a sea
port town of Sussex in England. It is a pretty
large and populous town, though ill built, and
has a pretty good harbour. At this place, King
Charles II. embarked for France, 1651, after the
battle of Worcester. It has lately been consider-
ably extended and embellished, in consequence of
having become a place of great resort for sea
bathing. The Prince of Wales has erected a seat in
it. It lies very low; which protected it on dis-
tant occasions from the cannon of the French,
whose balls flew over it, when they attempted to de-
stroy it; but exposes it to a still more formidable
enemy, viz. the sea, which is continually encroach-
ing on it. Within these 45 years, it has destroy-
ed above 150 tenements, to the value of near
£40,000. In Nov. 1786, in particular, it destroy-
ed the clock house and several other houses worth
many thousand pounds. Brighton has a market

on Thursday, and two fairs on holy Thurs. and
Sept. 4. Before the war, it was the station of the
packet boats to and from Dieppe, in France. It is
74 m. N. W. from Dieppe; 56 S. of London,
and 12 from Lewes. Lon. o. 6. W. Lat. 50.
52. N.

BRIGHTLEY, a village of Devonshire, S. W.
of Moulton.

BRIGHTLING, a town in Suffex.

* BRIGHTLY. *adv.* [from *bright*.] Splendid-
ly; with lustre.—

Safely I slept, till *brightly* dawning shone

The morn, conspicuous on her golden throne.

Pope.

* BRIGHTNESS. *n. f.* [from *bright*.] 1. Lustre;
splendour; glitter.—

The blazing *brightness* of her beauty's beam,
And glorious light of her sun-shining face,

To tell, were as to strive against the stream.

Fairy Queen.

—A sword, by long lying still, will contract a rust,
which shall deface its *brightness*. *South.*—

The moon put on her vail of light,

Mysterious veil, of *brightness* made,

That's both her lustre and her shade. *Hudibras.*

Vex'd with the present moment's heavy gloom,
Why seek we *brightness* from the years to come?

Prior.

2. Acuteness.—The *brightness* of his parts, the so-
lidity of his judgment, and the candour and ge-
nerosity of his temper, distinguished him in an age
of great politeness. *Prior.*

BRIGHTON. See BRIGHTHELMSTONE.

BRIGHT-WALTON, a village in Berkshire.

BRIGHTWELL, 3 villages; 1. in Berkshire,
near Wallingford: 2. in Oxfordshire, near Astrop-
Wells: and 3. in Suffolk, E. of Ipswich.

BRIGITTINS, or BRIDGETINS, a religious
order, denominated from their founder St BRID-
GET. The Brigittins are sometimes also called
the *order of our Saviour*; it being pretended that
Christ himself dictated their rules and constitutions
to St Bridget. In the main, the rule is that of St
Augustine; only with additions pretended to have
been revealed by Christ. The first monastery of
the Bridgetin order was erected by the foundress
A. D. 1344, in the diocese of Lincopen; on the
model of which all the rest were formed. The
constitution of these houses was very singular:
though the order was principally intended for
nuns, who were to pay a special homage to the
holy Virgin, there are also many friars of it, to
minister to them spiritual assistance. The num-
ber of nuns is fixed at 60 in each monastery, and
that of friars to 13, answerable to the number of
apostles, of whom St Paul made the 13th; be-
sides which there are 4 deacons, to represent the
4 doctors of the church, St Ambrose, St Augus-
tin, St Gregory, and St Jerome; and 8 lay bro-
thers; making, together with the nuns, the num-
ber of the 72 disciples. The order being institu-
ted in honour of the Virgin, the direction is com-
mitted to an abbess, who is superior both of the
nuns and of the friars. Each house consists of 2 con-
vents or monasteries, separately inclosed, but having
one church in common; the nuns being placed a-
bove, and the friars on the ground. The Bridge-
tins profess great mortification, *namely*—and self-

denial, as well as devotion: and they are not to possess any thing they can call their own, not so much as an halfpenny; nor even to touch money on any account. This order spread much through Sweden, Germany, the Netherlands, &c. In England we read of but one monastery of Brigittines, built by Henry V. in 1415, opposite to Richmond, now called *Sion house*; the ancient inhabitants of which, after the dissolution, settled at Lisbon. The revenues were reckoned at 1495 l. per annum.

BRIGLEY, a town N. of Bradford, Yorkshire.

BRIGMILSTON, a village in Wiltshire, opposite to Ablington.

BRIGNEL, 2 miles from Barnard-Castle, Yorkshire.

BRIGNOLES, a town of France, in the department of Var, and ci-devant province of Provence, famous for its prunes. It is seated among mountains, in a pleasant country, 325 miles S.S.E. of Paris. Lon. 6. 15. E. Lat. 43. 24. N.

BRIGOWNE, a town of Ireland in Cork.

BRIGSTER, a village in Westmoreland.

BRIGSTOCK, in Northamptonshire, near Weldon. It has 3 fairs; May 6, Sep. 5. Nov. 22.

BRIHUEGA, a town of Spain, in New Castile, where Gen. Stanhope with 8 squadrons and 8 battalions of the English army were taken prisoners, in 1710, after they had separated themselves from that commanded by count Staremberg. It is seated at the foot of the mountain Tajuna, 43 miles N. E. of Madrid. Lon. 3. 20. W. Lat. 41. 6. N.

BRIKE, *adj. obs.* Strait; narrow. *Cbauc.*

(1.) BRIL, Matthew, a native of Antwerp, and a good painter, born in 1550, and educated at Rome. He was eminent for his performances in history and landscape, in the galleries of the Vatican; where he was employed by Pope Gregory XIII. He died in 1584, aged only 34.

(2.) BRIL, Paul, was born in 1554; followed his brother Matthew (N. 1.) to Rome; painted several things in conjunction with him; and after his decease, raised his own fame by his landscapes; owing to his having studied the manner of Hannibal Carrache, and copied some of Titian's works of the same kind. He was much in favour with Pope Sixtus V.: and painted for his successor Clement VIII. the famous piece, about 68 feet long, wherein St Clement is represented cast into the sea with an anchor about his neck. He died at Rome in 1526, aged 72.

BRILL, two villages; 1. in Buckinghamshire, near Ashenden: and 2. in Middlesex, between London and Pancres.

BRILLEY, a village in Herefordshire, near Eardisley.

* BRILLIANCY. *n. f.* [from *brilliant*.] Lustre; splendour.

(1.) * BRILLIANT. *adj.* [*brillant*, Fr.] Shining; sparkling; splendid; full of lustre.—

So have I seen in larder dark

Of veal a lucid loin,

Replete with many a *brilliant* spark,

As wise philosophers remark,

At once both stink and shine. *Dorset.*

(2.) * BRILLIANT. *n. f.* A diamond of the finest cut, formed into angles, so as to refract the light, and shine more.—

In deference to his virtues, I forbear
To shew you what the rest in orders were;
This *brilliant* is so spotless and so bright,
He needs not foil, but shines by his own proper light. *Dryden.*

(3.) BRILLIANT, in the manege, is applied to a brisk, high mettled, stately, horse, having a raised neck, a fine motion, and excellent haunches, upon which he rises, though ever so little put on.

* BRILLIANTNESS. *n. f.* [from *brilliant*.] Splendour; lustre.

* BRILLS. *n. f.* The hairs on the eye-lids of a horse. *Diſt.*

(1.) * BRIM. *n. f.* [*brim*, Icelandish.] 1. The edge of any thing.—His hat being in the form of a turban, daintily made, the locks of his hair came down about the *brims* of it. *Bacon.* 2. The upper edge of any vessel.—

How my head in ointment swims!
How my cup o'erlooks her *brims*! *Craſſus.*
So when with crackling flames, a cauldron fries,

The bubbling waters from the bottom rise,
Above the *brims* they force their fiery way.

Dryden's Æn.

Thus in a basin drop a shilling,

Then fill the vessel to the *brim*,

You shall observe, as you are filling,

The pond'rous metal seems to swim. *Swift.*

3. The top of any liquor.—The feet of the priests that bare the ark, were dipped in the *brim* of the water. *Joshua*, iii. 15. 4. The bank of a fountain.

It told me it was Cynthia's own,

Within whose cheerful *brims*

That curious nymph had oft been known

To bathe her snowy limbs. *Dryden.*

(2.) BRIM denotes the outmost verge or edge, especially of round things. The *brims* or vessels are made to project a little over, to hinder liquors, in pouring out, from running down the side of the vessel. The brimming of vessels was contrived by the ancient potters, in imitation of the supercilium or drip of the cornices of columns: it is done by turning over some of the double matter when the work is on the wheel.

(1.) * To BRIM. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To fill to the top.—

May the *brimmed* waves, for this,

Their full tribute never miss,

From a thousand rills. *Milton.*

This said, a double wreath Evander twin'd;
And poplars black and white his temples bind:
Then *brims* his ample bowl; with like design
The rest invoke the gods, with sprinkled wine.

Dryden.

(2.) * To BRIM. *v. n.* To be full to the brim.—
Now horrid frays

Commence, the *brimming* glasses now are hurl'd
With dire intent. *Philips.*

(3.) To BRIM, in country affairs. A sow is said to *brim*, or, to go to *brim*, when she is ready to take the boar.

BRIMA, a name of Proserpine.

* BRIMFUL. *adj.* [from *brim* and *full*.] Full to the top; overcharged.—

Measure my case, how by thy beauty's filling,
With seed of woes my heart *brimful* is charg'd.

Sidney.

We

We have try'd the utmost of our friends;
Our legions are *brimful*, our cause is ripe.

Shakefp. J. Cæsar.

Her *brimful* eyes, that ready flood,
And only wanted will to weep a flood,
Releas'd their watry store. *Dryden's Fables.*

The good old king at parting wrung my hand,
His eyes *brimful* of tears; then sighing cry'd,
Prithce be careful of my son. *Addison's Cato.*

* **BRIMFULNESS**. *n. f.* [from *brimful*.] Fullness to the top.—

The Scot, on his unfurnish'd kingdom,
Came pouring like a tide into a beach,
With ample and *brimfulness* of his force.

Shakefp. Hen. V.

BRIMINGTON, a village in Derbyshire, near Chesterfield.

BRIMLEY, a town near Little Hereford.

* **BRIMMER**. *n. f.* [from *brim*.] A bowl full to the top.—

When healths go round and kindly *brimmers*
flow,

Till the fresh garlands on their foreheads glow.
Dryden.

* **BRIMMING**. *adj.* [from *brim*.] Full to the brim.

And twice besides her beestings never fail,
To store the dairy with a *brimming* pail. *Dryd.*

BRIMPSELD, a village in Gloucestershire, 7 m. from Gloucester, and 6 from Cheltenham.

BRIMPTON, 2 small towns; viz. 1. in Berkshire; and 2. in Somersetshire, near Yeovil.

BRIMSLEY, a village in Nottinghamshire.

BRIMSTAGE, in Cheshire, near Barnston.

(1.) * **BRIMSTONE**. *n. f.* [corrupted from *brim* or *brenstone*, that is, fiery stone.] Sulphur. See **SULPHUR**.—

From his infernal furnace forth he threw
Huge flames, that dimmed all the heaven's light,
Enroll'd in dusky smoke and *brimstone* blue.

Fairy Queen.

—The vapour of the *grotto del Cane* is generally supposed to be sulphureous, though I can see no reason for such a supposition: I put a whole bundle of lighted *brimstone* matches to the smoke, they all went out in an instant. *Addison on Italy.*

(2.) **BRIMSTONE MEDALS, FIGURES, &c.** may be cast in the following manner: Melt half a pound of brimstone over a gentle fire: with this mix half a pound of fine vermillion; and after clearing the top, take it off the fire, stir it well together, and it will dissolve like oil: then cast it into the mould which should be first anointed with oil. When cool, the figure may be taken out; and if it should change to a yellowish colour, it need only be wiped over with aquafortis, and it will look like the finest coral.

* **BRIMSTONY**. *adj.* [from *brimstone*.] Full of brimstone; containing sulphur; sulphureous.

BRIN, or **BRINN**, a strong town of Bohemia, in Moravia. It is pretty large, and well built: the assembly of the states is held alternately there and at Olmutz. The castle of Spilberg is on an eminence, out of the town, and is its principal defence. It was invested by the king of Prussia in 1742, but he was obliged to raise the siege.—It is near the Swart. Lon. 7. 8. E. Lat. 49. 8. N.

* **BRINDED**. *adj.* [*brin*, Fr. a branch.] Streaked; tabby; marked with streaks.—

Thrice the *brinded* cat hath mew'd.

Shaksp. Macbeth.

She tam'd the *brinded* lions, And spotted mountain pard. *Milton.*

My *brinded* heifer to the stake I lay;
Two thriving calves she suckles twice a-day.

Dryden.

BRINDICE, *n. f.* [from *brinde*, Fr.] A health; health. *Scott.*

BRINDISI, anciently **BRUNDUSIUM**, a celebrated town of Naples, in the Terra d'Otranto, with an archbishop's see. Its walls are still of great extent, but the inhabited houses do not fill above half the enclosure. The streets are crooked and rough; the buildings poor and ruinous; without any remarkable church or edifice. The cathedral, dedicated to St Theodore, is a work of king Roger, but not equal in point of architecture to many churches founded by that monarch, who had a strong passion for building. Little remains of ancient Brundisium, except innumerable broken pillars fixed at the corners of streets to defend the houses from carts; fragments of coarse Mosaic, the floors of former habitations; the column of the lighthouse; a large marble basin, into which the water runs from brazen heads of deer; some inscriptions, ruins of aqueducts, coins, and other small furniture for an antiquary's cabinet. Its castle, built by the emperor Frederick II. to protect the northern branches of the harbour, is large and stately. Charles V. repaired it. The port is double, and the finest in the Adriatic. The outer part is formed by two promontories, which stretch off gradually from each other as they advance into the sea, leaving a very narrow channel at the base of the angle. The island of St Andrew, on which Alphonfus I. built a fortress, lies between the capes, and secures the whole road from the fury of the waves. In this triangular space, large ships may ride at anchor. At the bottom of the bay the hills recede in a semicircular shape, to leave room for the inner haven; which, as it were, clasps the city in its arms, or rather encircles it, in the figure of a stag's head and horns.—This form is said to have given rise to the name of *Brundisium*, which, in the old Messapian language, signified *the head of a deer*. In ancient days the communication between the two havens was marked by lights placed upon columns of the Corinthian order, standing on a rising ground, in a direct line with the channel. Of these one remains entire upon its pedestal. Its capitals is adorned with figures of Syrens and Tritons, intermingled with the acanthus leaf, and upon it a circular vase, which formerly held the fire. Near it is another pedestal of similar dimensions, with one piece of the shaft lying on it. The space between these pillars answered to the entrance of the harbour. “The whole kingdom of Naples (says Mr Swinburne) cannot show a more complete situation for trade than Brindisi. Here goodness of soil, depth of water, safety of anchorage, and a central position, are all united; yet it has neither commerce, husbandry nor populousness. From the obstructions in the channel, which communicates with the two havens, arises the tribe of evils that afflict and desolate this unhappy town. Julius Cæsar may be said to have begun its ruin, by

attempting to block up Pompey's fleet. He drove piles into the neck of land between the two ridges of hills; threw in earth, trees, and ruins of houses; and had nearly accomplished the blockade, when Pompey sailed out and escaped to Greece. In the 15th century, the prince of Taranto sunk some ships in the middle of the passage, to prevent the royalists from entering the port, and thereby provided a resting place for sea-weeds and sand, which soon accumulated, choked up the mouth, and rendered it impracticable for any vessels whatsoever. In 1752 the evil was increased, so as to hinder even the waves from beating through; and all communication was cut off, except in violent easterly winds, or rainy seasons, when an extraordinary quantity of fresh water raises the level. From that period the port became a fetid green lake, full of infection and noxious insects; no fish but eels could live in it, nor any boats ply except canoes made of a single tree. They can hold but one person, and overset with the least irregularity of motion. The low grounds at each end were overflowed and converted into marshes, the vapours of which created every summer a real pestilence; and in the course of very few years, swept off, or drove away the largest portion of the inhabitants. From the number of 18,000 they were reduced, in 1766, to that of 5000 livid wretches, tormented with agues and malignant fevers. In 1755, above 1500 persons died during the autumn; a woeful change of climate! Thirty years ago, the air of Brindisi was esteemed so wholesome and balsamic, that the convents of Naples were wont to send their consumptive friars to this city for the recovery of their health. This state of misery and destruction induced the remaining citizens to apply for relief to Don Carlo Demarco, one of the king's ministers, and a native of Brindisi. In consequence of this application, Don Vito Caravelli was ordered to draw up plans; and fix upon the means of opening the port afresh: Don Andrea Figonati was last year sent to execute his projects; and, by the help of machines and the labour of the galley-slaves, has succeeded in some measure. The channel has been partly cleared, and has now 2 fathom of water. It can admit large boats, a great step towards the revival of trade; but what is of more immediate importance, it gives a free passage to the sea, which now rushes in with impetuosity, and runs out again at each tide; so that the water of the inner port is set in motion, and once more rendered wholesome. The canal is to be 700 yards long, and drawn in a straight line from the column. At present its parapets are defended by piles and fascines; but if the original plan be pursued, stone piers will be erected on both sides. When the canal shall be scooped out to a proper depth, and its piers solidly established, vessels of any burden may once more enter this land-locked port, which affords room for a whole navy. Docks wet and dry may be dug, goods may be shipped at the quay, and convenient watering places be made with great ease. If merchants should think it a place of rising trade, and worthy of their notice, there is no want of space in the town for any factory whatever. Circulation of cash would give vigour to husbandry, and provisions would soon a-

bound in this market. The sands at the foot of the hills, which form the channel, are to be laid out in beds for muscles and oysters. Some ecclesiastics are raising nurseries of orange and lemon trees; and other citizens intend introducing the cultivation of the mulberry trees, and breeding of silk-worms. The engineer would have done very little for the health of Brindisi, had he only opened a passage, and given a free course to the water; and marshes at each extremity of the harbour would still have infected the air: he, therefore, at the expence of about 1000 ducats, had the seas filled up with earth, and a dam raised to confine the waters, and prevent their flowing back upon the meadows. The people of Brindisi, who are sensible of the blessings already derived from their operations, who feel a return of health, and see an opening for commerce and opulence, seem ready to acknowledge the obligation. They intend to erect a statue to the king, with inscriptions on the pedestal in honour of the minister and agents. The workmen, in cleaning the channel, have found some medals and seals, and have drawn up many of the piles that were driven in by Cæsar. They are small oak stripped of their bark, and still as fresh as if they had been cut only a month, though buried above 18 centuries, 7 feet under the sand. The soil about the town is light and good. It produces excellent cotton, with which the Brindisians manufacture gloves and stockings. It is impossible to determine who were the founders of Brundisium, or when it was first inhabited. The Romans took early possession of a harbour so convenient for their enterprises against the nations dwelling beyond the Adriatic. In the year of Rome 509, they sent a colony hither. Pompey took refuge here; and finding his post untenable, made a precipitate retreat to Greece. In this city, Octavianus first assumed the name of Cæsar, and here he concluded one of his short lived peace with Antony. Brundisium had been already celebrated for giving birth to the tragic poet Pacuvius, and about this time became remarkable for the death of Virgil. The barbarians, who ravaged every corner of Italy, did not spare so rich a town; and, in 836, the Saracens gave a finishing blow to its fortunes. The Greek emperors, sensible of the necessity of having such a port as this in Italy, would have restored it to its ancient strength and splendor, had the Normans allowed them time and leisure. The Greeks struggled manfully to keep their ground; but, after many varieties of success, were finally driven out of Brindisi by William I. The frenzy for expeditions to Palestine, though it drained other kingdoms of their wealth and subjects, contributed powerfully to the re-establishment of this city, one of the ports where pilgrims and warriors took shipping. It also benefited by the residence of the emperor Frederick, whose frequent armaments for the Holy Land required his presence at this place of rendezvous. The loss of Jerusalem, the fall of the Grecian empire, and the ruin of all the Levant trade after the Turks had conquered the East, reduced Brindisi to a state of inactivity and desolation, from which it has never been able to emerge. Lon. 17. 45. E. Lat. 40. 25. N.

(1.) BRINDLE, a village in Lancashire.

(2.) * BRINDLE.

(2.) * **BRINDLE**. *n. f.* [from *brinded*.] The state of being brinded.—A natural *brindle*. *Clarissa*.

* **BRINDLED**. *adj.* [from *brindle*.] Brinded; streaked.—

The boar, my sisters! aim the fatal dart,
And strike the *brindled* monster to the heart.

Addison's Ovid.

BRINDLEY, James, a most uncommon genius for mechanical inventions, and particularly excellent in planning and conducting inland navigations, was born in 1716, at Tuntel in Derbyshire. Through the mismanagement of his father, (for here was some little property in his house,) his education was totally neglected; and, at 17, he found himself an apprentice to a mill-wright, near Macclesfield, in Cheshire. He served his apprenticeship; and, afterwards setting up for himself, advanced the mill-wright business by inventions and contrivances of his own, to a degree of perfection which it had not attained before. His fame, as a most ingenious mechanic, spreading widely, his genius was no longer confined to the business of his profession; for, in 1752, he erected a very extraordinary water engine at Clifton, in Lancashire, for the purpose of draining coal mines; and, in 1755, was employed to execute the larger wheels for a new silk mill, at Congleton, in Cheshire. The potteries of Staffordshire were also, about this time, indebted to him for several valuable additions in the mills used by them for grinding flint bones. In 1756, he undertook to erect a steam engine near Newcastle under Line upon a new plan; and it is believed he would have brought this engine to a great degree of perfection, if some interested engineers had not opposed him. His attention, however, was soon afterwards called off to another object, which, in its consequences, has proved of high importance to trade and commerce; namely, the projecting and executing "inland navigations." By these navigations, the expence of carriage is lessened; a communication is opened from one part of the kingdom to another, and from each of these parts to the sea; and hence, products and manufactures are afforded at a moderate price. The duke of Bridgewater had, at Worsley, about 7 miles from Manchester, a large estate abounding with coal, which had hitherto lain useless, because the expence of land carriage was too great to find a market for consumption. The duke, wishing to work these mines, perceived the necessity of a canal from Worsley to Manchester; upon which occasion Brindley, now become famous, was consulted; and declaring the scheme practicable, an act for this purpose was obtained in 1758 and 1759. It being, however, afterwards discovered, that the navigation would be more beneficial, if carried over the river Irwell to Manchester, another act was obtained to vary the course of the canal agreeable to the new plan, and likewise to extend a side branch to Longford bridge in Stretford. Brindley, in the mean time, had begun these great works, being the first of the kind every attempted in England, with navigable subterraneous tunnels and elevated aqueducts; and as, in order to preserve the level of the water, it should be free from the usual obstructions of locks, he carried the canal over rivers,

and many large and deep valleys. When it was completed as far as Barton, where the Irwell is navigable for large vessels, he proposed to carry it over that river, by an aqueduct of 39 feet above the surface of the water; and though this project was treated as wild and chimerical, yet, supported by his noble patron, he began his work in Sept. 1760, and the first boat sailed over it in July, 1761. The duke afterwards extended his ideas to Liverpool; and obtained, in 1762, an act for branching his canal to the tideway in the Mersey: this part of the canal is carried over the rivers Mersey and Bolland, and over many wide and deep valleys. The success of the duke of Bridgewater's undertakings encouraged a number of gentlemen and manufacturers in Staffordshire, to revive the idea of a canal navigation through that country; and Brindley was therefore engaged to make a survey from the Trent to the Mersey. In 1766, this canal was begun, and conducted under Brindley's direction as long as he lived; but finished after his death by his brother-in-law Mr Henshall, of whom he had a great opinion, in May, 1777. The proprietors called it, "the canal from the Trent to the Mersey;" but the engineer, more emphatically, "the Grand Trunk Navigation," on account of the numerous branches, which, as he justly supposed, would be extended every way from it. It is 93 miles in length; and besides a great number of bridges over it, has 76 locks and five tunnels. The most remarkable of the tunnels is the subterraneous passage of Harecastle, being 2880 yards in length, and more than 70 yards below the surface of the earth. The scheme of this inland navigation had employed the thoughts of the ingenious part of the kingdom for upwards of 20 years before; and some surveys had been made; but Harecastle hill, through which the tunnel is constructed, could neither be avoided nor overcome by any expedient the most able engineers could devise. It was Brindley alone who surmounted this and other similar difficulties, arising from the variety of strata and quicksands, as no one but himself would have attempted to conquer. Brindley was engaged in many other similar undertakings; for a fuller account of which, we refer our reader to the "Biographia Britannica;" or rather to a curious and valuable pamphlet, published some years ago, and intitled, "The History of Inland Navigations, particularly that of the Duke of Bridgewater." He died at Turnhurst in Staffordshire, Sept. 27th 1772, in his 56th year: somewhat immaturely, as it should seem; but he is supposed to have shortened his days by too intense application, and to have brought on a hectic fever, which continued on him for some years before he died. He never indulged and relaxed himself in the common diversions of life, as not having the least relish for them; and, though once prevailed on to see a play in London, yet he declared that he would on no account be present at another; because it so disturbed his ideas for several days after, as to render him unfit for business. When any extraordinary difficulty occurred to him in the execution of his works, he generally retired to bed; and has been known to lie there one, 2, or 3 days, till he had surmounted it. He

would

would then get up, and execute his design without any drawing or model: for he had a prodigious memory, and carried every thing in his head. As his station in life was low, and his education totally neglected, so his exterior accomplishments were suitable. He could indeed read and write, but both very indifferently; and he was perhaps, as *abnormis sapiens*—as much “of mother-wit, and wise without the schools”—as any man that ever lived. “He is as plain a looking man as one of the boors in the Peake, or one of his own carters: but when he speaks, all ears listen; and every mind is filled with wonder, at the things he pronounces to be practicable.” His biographer gives us also no ungracious idea of his moral make: “being great in himself, he harbours no contracted notions, no jealousy of rivals: he conceals not his methods of proceeding, nor asks patents to secure the sole use of the machines, which he invents and exposes to public view. Sensible that he must one day cease to live, he selects men of genius, teaches them the power of mechanics, and employs them in carrying on the various undertakings in which he is engaged. It is not to the duke of Bridgwater only that his services are confined; he is of public utility, and employs his talents in rectifying the mistakes of despairing workmen, &c. His powers shine most in the midst of difficulties; when rivers and mountains seem to thwart his designs, then appears his vast capacity, by which he makes them subservient to his will.”

(2, 3.) BRINDLEY, 2 villages; viz. 1. in Cheshire, near Namptwich: 2. in Staffordshire, N. of Brewood.

BRINDONES, in natural history, the name of a fruit of the East Indies, called by John Bauhine, and some other botanical writers, *Indici fructus rubentes acidi*. It is by many accounted delicious, notwithstanding its great sharpness; and is used in dyeing, and in making vinegar.

(1.) * BRINE. *n. f.* 1. Water impregnated with salt.—The encreasing of the weight of water, will encrease its power of bearing; as we see *brine*, when it is salt enough, will bear an egg. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—Dissolve sheeps dung in water, and add to it as much salt as will make a strong *brine*, in this liquor steep your corn. *Mort.* 2. The sea, as it is salt.—

All, but marinera,

Plung'd in the foaming *brine*, did quit the vessel,
Then all afire with me. *Shakefp. Tempest.*

The air was calm, and, on the level, *brine*,
Sleek Panope, with all her sisters, play'd. *Milt.*

As when two adverse winds

Engage with horrid shock, the ruffled *brine*
Roars stormy. *Philips.*

3. Tears, as they are salt.—

What a deal of *brine*

Hath wash'd thy fallow cheeks for Rosaline!

Shakespeare.

(2.) BRINE also denotes a pickle pregnant with salt, wherein things are steeped to keep.

(3.) BRINE, DIFFERENT KINDS OF. Brine is either native, as the sea-water, which by coction turns to salt; or factitious, formed by dissolving salt in water. In the salt-works at Upwick in Worcesterhire, there are found, at the same time,

and in the same pit, 3 sorts of brine, each of a different strength. They are drawn by a pump; and that in the bottom, first brought up, is called *first man*; the next, *middle man*; and the third, *last man*.

(4.) BRINE, LAW RESPECTING. Brine taken out of brine-pits, or brine-pans, used by some for curing or pickling of fish, without boiling it into salt; and rock salt, without refining it into white salt; are prohibited by 1 Ann. cap. 21.

(5.) BRINE, LEACH, a name given to what drops from the corned salt in draining and drying, which they preserve and boil again; being stronger than any brine in the pit. There is sand found in all the Staffordshire brines after coction; but naturalists observe, it did not pre-exist in the water, but rather is the product of the boiling. Some steep their seed-wheat in brine, to prevent the smut. Brine is also commended as of efficacy against gangrenes.

(6.) BRINE PANS, the pits wherein the salt water is retained, and suffered to stand, to bear the action of the sun, whereby it is converted into salt. There are divers sorts of salt pans, as the water pans, second pan, sun pan; the water being transferred only from one to another.

(7.) * BRINEPIT. *n. f.* [from *brine* and *pit*.] Pit of salt water.—

Then I lov'd thee,

And shew'd thee all the qualities o' th' isle,
The fresh springs, *brinepits*, barren place, and
fertile. *Shakespeare.*

(8.) BRINE-PIT, in salt-making, is the salt spring from whence the water to be boiled into salt is taken. There are of these springs in many places; that at Namptwich, in Cheshire, is alone sufficient, according to the account of the people of the place, to yield salt for the whole kingdom; but it is under the government of certain lords and regulators, who, that the market may not be overstocked, will not suffer more than a certain quantity of the salt to be made yearly! See § 9.

(9) BRINE SPRINGS are fountains which flow with salt water instead of fresh. Of these there are a good number in South Britain, but though not peculiar to this island, they are far from being common on the continent. There is a remarkable one at East Chennock in Somersetshire, about 20 miles from the sea. There is another at Leamington in Warwickshire, very near the river Leam; which, however, is but weak. A third runs into the river Cherwell in Oxfordshire; and there are several more in Westmoreland and Yorkshire: but as they are weak, and the fuel in most of those counties is scarce and dear, no salt is prepared from them. At Barrow-deal near Grange, 3 miles from Keswick in Cumberland, a pretty strong spring rises in a level near a moss; 16 gallons of the water of which yield one of pure salt; which is remarkable, as the same quantity of salt cannot be obtained from less than 22 gallons of the waters of the German ocean. At Salt-water Haugh, near Butterby, in Durham, there are a multitude of salt springs which rise in the middle of the river Weare, for the space of about 40 yards in length and ten in breadth; but particularly one out of a rock, which is so strong that in a hot summer's day the surface is covered with a pure white salt.

At Welton, in Staffordshire, there are brine springs which afford about a 9th part of very fine white salt. There are others at Enson, St Thomas, and in the parish of Ingestre, but so weak that they are not wrought; though it is believed, that by boring, stronger springs might be found in the neighbourhood. In Lancashire there are several salt springs, but (if we except those at Barton, which are as rich as the spring at Norwich) by no means so famous as those of Cheshire, called in general by the name of the *WICHES*. Nantwich on the river Weever, has a noble spring not far from the river, which is so rich as to yield one 6th part of pure white salt. At Northwich, six miles distant, at the confluence of the Weever and the Dan, the brine is still richer; for 6 ounces of salt are obtained from 16 of water. The inhabitants of Wales, who, before that country was incorporated with England, were supplied chiefly, if not solely, with that necessary commodity from these two towns, called the former *HELLATH WEN*, and the latter *HELLATH DU*; i. e. the white and black salt pit. In 1670, a rock of salt was discovered at a small distance from Norwich, which has been wrought to a great depth, and to a vast extent, so as to be justly esteemed one of the greatest curiosities in England; and it is highly probable, that there is an immense body of fossil salt in the bowels of the earth, under this whole county; for, upon boring, brine pits have been found in many places on both sides of the Weever. This is the more likely, since at Middlewich, which stands at the confluence of the Croke and the Dan, there are salt springs with a fresh brook running between them. The brines from these pits are of unequal strength; but when mixed, they commonly obtain 4 ounces of salt from a pound of brine. In these springs the water is strongest nearest the bottom, richer in dry weather than in wet, and when long drawn than when first wrought. But these are no rules in respect to other salt springs, for in those of Franche Comte the brine is strongest in wet weather. There are several other bodies dissolved in these brines besides salt; in some a sulphureous substance, which sublimates as the brine heats; a sort of dirty ochre which discolours the brine, but, if suffered to stand, speedily subsides; and in most brines a calcareous, or rather selenitic earth, which settles to the bottom of the pans. See *SALT*, and *SPRING*.

To *BRINE*, *v. a.* To steep in brine. See *BRINING*. *BRINEK*, or } in astronomy, the bright star in *BRINETI*, } the constellation *Lyra*; more frequently called *Lucida Lyra*.

(1.) * To *BRING*. *v. a.* [*bringan*, Sax. preter. *I brought*; part. pass. *brought*; *braht*, Sax.] 1. To fetch from another place; distinguished from to *carry*, or convey to another place.—

I was the chief that rais'd him to the crown,
And I'll be chief to *bring* him down again. *Shak.*
—And as she was going to fetch it, he called to her, and said, *Bring* me, I pray thee, a morsel of bread in thy hand. *Kings*.—A registry of lands may furnish easy securities of money, that shall be *brought* over by strangers. *Temple*. 2. To convey in one's own hand; not to send by another.—

And if my wish'd alliance please your king,
Tell him he should not send thee peace, but
bring. *Dryden*.

3. To produce; to procure, as a cause.—There is nothing will *bring* you more honour, and more ease, than to do what right in justice you may. *Bacon*. 4. To reduce; to recal.—*Bring* back gently their wandering minds, by going before them in the train they should pursue, without any rebuke. *Locke*.—Nathan's fable had so good an effect, as to bring the man after God's own heart to a right sense of his guilt. *Spektor*. 5. To attract; to draw along.—In distillation, the water ascends difficultly, and *brings* over with some part of the oil of vitriol. *Newton's Opticks*. 6. To put into any particular state or circumstances, to make liable to any thing.—Having got the way of reasoning, which that study necessarily *brings* the mind to, they might be able to transfer it to other parts of knowledge, as they shall have occasion. *Locke*.—The question for *bringing* the king to justice was immediately put, and carried without any opposition, that I can find. *Swift's Presb. Plea*. 7. To lead by degrees.—A due consideration of the vanities of the world, will naturally *bring* us to the contempt of it; and the contempt of the world will as certainly *bring* us home to ourselves. *L'Esrange*.—The understanding should be *brought* to the difficult and knotty parts of knowledge, by insensible degrees. *Locke*. 8. To recal; to summons.—

But those, and more than I to mind can *bring*,
Menalcas has not yet forgot to sing. *Dryden*.

9. To induce; to prevail upon.—The nature of the things, contained in those words, would not suffer him to think otherwise, how, or whensoever, he is *brought* to reflect on them. *Locke*.—It seems so preposterous a thing to men, to make themselves unhappy in order to happiness, that they do not easily *bring* themselves to it. *Locke*.—Profitable employments would be no less a diversion than any of the idle sports in fashion, if men could but be *brought* to delight in them. *Locke*. 10. To *bring about*. [See *ABOUT*.] To bring to pass; to effect.—

This he conceives not hard to *bring about*,
If all of you would join to help him out.

Dryden's Ind. Emp.

—This turn of mind threw off the oppositions of envy and competition; it enabled him to gain the most vain and impracticable into his designs, and to *bring about* several great events, for the advantage of the publick. *Addison's Freeholder*. 11. To *bring forth*. To give birth to; to produce.—

The good queen,

For she is good, hath *brought* you forth a daughter:
Here 'tis; commends it to your blessing. *Shak.*

More wonderful

Than that which, by creation, first *brought forth*
Light out of darkness! *Paradise Lost*.

Bewail thy falsehood, and the pious works
It hath *brought forth*, to make thee memorable
Among illustrious women, faithful wives.

Milton's Agonist.

Bellona leads thee to thy lover's hand,
Another queen *brings forth* another brand,
To burn with foreign fires her native land! *Dryd.*

—Idleness

—Idleness and luxury *bring forth* poverty and want ; and this tempts men to injustice ; and that causeth enmity and animosity. *Tillotson*.—The value of land is raised, when it is fitted to *bring forth* a greater quantity of any valuable product. *Locke*.
 12. *To bring forth*. To bring to light.—The thing that is hid, *bringeth* he *forth* to light. *Job xxxviii. 11*.
 13. *To bring in*. To place in any condition.—

He protests he loves you,

And needs no other suitor, but his liking,

To *bring* you in again. *Shakesp. Othello*.

14. *To bring in*. To reduce.—Send over into that realm such a strong power of men as should perforce *bring in* all that rebellious rout, and loose people. *Spenser on Irel.*

15. *To bring in*. To afford gain.

—The sole measure of all his courtesies is, what return they will make him, and what revenue they will *bring* him in. *South*.—Trade *brought* us in plenty and riches. *Locke*.

16. *To bring in*. To introduce.—Entertain no long discourse with any ;

but, if you can, *bring in* something to season it

with religion. *Taylor*.—There is but one God,

who made heaven and earth, and sea and winds ;

but the folly and madness of mankind *brought in*

the images of gods. *Stillingfleet*.—The fruitfulness

of Italy, and the like, are not *brought in* by force,

but naturally arise out of the argument. *Addison*.

—Since he could not have a seat among them him-

self, he would *bring in* one who had more merit.

Tatler.—Quotations are best *brought in*, to confirm

some opinion controverted. *Savist*.

17. *To bring off*. To clear ; to procure to be acquitted ; to

cause to escape.—I trusted to my head, that has

betrayed me ; and I found fault with my legs,

that would otherwise have *brought* me off. *L'Estr*.

—Set a kite upon the bench, and it is forty to

one he'll *bring off* a crow at the bar. *L'Estrange*.

—The best way to avoid this imputation, and to

bring off the credit of our understanding, is to be

truly religious. *Tillotson*.

18. *To bring on*. To engage in action.—If there be any that would

reign, and take up all the time, let him find

means to take them off, and *bring* others on. *Bacon*.

19. *To bring on*. To produce as an occasional

cause.—The fountains of the great deep being

broke open, so as a general destruction and devas-

tation was *brought upon* the earth, and all things

in it. *Burn. Theory*.—The great question, which,

in all ages, has disturbed mankind, and *brought on*

them those mischiefs. *Locke*.

20. *To bring over*. To convert ; to draw to a new party.—This liber-

ty should be made use of upon few occasions of

small importance, and only with a view of *bring-*

ing over his own side, another time, to something

of greater and more publick moment. *Savist on the*

Sentiments of a Church of Engl. n. m.—The pro-

testant clergy will find it, perhaps, no difficult

matter to *bring* great numbers *over* to the church.

Savist.

21. *To bring out*. To exhibit ; to shew.—

If I make not this cheat *bring out* another, and the

shearers prove sheep, let me be unrolled. *Shakesp.*

Winter's Tale.—

Which he could *bring out*, where he had,

And what he bought them for, and paid. *Hudib*.

These shake his soul, and, as they boldly press,

Bring out his crimes, and force him to confess.

Dryden.

—Another way made use of, to find the weight

of the denarii, was by the weight of Greek coins ; but those experiments *bring out* the denarius heavier. *Arbutb.* 22. *To bring under*. To subdue ; to repress.—That sharp course which you have set down, for *bringing under* of those rebels of Ulster, and preparing a way for their perpetual reformation. *Spenser*.—To say, that the more capable, or the better deserver, hath such right to govern, as he may compulsorily *bring under* the less worthy, is idle. *Bacon*.

23. *To bring up*. To educate ; to instruct ; to form.—The well *bring-*

ing up of the people, serves as a most sure bond to hold them. *Sidney*.—He that takes upon him the

charge of *bringing up* young men, especially young gentlemen, should have something more in him

than Latin. *Locke*.—They frequently conversed with his lovely virgin, who had been *brought up*

by her father in knowledge. *Addison's Guardian*.

24. *To bring up*. To introduce to general practice.

—Several obliging deferences, condescensions, and submissions, with many outward forms and cere-

monies, were first of all *brought up* among the pal-
 iter part of mankind, who lived in courts and cities. *Spectator*.

25. *To bring up*. To cause to advance.—

Bring up your army ; but, I think, you'll find,

They've not prepar'd for us. *Shakesp. Macb.*

26. *Bring* retains in all its senses the idea of an agent, or cause producing a real or metaphorical

motion of something towards something ; for it is oft said, that he *brought his companion* out. The

meaning is, that he was *brought to* something that was like wise *without*.

(2.) *To BRING IN* A HORSE, in the menage, is the same as to keep down the nose of one that

boats and tosses his nose in the wind. This is done by means of a branch.

(3.) *To BRING TO*, in navigation, to check the course of a ship when she is advancing, by arrang-

ing the sails in such a manner, that they shall counteract each other, and prevent her either

from retreating or moving forward. In this situation the ship is said to lie by, or lie to ; having,

according to the sea-phrase, some of her sails *a-*
back, to oppose the force of those which are full ;

or having them otherwise shortened by being *fur-*
led, or *hauled up in the brails*. Bringing to is ge-

nerally used to detain a ship in any particular sta-

tion, in order to wait the approach of some other that may be advancing towards her ; or to retard

her course occasionally near any port in the course of a voyage.

(1.) * BRINGER. *n. f.* [from *bring*.] The person that brings any thing.—

Yet the first *bringer* of unwelcome news

Hath but a losing office : and his tongue

Sounds ever after as a sullen bell,

Remember'd tolling a dead friend. *Shakesp.*

Best you see safe the *bringer*

Out of the host : I must attend mine office.

Shakespeare.

(2.) * BRINGER UP. Instructor ; educator.—Italy and Rome have been breeders and *bringers*

up of the worthiest men. *Ascham's Schoolmaster*.

BRINGHURST, a town near Weston, Leicester.

BRINGTON GREAT, and } two villages in

BRINGTON LITTLE, } Northamptonsh.

near Althorp.

BRING-

BRINGWIN, in Monmouthsh. near Ragland.

BRINHAM, near Putly-bridge, Yorkshire.

(1.) **BRINING OF CORN**, in husbandry, an operation performed on the wheat seed, to prevent the smut. A liquor is to be prepared for this purpose, by putting 70 gallons of water into a tub (like a mash-tub used for brewing), and a corn bushel of unslacked lime-stone. This is to be well stirred till the whole is dissolved, and left to stand for 30 hours; after which it is to be strained off into another tub, in the manner practised for beer. In this way about a hoghead of strong lime-water will be obtained, to which must be added 3 pecks of salt. The wheat must be steeped in this prickle, by running it gently, and in small quantities, into a broad bottomed basket of about 24 inches in diameter, and 20 inches deep, and stirring it. The light seed that floats must be strained off with a strainer, and must not be sown. When the basket has been drawn tip, and drained of the prickle, the wheat will be fit for sowing in two hours after the brining.

(2.) **BRINING OF HAY RICKS**, a practice common in America, of mixing salt with the hay as it is stacked.

* **BRINISH**. *adj.* [from *brine*.] Having the taste of brine; salt.—

Nero would be tainted with remorse

To hear and see her complaints, her *brinish* tears.

Shakespeare.

For now I stand, as one upon a rock,

Environ'd with a wilderness of sea,
Who marks the waxing tide grow wave by wave;
Expecting ever when some envious surge
Will, in his *brinish* bowels, swallow him. *Shakesp.*

* **BRINISHNESS**. *n. s.* [from *brinish*.] Saltiness; tendency to saltiness.

* **BRINK**. *n. s.* [*brink*, Danish.] The edge of any place, as of a precipice or a river.—

Th' amazed flames stand gather'd in a heap,
And from the precipice's *brink* retire,
Afraid to venture on so large a leap. *Dryden.*
—We stand therefore on the *brinks* and confines
of those states at the day of doom. *Atterbury.*—

So have I seen, from Severn's *brink*,
A flock of geese jump down together,
Swim where the bird of Jove wou'd sink;
And, swimming, never wet a feather. *Swift.*
BRINKHILL, a village in Lincolnshire, near Loughborough.

BRINKLEY, two villages; viz. 1. in Cambridgeshire, near Carlton; 2. in Northumberland near Easingdon.

BRINKLOW, in Warwicksh. near Cumberland.

BRINKWORTH, S. of Brandon forest, Wilts.

BRINLEY, James. See **BRINDLEY**, N. 1.

BRINN. See **BRIN**.

† **BRINNE**, *v. d. obs.* to burn. *Chauc.*

BRINNY, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

BRINSAP, in Lancashire, N. of Wigan.

BRINSOP, 4 m. N. W. of Hereford.

BRINSUPDELL, near Aspidde, Dorsetshire.

BRINTON, two small towns; viz. 1. in Huntingdonshire, near Moleworth; 2. in Norfolkshire, near Holt.

* **BRINY**. *adj.* [from *brine*.] Salt.—

He, who first the passage try'd,
In harden'd oak his heart did hide;

VOL. IV. PART II,

Or his, at least, in hollow wood,

Who tempted first the *briny* flood. *Dryden.*

Then, *briny* seas, and tasteful springs, farewell,
Where fountain nymphs, confus'd with Ne-
reids, dwell. *Addison.*

—A muriatick or *briny* taste seems to be produced by a mixture of an acid and alkaline salt; for spirit of salt, and salt of tartar, mixed, produce a salt like sea salt. *Arbutnot.*

BRIOCH, *inch.* See **INCH-BRAYOCK**.

BRIONNE, a town of France, in the department of Lower Seine, and ci-devant province of Normandy, seated on the river Rille. Lon. 6. 51. E. Lat. 49. 51. N.

* **BRIONY**. See **BRYONY**.

BRIOUDE, a town of France, in the department of Upper Loire, and ci-devant province of Lower Auvergne. The houses are built after the antique manner, and are badly disposed. Under the old constitution it was ranked in no diocese; but depended immediately on the Pope; and the canons were all counts and temporal lords. One half of it had the name of *Church Brioude*. The church of St Ferrol, is highly celebrated. Near the Old Town is a stone bridge over the Allier, of one arch. It is a stupendous structure, and is thought to be a work of the Romans. Brioude is situated 16 m. S. of Issoire, and 225 S. by E. of Paris. Lon. 2. 50. E. Lat. 46. 15. N.

BRIQUERAS, a town in Piedmont, seated in the valley of Lucern, 3 miles from the town of that name, and 4 from Pignetol. It had a very strong castle towards the end of the 12th century; but when the French got footing in it, it was ruined, before they delivered it up to the duke of Savoy in 1696. Lon. 7. 24. E. Lat. 44. 41. N.

(1.) **BRISACH**, or **OLD BRISACH**, a town of Germany, and capital of Brisgaw. It was twice in possession of the French; but restored to the house of Austria, in consequence of treaties of peace. It was a very strong place, but the fortifications have been demolished. It is seated on the Rhine, where there is a bridge of boats; 25 m. S. of Strasburg. The French took this town in 1795; but were driven from it by a party of Austrians under Prince Charles, in 1796. A party of the republicans, however, under Gen. St Cyr, expelled the Austrians, and again took possession of it on the 13th Oct. 1796. Lon. 7. 49. E. Lat. 48. 8. N.

(2.) **BRISACH, NEW**, a town of France, in the department of Upper Rhine, and ci-devant province of Alsace, built by order of Lewis XIV. over against Old Brisach, and fortified by Vauban. It is 32 miles S. of Strasburg, and one from the Rhine. Lon. 7. 40. E. Lat. 48. 5. N.

BRISÆUS, in mythology, a name of Bacchus.

(1.) **BRISCO**, a village near Carlisle.

(2.) **BRISCO, EAST**, } two villages in Yorkshire

(3.) **BRISCO, WEST**, } W. of Barnard's castle.

BRISCOIDES. See **BRISSEIDES**.

BRISE, *adj.* in heraldry, broken.

BRISEIS, or **HIPPODAMIA**, in fabulous history, the wife of Mynes king of Lyrnessa. After Achilles had taken the city, and killed her husband, she became his captive. The hero loved her tenderly; but Agamemnon taking her from him, she became the accidental cause of his death.

less disorders in the Grecian army. Achilles, enraged, retired to his tent; and, till the death of Patroclus, refused to fight against the Trojans. The resentment of this prince is finely painted in the Iliad.

BRISE-NORTON, a town in Oxfordshire.

BRISSET, in Suffolk, near Bliston.

* BRISGAW, a territory of Germany, in the circle of Suabia, on the eastern banks of the Rhine, about 50 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The principal places are Old and New Brisach, Freyburgh, Rhinmark, and an island in the Rhine. This country has been a scene of frequent and bloody contests between the French and Austrians during the present war. The French took Fribourg, the capital, after a very hard fought battle in June, 1796. Upon the retreat of Gen. Moreau's army in October 1796, the Archduke Charles became once more master of Brisgaw.

BRISIACUS MONS, in ancient geography, a town on the right or E. side of the Rhine; situated on a round hill; a fortified town of Suabia; now called OLD BRISAC.

* BRISK. *adj.* [*brusque*, French.] 1. Lively; vivacious; gay; sprightly: applied to men.—

Pr'ythee, die, and set me free,

Or else be

Kind and *brisk*, and gay like me. *Denham.*

—A creeping young fellow, that had committed matrimony with a *brisk* gamefome lass, was so altered in a few days, that he was liker a skeleton than a living man. *L'Estrange.*—

Why shou'd all honour then be ta'en

From lower parts, to load the brain:

When other limbs we plainly see,

Each in his way, as *brisk* as he? *Prior.*

2. Powerful; spirituous.—

Our nature here is not unlike our wine;

Some sorts, when old, continue *brisk* and fine.

Denham.

Under ground, the rude Riphæan race

Mimick *brisk*cyder, with the brake's product wild,

Sloes pounded, hips, and servis' hardest juice.

Philips.

—It must needs be some exterior cause, and the *brisk* acting of some objects without me, whose efficacy I cannot resist. *Locke.* 3. Vivid; bright. This is not used.—Objects appeared much darker, because my instrument was overcharged; had it magnified thirty or twenty-five times, it had made the object appear more *brisk* and pleasant. *Newton.*

* BRISKET. *n. s.* [*brichet*, Fr.] The breast of an animal.—See that none of the wool be wanting, that their gums be red, teeth white and even, and the *brisket* skin red. *Mortimer.*

* BRISKLY. *adv.* [from *brisk*.] Actively; vigorously.—We have seen the air in the bladder suddenly expand itself so much, and so *briskly*, that it manifestly lifted up some light bodies that leaned upon it. *Boyle.*—I could plainly perceive the creature to suck in many of the most minute animalcula, that were swimming *briskly* about in the water. *Ray on the Creation.*

* BRISKNESS. *n. s.* [from *brisk*.] 1. Liveliness; vigour; quickness.—Some remains of corruption, though they do not conquer and extinguish, yet will slacken and allay the vigour and *briskness* of

the renewed principle. *South.* 2. Gayety.—But the most distinguishing part of his character seems to me, to be his *briskness*, his jollity, and his good humour. *Dryden.*

* To BRISK UP. *v. n.* To come up briskly.

BRISLEY, a town near Lytcham, Norfolk.

BRISLINGTON, in Somersetsh. near Bristol.

BRISSAC, a town of France, in the department of Maine and Loire, seated on the Aubence, 13 m. S. of Angers. Lon. 6. 27. W. Lat. 47. 20. N.

BRISSOIDES, in natural history, a genus of the echini marini. The distinguishing characters are, that they are of an oval figure, and have their backs striated, not furrowed, and their rays smooth, not marked with ridges. Of this genus there are two known species.

BRISSONIUS, Barnaby, an eminent French lawyer and president of the parliament of Paris, born at Fontenay about the middle of the 16th century. He was much esteemed and honoured by Henry III. who boasted of him, as the most learned man in Christendom. He employed him in various negotiations, particularly ambassador to England. Being at Paris, when it was besieged by Henry IV. and remonstrating against the treasonable practices of the Leaguers, they fell upon him, dragged him to prison, and strangled him, Nov. 15, 1591. He wrote, 1. *De Verborum significatione*: 2. *De formulis solennibus populi Romani verbis*: 3. *De Regio Persarum principatu*; and some other works.

(1.) BRISSOT, Peter, one of the ablest physicians of the 16th century, was born at Fontenay le Comte in Poictou. He studied at Paris; and, having taken his degree of M. D. bent his thoughts to the reforming of physic, by restoring the precepts of Hippocrates and Galen, and exploding the maxims of the Arabians. For this purpose he publicly explained Galen's works, instead of those of Avicenna, Rhafis, and Mesue. He afterwards travelled to acquire the knowledge of plants; and going to Portugal, practised physic in Eboræ. His new method of bleeding in pleurisy, on the side where the pleurisy was, raised a kind of civil war among the Portuguese physicians; it was brought to the university of Salamanca, who at last gave judgment, that the opinion ascribed to Brissot was the pure doctrine of Galen. The partizans of Denys, his opponent, appealed in 1549 to the emperor, to prevent the practice, as being attended with destructive consequences; but Charles III. duke of Savoy happening to die at this time of a pleurisy, after having been bled on the opposite side, the prosecution dropped. He wrote an Apology for his practice; but died before it was published, in 1552; but Anthony Luccus, his friend, printed it at Paris in 1555. Renatus Moreau procured a new edition of it at Paris, in 1621 and annexed to it a treatise, intitled *De significatione sanguinis in pleuritide*, together with the Life of Brissot.

(2.) BRISSOT DE WARVILLE, J. P. an eminent French author and politician, who had an active hand in the late revolution, to the consequences attending which, however, he at last fell a sacrifice. As we wish to do justice to a character so distinguished, both in the political and literary world, of whom we have not yet met with a proper

per and impartial account, we must refer our readers for farther information respecting this great man to the SUPPLEMENT.

BRISSOTINES, a political party in France, during its revolutionary state, so denominated from citizen Brissot, their chief leader. They were keen republicans, but wished to establish a federal government in France like that of America.

BRISSUS, in natural history, a genus of the echini marini. The characters are, that they are of an oval figure, and have the aperture of the anus on one of the sides of the superficies; their back is smooth and even, not furrowed; but on the vertex they have several very elegant crenated and dotted lines. Their base is as if cut off on the end nearest the mouth, and is not flat as in the SPATANGI, but raised in the manner of a cushion.

* **BRISTLE**. *n. s.* [*bristl*, Sax.] The stiff hair of swine.—I will not open my lips so wide as a bristle may enter. *Shakespeare*.—He is covered with hair, and not as the boar, with bristles, which probably spend more upon the same matter, which, in other creatures, makes the horns; for bristles seem to be nothing else but a horn split into a multitude of little ones. *Grew*.—

Two boars whom love to battle draws,
With rising bristles, and with forthy jaws,
Their adverse breasts with tusks oblique they wound. *Dryden*.

(1.) * **To BRISTLE**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To erect in bristles.—

Now for the bare pickt bone of majesty,
Doth dogged war bristle his angry crest,
And snarleth in the gentle eyes of peace. *Shakesf.*
Which makes him plume himself, and bristle up
The crest of youth against your dignity. *Shakesf.*

(2.) * **To BRISTLE**. *v. n.* To stand erect as bristles.—

Be it ounce, or cat, or bear,
Pard, or boar with bristled hair,
In thy eye that shall appear,
When thou wak'st, it is thy dear. *Shakesf.*
Stood Theodore surpriz'd in deadly fright,
With chatt'ring teeth, and bristling hair upright;
Yet arm'd with inborn worth. *Dryden*.

Thy hair so bristles with unmanly fears,
As fields of corn that rise in bearded ears. *Dryd.*
(3.) * **To BRISTLE A THREAD**. To fix a bristle to it.

* **BRISTLY**. *adj.* [from *bristle*.] Thick set with bristles.—The leaves of the black mulberry are somewhat bristly, which may help to preserve the dew. *Bacon*.—If the eye were so acute as to rival the finest microscope, the sight of our own eyes would affright us; the smoothest skin would be beset with rugged scales and bristly hairs. *Bentley*.—

Thus mastful beech the bristly chesnut bears,
And the wild ash is white with bloomy pears. *Dryden*.

The careful master of the swine,
Forth hasted he to tend his bristled care. *Pope*.

(1.) **BRISTOL**, a city of England, inferior to none, except London, in wealth, trade, and number of inhabitants. Bristol is a corruption of BRIGHTSTOW, the name given it by the Saxons. It is thought to have stood anciently altogether on the Somersetshire or W. side of the Avon, before

the bridge was built; but afterwards, it came to be partly in Somersetshire and partly in Gloucestershire, until it was made a county of itself. Before that, in the parliament rolls, it was always placed in Somersetshire. At present, the E. side is by much the largest and most populous. It had anciently a castle, built by Robert E. of Gloucester, natural son to Henry I. which was demolished by Cromwell; and the ground is now laid out into streets. The corporation consists of a mayor; recorder; and 12 aldermen, of whom the recorder is one; two sheriffs; and 28 common council men. The recorder is generally a serjeant at law, and sits as judge in all criminal causes. The mayor, to support his dignity, is intitled to certain fees from ships, which long ago amounted to L. 500 or L. 600. Bristol is a bishop's see, being one of the six erected by Henry VIII. out of the spoils of the monasteries. The cathedral church was the church of the abbey of St Austin in Bristol, founded by Robert Fitzharding son to a king of Denmark, once a citizen here, and by him filled with canons regular in 1148. At the reformation, Henry VIII. placed therein a dean and six prebendaries, which mode of government still continues. During a great part of Q. Elizabeth's reign, his see was held in *commendam* by the bishop of Gloucester. This diocese was formed chiefly out of that of Salisbury, with a small part from those of Wells and Worcester. It contains most of the city of Bristol, and all the county of Dorset, in which are 236 parishes. It has only one archdeaconry, viz. of Dorset; is valued in the king's books L. 338 : 8 : 4, and is computed to be annually worth L. 1500, including its *commendams*. The tenths of the clergy, L. 353, 18 s. 0½d. The revenue of the abbey of St Augustine, or St Austin, in Bristol, was valued at the dissolution at L. 670 : 13 : 11, when it was erected into a cathedral by king Henry VIII. by the name of the *Cathedral Church of the Holy Trinity*. To this cathedral belongs a bishop, a dean, an archdeacon, a chancellor, six prebendaries, and other inferior officers and servants. Besides the cathedral, there are 18 parish churches; and dissenters of all denominations, of whom the Quakers are very respectable both for wealth and numbers. Among the parish churches, that of St Mary Ratcliff is reckoned one of the finest in the kingdom. In this church, besides two monuments of the founder, William Cannings, who had been 5 times mayor, one in the habit of a magistrate, and another in that of a priest, (for in his latter days he took orders,) there is one of Sir William Penn, father to the famous quaker. The old bridge over the Avon consisted of 4 broad arches, with houses on both sides like those formerly on London bridge; but this has been lately pulled down, and another erected in its place. No carts or waggons are admitted into Bristol, lest they should damage the subterraneous vaults and sewers. Sledges are used in their stead. Queen's-square is larger than any square in London, except Lincoln's-inn-fields, and has in the centre an equestrian statue of William III. All the gates of this city remain entire, and a part of the walls; the rest were razed in the reign of William II. It is almost as broad as long, about 7 miles in circum-

ference, and contains about 13,000 houses, and 95,000 inhabitants. Of the hospitals, the chief are, 1. Q. Elizabeth's, in which 100 boys are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and navigation; six of whom, when they go out, have L. 10, and the rest L. 8, 8s. to bind them apprentices: the master is allowed L. 450 a year for their maintenance. 2. Colston's hospital; in which 100 boys are maintained for 7 years, and taught and apprenticed, as in the other. 3. Another founded also by Mr Colston, in 1691, for 12 men and 12 women, with an allowance of 3s. per week, and 24 sacks of coals in the year. This charity cost the founder L. 25,000. 4. Another founded partly by Mr Colston and partly by the merchants, in which 12 men on account of the merchants, and 12 men and women on account of Mr Colston, are maintained. 5. An infirmary, which was opened in 1736 for the sick, lame, and distressed poor, is maintained by subscription, besides L. 5000 bequeathed to it by John Eldridge, Esq; formerly comptroller of the customs at this port. There are also a bridewell, several alm houses, and charity schools; a guildhall for the sessions and assizes; the mayor's and sheriffs courts; a council-house, where the mayor and aldermen meet daily, to administer justice; a handsome new exchange, with 3 entrances, about two thirds as large as that of London; and a quay half a mile in length, the most commodious in England for shipping and landing goods; for which purpose it is provided with several cranes. In College-green is a stately high cross, with the effigies of several kings round it. In Winch-street is a guard-house, with barracks for soldiers. The trade of this city was computed many years ago to be much greater in proportion, especially to America and the West Indies, than that of London. Fifty sail, some of them ships of considerable burthen, have arrived here at one time, or very near one another from the West Indies. For this trade, and that to Ireland, it is much better situated than London, besides the great advantage it possesses of an inland navigation by the Wye and Severn: and it is reckoned that 2000 vessels sail annually from this port. Their trade extends to the Baltic, Norway, Holland, Hamburg, Guinea, and the Straits. The largest ships are discharged at Hungroad, 4 miles below the city, and the goods are brought to the quay by lighters. For building, equipping, and repairing ships, there are docks, yards, ropewalks, and ship-wrights. Bristol has some considerable woollen manufactures; and no fewer than 15 glass-houses, for which Kingwood and Mendip furnish the coals. The city companies are 13: 1. Merchant adventurers. 2. Merchant tailors. 3. Mercers. 4. Soap-boilers. 5. Tobaccoists. 6. Butchers. 7. Barbers. 8. Tylers. 9. Holliers, or sled-men. 10. Shoemakers. 11. Coopers. 12. Bakers. 13. Smiths. For supplying the city with water there are 6 public conduits; and handsome hackney coaches may be hired at very reasonable rates, but they do not ply in the streets. There are also stage coaches, which set out every day for Bath, London, and other places; and a theatre, where plays are acted almost every night during the recess of the comedians from the metropolis. There are two an-

nual fairs, to which the concourse is so great, that the neighbouring inns have filled 100 beds a-piece with their guests. In winter there is an assembly every Thursday for the gayer part of the citizens of both sexes. About half way betwixt Bristol and Bath, at a place called WARMLEY, a company of Bristol merchants have erected a noble manufacture of pins and other brass utensils, which employs a great number of hands, including about 200 children of both sexes from 7 to 12 or 13 years of age. All the different operations of melting, plitting, drawing, hammering, turning, &c. are performed by wheels worked with water, which is raised by two fire-engines of a very curious mechanism. Bristol sends two members to parliament. Whoever marries a citizen's daughter becomes free of the city. It has 3 markets, on Wed. Frid. and Sat. It is 40 m. S. of Hereford, 60 N. E. of Exeter, 34 S. W. by S. of Gloucester, 50 S. S. W. of Worcester, 13 W. N. W. of Bath, and 124 W. of London. Lon. 2. 36. W. Lat. 51. 28. N.

(2.) BRISTOL, a maritime county of the United States, in Massachusetts; bounded on the N. by Norfolk, on the S. W. by the State of Rhode-Island, on the S. and S. E. by Buzzard's bay, and on the N. E. by Plymouth county. It is 41 m. in length, and 32 in breadth; and is divided into 15 townships, viz. Taunton, Norton, Easton, Mansfield, Attleborough, Swanzy, Somerset, Dighton, Raynham, Berkley, Freetown, Westport, Dartmouth, New-Bedford, and Rehoboth. It contains 4,514 houses, and 31,709 inhabitants. This county contains valuable mines of iron ore, which are worked to a large amount. Copper ore has been discovered in Attleborough township. The chief town is Taunton.

(3.) BRISTOL, a maritime county of the state of Rhode-Island, 7 miles in length and 3 in breadth. It is bounded on the E. by Mount-Hope, or Bristol-bay, on the W. by Warwick-bay, on the N. by the state of Massachusetts, and on the S. by part of Narraganset bay. It is divided into three townships, viz. Bristol, Warren, and Barrington; and contains 3,113 free inhabitants, and 98 slaves.

(4.) BRISTOL, a post town, and the capital of the preceding county; (N. 3.) It is situated on the main, 12 miles N. N. E. of Newport, and contains about 250 dwellings, a handsome court-house, a church for Episcopalians, and one for Congregationalists. This town was bombarded by captain Wallace, commanding a small British squadron, in October, 1775, and laid under contribution; no lives were lost on the occasion, except the minister of the congregational church, who left his house at the commencement of the bombardment, and being sick and very weak, perished in the fields. Several of the houses were destroyed; but they have been since rebuilt. It is now flourishing, and carries on a considerable trade to Africa, the West Indies, and the different States. Within the jurisdiction of this town, is Mount Hope, the last residence of the famous king Philip. It is now the seat of Mr Bradford, senator in Congress. This place is remarkable for the large quantities of fine vegetables, with which it furnishes the neighbouring towns, upwards of 300,000 ropes of onions, besides immense quantities of

ties of beets, carrots, turnips, &c. &c. are raised here annually. A supreme court is held here the 1st Monday in April, and October, and a court of common pleas the 1st Monday in January and July. It is 4 miles S. of Warren, 14 S. E. by E. of Providence, and 300 from Philadelphia.

(5.) **BRISTOL**, or } the capital of the county of
BRISTOL, NEW, } Bucks in Pennsylvania, situated on the river Delaware, about 20 miles N. of Philadelphia. It contains about 50 dwellings, some of which are neat and commodious. It is an agreeable handsome place; and is the resort of much company in summer. It was incorporated by Sir William Keith, in 1720; and was governed by a burghers and common council men, until the revolution. Lon. 75. 0. W. Lat. 40. 45. N.

(6.) * **BRISTOL STONE**. A kind of soft diamond found in a rock near the city of Bristol.—Of this kind of crystal are the better and larger sort of *Bristol stones*, and the Kerry stones of Ireland. *Woodward*.

(7.) **BRISTOL STONES** are found in St Vincent's rock above the hot well of **BRISTOL**: (§ 8.) They are six-cornered, and very beautiful and transparent; but they are not so plentiful now as in Camden's days, when he says whole bushels might have been easily gathered.

(8.) **BRISTOL WELLS**. A mile below the city, (N. 1.) close by the river, is the hot well, whose waters are good in pthical, scorbutic, and inflammatory disorders. To this there is a great resort in the summer, of invalids, as well as other company; for whose accommodation and entertainment there is a pump-room, ball-room, coffee-house, with taverns, and a great number of elegant lodging houses, both below on a level with the well, and above, in the delightful village of **CLIFTON**, which is situated on the brow of a hill, from whence there are downs extending several miles, where the company ride out for exercise. Nothing can be more pure and salutary than the air of these downs, which afford many romantic and agreeable prospects, comprehending King-road, with the ships at anchor, the mouth of the Severn, and the mountains of Wales. Of the 4 principal warm waters naturally produced in England those of this well are the least so. As the Bath waters are proper where the secretions are defective, so the Bristol water is of service where they exceed the requirements of health. The Bath water warms; the Bristol cools. Bath water helps the stomach, intestines, and nerves; the Bristol favours the lungs, kidneys, and bladder. Except a jaundice attend, the Bristol water may be of use in dropies by its drying and diuretic qualities. Dr Winter asserts, that there is no iron in Bristol water; and that its mineral contents are chalk, lapis calcareus, and calaminaris. Five gallons of this water, after evaporation, afforded only 3 iii. and gr. ii. of a mineral-like substance. The diseases in which this water is useful are internal hæmorrhagies, immoderate menses, internal inflammations, spitting blood, dysentery, purulent ulcers of the viscera, consumption, dropsy, scurvy with heat, stone, gravel, strangury, habitual gout, atrophy, slow fever, scrophula, glects, and diabetes, in which last it is a specific, and may be drunk as freely as the thirst requires

it. The hot months are the best for using it.—The Bristol and Matlock waters are of exactly the same qualities. Doctors Mead and Lane first established the reputation of Bristol waters in diseases of the kidneys and bladder. Besides the hot well, there is a cold spring which gushes out of a rock on the side of the Avon, and supplies the cold bath.

BRISTOW-CAUSEWAY, a village in Surry, near Clapham.

BRISTOW-PARK, in Leicestershire.

BRISURE, in fortification, a line of 4 or 5 fathoms, parallel to the line of defence.

* **BRIT. n.** / the name of a fish.—The pilchards were wont to pursue the *brit*, upon which they feed, into the havens. *Carew*.

(1.1.) **BRITAIN**, or **GREAT BRITAIN**, the most considerable of all the European islands, extends from the Lizard Point, in the latitude of about 50° to Dunesbay Head, in latitude 58. 40. N. or, taking it in a straight line from N. to S. about 8° or 550 miles; and from Dover Head on the E. to Lands-end on the W. comprehends about 7° of longitude; which may be computed at about 290 miles. Others estimate its length at 700 miles, and its breadth at 300; but the form being very irregular, and lessening continually towards the north, proper allowances must be made in computing its dimensions.

(2.) **BRITAIN, ANCIENT NAMES AND ETYMOLOGIES OF**. The ancient name of this island was **ALBION**, the name *Britain* being then common to all the islands round it. Hence Agathemerus, speaking of the British islands, "They are many in number, (says he,) but the most considerable among them are Ilibernia and Albion." And Ptolemy, to the chapter wherein he describes this island, prefixes the following title; "The situation of *Albion*, a British island." But as this far excelled the other British islands, the name of *Albion* in time was laid quite aside, and that of *Britain* used in its stead. By this name it was known in Pliny's time, and even in Cæsar's.—The origin of both these names is very uncertain. Some derive that of Albion from the Greek word *alphon*, which, according to Festus, signifies *white*, the chalky cliffs, that in several places rise on the southern coasts having that colour; while others pretend this name was borrowed from a fabulous giant, the son of Neptune, mentioned by several ancient authors. Some etymologists have recourse to the Hebrew, and others to the Phœnician; *alben* in the former signifying *white*, and *alp* in the latter signifying *high*. The origin of the name *Britain* is no less uncertain than that of *Albion*. Nennius and some other British writers derive it from **BRUTUS**, or **BRITO**, the 5th in descent from the celebrated Æneas. Others derive it from the British words *pryd cain*, that is a *white form*, softened by degrees into *Britannia*. Camden derives it from the word *brith*, which, in the ancient language of the island, signifies *painted*; and *tania*, importing, in Greek, a region or country; so that the word *Brithania*, changed in process of time into *Britannia*, expresses what the Britons really were, that is, *painted*. Somner, says, that the name *Britain* comes from *brydio*; signifying, in the British tor

and pointing out the violent motion of the sea that surrounds the island. Mr Whittaker, in his history of Manchester, derives it from the word *brith*, *briet*, *brit*, *bris*, or *brig*, which, he says, signifies *divided* or *striped*. Against the first of these etymologies it may be objected, that it is founded on a fable: and against the other 4, lies one common and unanswerable objection; which is, that the name of *Britain* was given to the island by foreigners, who could not borrow it from the British tongue, with which they were in all likelihood unacquainted. That the island received the name of *Britain* from foreigners is evident, since the natives never styled themselves *Britons*, nor their country *Britain*; their true name being *Cumri*, or *Cumbri*; whence *Cambria* the name of Wales to this day among the Welsh. The learned Bochart, speaking of the colonies and language of the Phœnicians, offers a conjecture, which most of our modern writers have adopted as the most natural. The Phœnicians, according to that writer, called this island and some others near it, *Barat Anac*, that is, *the land or country of tin or lead*, and more contractedly *Bratanac*; which name, passing from the Phœnicians to the Greeks, and from these to the Romans, might have been softened into those of *Britannice*, and *Britannia*. That the Phœnicians first discovered these islands, which were afterwards by the Greeks called *Cassiterides*, and are proved by Camden to be our Scilly islands, appears both from Strabo and Pliny; of whom the former tells us, that the Phœnicians first brought tin from the *Cassiterides*, which they sold to the Greeks; but kept the trade to themselves, and the place private; and the latter writes, that Mediocritus was the first who brought lead from the *Cassiterides*; where Bochart shows that we ought to read *Melichartus*, who is the Phœnician Hercules of Sanchoniatho, to whom that nation ascribe their first western discoveries. But notwithstanding the care of the Phœnicians to conceal these islands, the Greeks at last discovered them; and gave them the name of *Cassiterides*, which in the Greek tongue, signifies the same with *Barat Anac* in the Phœnician. This name was at first given to the islands of Scilly already mentioned, but by degrees communicated to all the others lying in the same sea. Thus Bochart.—But after all, his opinion, however plausible, may be as far from the truth as any of the rest; many instances of names given to new discovered countries showing, that the origin of such names is not always owing to reason, but often to chance or caprice.

(3.) **BRITAIN, ANCIENT NATIONS OF.** The Romans, upon their arrival in this island, found the people, who inhabited the various parts of it, divided into a number of different tribes. The chief nations, as denominated by the Romans, were the *Cantii*, who inhabited Kent; *Trinobantes*, Middlesex; *Belge*, or *Regni*, in Hampshire, Wiltshire, and Somersetshire; *Durotriges*, in Dorsetshire; *Damnonii*, in Devonshire and Cornwall; *Atrebates*, in Berkshire; *Silures*, in South Wales; *Ordovices*, in North Wales; *Iceni*, in Essex, Suffolk, Norfolk, &c.; *Brigantes*, in Yorkshire; and several others. *Caledonia*, or *Britannia Barbara*, subdued by the Romans, who did not

penetrate farther than the *montes Grampii*. It was inhabited by the *Caledonians* and *Picts*, so called, because they painted their bodies; which practice indeed was common to all the Britons, as well as to other barbarous nations. *Scoti*, the Scots, are only mentioned by later writers, after the time of Theodosius; and generally supposed to have come from Ireland. The S. E. part of Britain is thought to have been peopled from Gaul. Tacitus imagines that the Caledonians, from their size and the colour of their hair, were of German extraction. The *Silures*, or Welsh, for similar reasons, are believed to have come from Spain.

(4.) **BRITAIN, ANCIENT ROMAN DIVISIONS OF, &c.** The Romans divided our island into two parts; *BRITANNIA ROMANA*, and *BRITANNIA BARBARA*. These were of different extent at different times, according to the progress of their conquests. *Britannia Romana* was subdivided into *Superior*, answering to Wales, and *Inferior*, comprehending the rest of it: likewise into *Britannia prima*, *secunda*, *Valentia*, *Maxima Caesariensis*, and *Flavia Caesariensis*; but the limits of these are not known. The principal rivers of Britain, they denominated *Tamēsis*, the Thames; *Sabrinā*, the Severn; *Abus*, the Humber, composed of the Ouse, Trent, and other branches; *Vedra*, the Were; *Tina*, the Tyne; *Ituna*, the Eden, which runs into the *Æstuarium Itunæ*, the Solway frith; *Tuaēsis*, or *Tuefis*, the Tweed; *Bodotria*, or *Boderia*, the Forth; *Glota*, the Clyde; *Tauis*, the Tay; *Devana*, the Dee, &c. The W. & N. parts of the island are in general mountainous. The only mountain, however, or rather range of mountains, which, the Romans have distinguished by a name, is *Mons Grampius*, the Grampian mountains, which, beginning near the mouth of the Dee, not far from Aberdeen, run westward to Cowal, in Argyllshire, almost the whole breadth of the island.

(5.) **BRITAIN, ANCIENT STATE OF GOVERNMENT IN.** When the Romans invaded Britain, it was divided into a number of small independent states, which facilitated the conquest of it. Each state was governed by a king or chief magistrate, and under him by several chieftains, who ruled each his own tribe with a kind of subordinate authority. One of the chief parts of the regal office was to command in war; which these sovereigns always executed in person, whether they were kings or queens; for in this respect, as in succeeding to the crown, there was no distinction of sexes. These kings were frequently at war with one another, though Diodorus Siculus says they usually lived in peace. The authority of the kings of Britain was greatly controuled by the priests called *DRUIDS*, who were not only the ministers of religion, but also possessed the right of making laws, of explaining and executing them. Their power, and consequently the honour paid them, was incredibly great. They were considered as the interpreters of the Gods; they were exempted from all taxes and military services; and their persons were held sacred and inviolable.

(6.) **BRITAIN, ANCIENT TOWNS OF.** The Britons had scarcely any towns of note when invaded by the Romans. The termination *Chester*, which is common to so many towns in England, is thought to be derived from the Latin *castra*, and that these

were places of Roman encampments. *Londinium*, London, was early remarkable for a great resort of merchants. *Camelodunum*, Malden, or according to others, Colchester, was the first Roman colony in Britain. The ports most frequented under the emperors, were *Rutupia*, Richborough, in Kent; the *Portus Dubris*, Dover, and *Lemanis*, Lyme, near which, Cæsar is supposed to have landed. Other remarkable places were, *Durovernum*, Canterbury; *Durobrivis* Rochester; *Venta Belgarum*, Winchester; *Durnium*, or *Durnovaria*, Dorchester; *Isca*, Exeter; *Verulamium*, Verulam, near St Alban's; *Aque Solis*, or *Calidæ*, Bath; *Gloucestria*, Gloucester; *Deva*, Chester, on the river Dee, where the ancient walls and fortifications still remain; *Lindum Colonia*, Lincoln; *Eboracum*, York; *Luguvallum*, Carlisle; *Alata castra*, supposed to be Edinburgh, called anciently *Edinodunum*, from its Celtic appellation, *Dun Aidan*, the eminence or citadel of Aidan; *Burg*, Saxon, answering to *dune* in the Celtic; or, according to others, from *Eden*, a Northumbrian king who built or possessed it.

(7.) **BRITAIN, CUSTOMS AND MANNERS OF THE ANCIENT INHABITANTS OF.** Besides the Druids, (§ 5.) there were two other classes highly respected both in Gaul and Britain, the one called **BARDS**, who sang historical and heroic songs in praise of brave warriors; and the other, **PROPHETS**, who foretold future events, from omens and the entrails of victims; for the Druids were much addicted to divination, and to gratify that propensity committed acts of the greatest cruelty. The Britons were much more united with respect to religious than political matters. The constant jealousy and frequent hostility which subsisted between the different states were very unfavourable to external defence. To this want of union Tacitus ascribes their subjection to the Romans, who, with their usual policy first formed alliances with some of the states, and used their assistance to crush the rest; then quarrelling with their allies, they reduced them also; which was sooner or later the fate of all the allies of Rome. The dwellings of the ancient Britons were scattered over the country, like those of the ancient Germans, and generally situated on the brink of some rivulet, for the sake of water, and on the skirt of some wood or forest, for the convenience of hunting, and pasture for their cattle. For most of the inhabitants of the interior parts of Britain lived on milk and flesh, without corn; and had no clothing but skins. The principal strength of the British forces consisted in infantry; although they also had a numerous cavalry; and some nations likewise fought from chariots armed with scythes, which they managed with great dexterity. The chieftains managed the reins, while their dependents fought from the chariot. The cruel policy of the Romans in disarming the inhabitants of the conquered provinces, produced a wonderful change of character in the Britons; which the more humane tho' artful conduct of Agricola contributed greatly to accelerate. See *AGRICOLA*, No. 1. By degrees, they acquired a taste for those refinements which stimulate to vice (*delinimenta vitiorum*), porticos, baths, and elegant entertainments; and what constituted part of their slavery was, through

inexperience, termed by them *humanity* or politeness. Thus the Britons, after being subjected to the Roman yoke, although greatly increased in numbers, and improved in point of domestic enjoyment, sunk in a short time from being one of the bravest of nations into feebleness and effeminacy; so that when the Romans left them, they were in a manner quite defenceless, and thus became an easy prey to the first invaders.

(8.) **BRITAIN, HISTORY OF.** The history of Britain, or rather of **SOUTH BRITAIN**, (for the northern part was for many ages only known by the name of *CALEDONIA*,) is naturally divided into six periods, viz. 1. Before the Roman Invasion: 2. From that invasion to the Union of all England under Egbert the Great: 3. From that period to the overthrow of the Anglo-Saxon constitution and government, by William the Norman: 4. From the Norman Conquest to the Union of the two crowns under James I.: 5. From the accession of James I. to the revolution: and, 6. From that grand æra, to the present important period. The first of these periods being filled with nothing but fabulous legends, merits little or no notice: the history of the 2d, 3d, and 4th periods, belongs properly to **ENGLAND**, and will therefore be found under that article, although South Britain was not known by that name, till long after the Roman Invasion. The history of **GREAT BRITAIN**, therefore is properly restricted to the two last periods. But, though we by no means approve of the compliment *too generally* paid to **ENGLAND**, by styling the kingdom, constitution, government, inhabitants, army, navy, revenues, &c. &c. of **GREAT BRITAIN**, *English* instead of *British*, (a mode of expression that ought to have been long ago dropt, at least by the *representatives of the BRITISH NATION*) yet to avoid making a chasm in the English history, by stopping at the death of Elizabeth, and more especially as the present war, (the most important in its origin, progress and probable consequences, that ever Britain was engaged in,) is not brought to a conclusion, we shall refer the reader, for the history of both these interesting periods to the article **ENGLAND**.

(9.) **BRITAIN, ISLANDS OF.** The chief islands round Britain, as denominated by the Romans are, *Vectis*, Wight; *Cassiterides*, supposed to be the Scilly Islands, so called, from their producing tin, by the Phœnician Greeks, who gave this name likewise to *promontorium Bolerium*, Land's-end, and *Damnonium* or *Ocrinum*, the Lizard point, as also a part of Cornwall; *Mona*, Anglesey, the seat of the Druids, and *Mona* or *Monæda*, Man; *Ebūdæ*, or *Hebrides*, the western isles of Scotland; *Orcades*, the Orkneys, opposite to the promontory *Orcas*, Dungsby: to which add the Shetland islands, supposed to be the *Ultima Thule* of the ancients, which they imagined the most remote part of the earth towards the north.

(10.) **BRITAIN, MODERN DIVISION OF.** The whole island of Great Britain has long been divided into **ENGLAND**, **SCOTLAND**, and **WALES**; all of which were formerly under different sovereigns, though now happily united under one. For a particular description and history of each, see these articles.

(11.) **BRITAIN, NORTH.** See **SCOTLAND**.

(12.) **BRITAIN**

(12.) BRITAIN, SOUTH. See ENGLAND.

(II.) BRITAIN, CAPE. See BRETON, CAPE.

(III.) BRITAIN, NEW, a large country of North America, called also *Terra Labrador*, has Hudson's bay and strait, on the N. and W.; Canada and the river St Lawrence, on the S.; and the Atlantic ocean on the E. It is subject to Great Britain, but yields only skins and furs. The following is the best description of this country that we have met with. It was drawn up by the commander of the Otter sloop, and communicated to the Royal Society by the hon. Daines Barrington, in 1774. "There is no part of the British dominions so little known as the immense country of Labrador. So few have visited the northern parts of this vast country, that almost from the straits of Belleisle until you come to the entrance to Hudson's bay, for more than 10° of lat. no chart which can give any tolerable idea of the coast hath been hitherto formed. The barrenness of the country explain why it has been so seldom frequented. Here avarice has but little to feed on. Perhaps, without an immoderate share of vanity, I may venture to presume, that as far as I have been, which is to the latitude of 59. 10. the draught which I have been able to form is by much the best of any that has hitherto been made. Others have gone before me blest with abilities superior to mine, and to whom I hope to be thought equal in assiduity. But I had advantages which they were destitute of; with a small vessel, and having an Indian with me, who knew every rock and shoal upon the coast, I was enabled to be accurate in my observations; and these are the reasons why I deem my own sketch preferable to all others. As this country is one of the most barren in the whole world, so its sea coast is the most remarkable. Bordered by innumerable islands, and many of them being a considerable distance from the main land, a ship of burden would sail a great way along the coast without being able to form any notion of its true situation. Hence it is that all charts of it have been so extremely erroneous; and hence arose those opinions that some of the inlets extended a vast distance into the country, if not quite into the sea of Hudson's bay. Davis's inlet, which has been so much talked of, is not 20 leagues from the entrance of it to its extremity. The navigation here is extremely hazardous. Towards the land, the sea is covered with large bodies and broken pieces of ice; and the farther you go northward, the greater is the quantity you meet with. Some of those masses, which the seamen call *islands of ice*, are of a prodigious magnitude; and they are generally supposed to swim two thirds under water. You will frequently see them more than 100 feet above the surface; and to ships in a storm, or in thick weather, nothing can be more terrible. Those prodigious pieces of ice come from the north, and are supposed to be formed by the freezing of cataracts upon the lands about East Greenland and the pole. As soon as the severity of the winter begins to abate, their immense weight breaks them from the shore, and they are driven to the southward. To the miserable inhabitants of Labrador, their appearance upon the coast serves as a token of the approach of summer. This vast tract of

land is extremely barren, and altogether incapable of cultivation. The surface is every where uneven and covered with large stones, some of which are of amazing dimensions. There are few springs; yet throughout the country there are prodigious chains of lakes or ponds, which are produced by the rains and the melting of the snow. These ponds abound in trout, but they are very small. There is no such thing as level land. It is a country formed of frightful mountains, and unfruitful valleys. The mountains are almost devoid of every sort of herbage. A blighted shrub and a little moss is sometimes to be seen upon them, but in general the bare rock is all you behold. The valleys are full of crooked low trees, such as the different pines, spruce, birch, and a species of cedar. Up some of the deep bays, and not far from the water, it is said, however, there are a few sticks of no inconsiderable size. In a word, the whole country is nothing more than a prodigious heap of barren rocks. The climate is extremely rigorous. There is but little appearance of summer before the middle of July; and in September the approach of winter is very evident. It has been remarked, that the winters within these few years have been less severe than they have been known heretofore. The cause of such an alteration it would be difficult to discover. All along there are many rivers that empty themselves into the sea, yet there are but few of any consideration; and you must not imagine, that the largest are any thing like what is generally understood by a river. Custom has taught us to give them this appellation; but the greatest part of them are nothing more than broad brooks or rivulets. As they are only drains from the ponds, in dry weather they are every where fordable; for, running upon a solid rock, they become broad without having a bed of any depth below the surface of the banks. The superficial appearance of this country is extremely unfavourable. What may be hidden in its bowels, we cannot pretend to suggest: probably it may produce some copper; the rocks in many places are impregnated with an ore of that resemblance. Something of a horny substance, which is extremely transparent, and which will scale out into a multitude of small sheets, is often found amidst the stones; there are both black and white of this sort, but the black is the most rare. It has been tried in fire, but seems to be noways affected by heat. The species of wood here are not very various: excepting a few shrubs which have as yet received no name from the Europeans, the principal produce of the country is the different sorts of spruce and vine. Of these, even in the more southern parts, there is not abundance; as you advance northwards they gradually diminish; and by the time you arrive at 60° lat. the eye is not delighted with any sort of herbage. Here the wretched residents build their miserable habitations with the bones of whales. If ever they cheer their aching limbs with a fire, they gather a few sticks from the sea shore, which have probably been washed from Norway or Lapland. Here a vast quantity of snow remains upon the land throughout the year. Although the winter here is so excessively rigid, in summer the heat is sometimes disagreeable; and in that season the weather

weather is very moderate, and remarkably serene. It is but seldom foggy. Speaking comparatively, between this and Newfoundland; nor are you so frequently liable to those destructive gales of wind which visit many other parts of the globe. It is in general high land, and sometimes you meet with mountains of an astonishing height; you are also frequently presented with prospects that are really awful, and extremely romantic. The inhabitants of New Britain are called *ESKIMAUX*." *Poiss. Trans.* lxi. p. 372. See *GREENLAND* and *JUDSON'S BAY*.

(IV.) *BRITAIN, NEW*, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean, situated N. of New Guinea. Capt. Dampier first sailed through the strait which separates it from New Guinea; and in 1767, Capt. Carteret sailed through another strait, which separates it from another island, on the N. of it, which he called *NEW IRELAND*. New Britain on the N. and W. extends to 154. 19. lon. E. and 4. 0. lat. S. but its southern and eastern limits are not so well ascertained. New Ireland extends from lon. 149. 0. E. and lat. 10. 30. S. The coasts of both are rocky; the inland parts high and mountainous; but covered with various trees; such as the nutmeg, the cocoa nut, and different kinds of palm trees. The natives are black and woolly headed, like negroes, but have not their flat noses and thick lips.

(1.) *BRITANNIA*, in ancient geography, Great Britain and all the islands belonging to it.

(2.) *BRITANNIA MINOR*, the ci-devant province of *BRITTANY*, or *BRETAGNE*, in France.

(1.) *BRITANNIC*, *adj.* belonging to Britain.

(2.) *BRITANNIC PLAGUE*, a name given by some writers to the *Anglicanus sudor*, or sweating disease.

BRITANNICA, in the botany and materia medica of the ancients, the name of a plant described as having leaves of a dark colour, very large, and a shape resembling those of the common wild-rocket, but somewhat hairy and of an astringent taste; the root small and slender, and the stalk of large. This is the description of Dioscorides, who attributes to its inspissated juice great virtues as an astringent, and a remedy for ulcers of the mouth and tonsils; and Pliny acquaints us of its prodigious efficacy in a distemper attending the army of Germanicus, who, when they had crossed the Rhine, encamped in a place where there was only one spring of water, the drinking of which affected them in a terrible manner in their mouths, and made their teeth drop out; and that the physicians, who called the disease *stomacace* and *scoloris*, were at length directed to the herb *Britannica*, as a remedy, by the Frisians who were in their camp. The virtues attributed to this plant were observed, by later physicians, to agree with those of the *hydrolopathum majus*, or great water-rocket, a plant produced very abundantly with us, but at present neglected in the practice of physic; and Muntingius, who has written professedly of the *Britannica* of the ancients, is persuaded that this is the genuine plant; which appears extremely probable.

(1.) *BRITANNICUS*, son of the emperor Claudius by Messalina, was excluded from the empire after his father had married Agrippina; who put

her son Nero on the throne, and caused Britannicus to be poisoned, A. D. 55.

(2.) *BRITANNICUS*, John, one of the best humanists of the 15th century, was born at Brescia. He published notes on Persius, Juvenal, Terence, Statius, and Ovid. He died in 1510.

* *To BRITE. To BRIGHT. v. n.* Barley, wheat, or hops, are said to *brite*, when they grow over ripe.

(1.) *BRITISH*, *adj.* of or from Britain.

(2.) *BRITISH LANGUAGE*, the same with the Welch. The ancient British, or Cambro-British, is a dialect of the Celtic. Some pretend, but with no probability, that the British is formed immediately from the Teutonic. Cooper absurdly enough calls the English language the British.

BRITOMARTIS, in the mythology, a daughter of Jupiter, who threw herself into the sea, to avoid the pursuit of Minos.

BRITO, See *BRITAIN*, N° 2. and *BRUTUS*, N° 3.

BRITONS, the people of Britain. See *BRITAIN*, § 7. *ENGLAND*, *SCOTLAND*, and *WALES*.

BRITTANY, or *BRETAGNE*, a ci-devant province of France, 150 miles in length and 112 in breadth; anciently called *ARMORICA*. It is a peninsula, surrounded on all sides by the ocean except on the E. where it joined Anjou, Maine, Normandy, and Poitou. It was divided into the upper and lower. The natives carry on great trade, by the many harbours on its coast. It was united to the crown of France in 1534, and abounds in large forests. Some authors suppose that Great Britain was first peopled from Brittany. It is now divided into 5 departments. See *BRETAGNE*.

BRITTENS, a village in Essex, near Hornchurch.

* *BRITTLE*, *adj.* [*brittan*, Sax.] Fragile; apt to break; not tough.—The wood of vines is very durable; though no tree hath the twigs, while they are green, so *brittle*, yet the wood dried is extremely tough. *Bacon*.—

From earth all came, to earth must all return;

Frail as the cord, and *brittle* as the urn. *Prior*.

Of airy pomp, and fleeting joys,

What does the busy world conclude at best,

But *brittle* goods, that break like glass? *Granville*.

—If the stone is *brittle*, it will often crumble, and pass in the form of gravel. *Arbutnot*.

(1.) * *BRITTLENESS*, *n. s.* [from *brittle*.] Aptness to break; fragility.—A wit quick without brightness, sharp without *brittleness*. *Ascham's Schoolmaster*.—Artificers, in the tempering of steel, by holding it but a minute or two longer or lesser in the flame, give it very differing tempers; as to *brittleness* or toughness. *Boyle*.

(2.) *BRITTLENESS* may be farther defined, that quality of bodies which subjects them to be easily broken by pressure or percussion. Brittle bodies are extremely hard; a very small percussion exerts a force on them equivalent to the greatest pressure. This effect is particularly remarkable in glass suddenly cooled, the brittleness of which is thereby much increased. Tin, though in itself tough, gives a brittleness to all the other metals when mixed therewith. The brittleness of glass has been said to arise from the heterogeneity of the parts whereof it is composed, as salt and sand ——— bind

sufficiently together: but this cannot be the case; for the pure calces of metals, or any other simple substances when vitrified, become brittle also. In timbers, brittleness seems to be connected with durability; the more brittle any sort of wood is, the more durable it is found. Thus oak is of very long duration; while beech and birch, being tough, presently rot, and are of little service in building.

(1.) **BRITTON**, a town near Barnsley, Yorksh.

(2.) **BRITTON**, Thomas, the famous musical small coal-man, was born at Higham Ferrers in Northamptonshire. He served his time in London, where he set up in a stable, next door to the little gate of St John of Jerusalem, on Clerkenwell-green, which he converted into a house. Here getting acquainted with Dr Garendiers, his near neighbour, he became an excellent chemist, constructing a moveable laboratory which was much admired by all who saw it. His skill in music was noways inferior to that in chemistry, either in the theory or practice; he had for many years a well frequented musical club, meeting at his own little cell; and was as well respected as known by persons of the first quality; being, above all, a valuable man in his moral character. In Ward's account of clubs, we are told, that "Britton's was first begun, or at least confirmed, by Sir Roger L'Estrange, a very musical gentleman; and that the attachment of Sir Roger and other ingenious gentlemen, lovers of the muses, to Britton, arose from the profound regard he had in general to all manner of literature." This meeting was the first of the kind, and gave rise to some of the most celebrated concerts in London. Ward, who was his cotemporary, says, that at the first institution of it, his concert was performed in his own house, which is thus described. "On the ground floor was a repository for small coal: over that was the concert room, which was very long and narrow; and had a ceiling so low, that a tall man could but just stand upright in it. The stairs to this room were on the outside of the house, and could scarce be ascended without crawling. The house itself was very old and low built, and in every respect so mean as to be a fit habitation only for a very poor man." Notwithstanding, this mansion, despicable as it may seem, attracted to it as polite an audience as ever the opera did. At those concerts Dr Pepusch, Mr Handel, Mr Bannister, Mr Henry Needler, and other capital masters, were performers. At the first institution of this club, it is certain Britton would receive no gratuity whatever from his guests, and was offended when ever any was offered him. According to some, however, he departed from this; and the rules were, Britton found the instruments, the subscription was 10s. a-year, and they had coffee at a penny a dish. The singularity of his character, the course of his studies, and the collections he made, induced suspicions that Britton was not the man he seemed to be. Among other groundless conjectures, his musical assembly was thought by some to be only a cover for seditious meetings; by others, for magical purposes; and Britton himself was taken for an atheist, a Jesuit, &c. The circumstances of this man's death are not less remarkable than those of his life.

There lived at that time one Samuel Honeyman, a blacksmith by trade, who became very famous for a faculty which he possessed of speaking as if his voice proceeded from some distant part of the house where he stood: in short, he was one of those men called **VENTRILOQUISTS**, i. e. those that speak from their bellies. See **VENTRILOQUISM**. One Robe, an acquaintance of Britton's, was foolish enough to introduce this man, unknown to Britton, for the sole purpose of terrifying him; and he succeeded but too well in it. Honeyman, without moving his lips, or seeming to speak, announced, as from afar off, the death of Britton within a few hours, with an intimation that the only way to avert his doom was for him to fall on his knees immediately, and say the Lord's prayer: the poor man did as he was bid, went home and took to his bed, and in a few days died, leaving his friend Robe to enjoy the fruits of his foolish mirth. This happened in September 1714. Britton left behind him a large collection of books, music, and musical instruments. Of the former Sir Hans Sloane was a considerable purchaser. His collection of music, mostly picked by himself, and very neatly, sold for near 200*l*. In the British Museum there is a painting of him taken from the life. A mezzotinto print was taken from this picture, for which Mr Hughes (author of the *Siege of Damascus*, and a frequent performer at Britton's concerts,) wrote the following lines:

Tho' mean thy rank, yet in thy humble cell
Did gentle peace and arts unpurchas'd dwell;
Well pleas'd, Apollo thither led his train,
And music warbled in her sweetest strain.
Cyllenius so, as fables tell, and Jove,
Came willing guests to poor Philemon's grove.
Let useless pomp behold, and blush to find
So low a station, such a lib'ral mind.

BRITTONER, *n. s.* a boaster.

BRITWELL, a village in Oxfordshire, 3 miles from Maidenhead.

BRITWELL-SALOME, near Watlington, Oxford.

BRIVA ISARÆ, in ancient geography, a town of Gallia Belgica on the river Isara or Oyle; now called **PONTROYSE**.

BRIVATES, in ancient geography, a port of Gallia Celtica; now called **BREST**.

BRIVES LA GAILLARDE, a town of France, in the department of Correze, and ci-devant province of Lower Limosin. It stands in a fruitful plain, opposite to an island formed by the Correze, over which there are two handsome bridges. It has elegant buildings, fine walks, and manufactures of silks, muslins, gauzes, &c. It is 7 miles S. of Limoges, and 120 S. by W. of Paris. Lon. *r.* 45. E. Lat. 45. 15. N.

BRIX. See **BRIXG**, N° 1.

BRIXELLUM, in ancient geography, a town of Gallia Cispadana; remarkable for being the place where Otho killed himself after the battle of Bedriacum: now called **BRESELLO**.

(1.) **BRIKEN**, a bishopric of Germany, in Tirol, near the frontiers of Friuli and Carinthia, towards the E. The bishop has a vote and seat in the diet of the empire, and furnishes his contingent when any tax is laid on Tirol. The principal places are Brixen, Sertzingen, Breunick, and Lientz.

Lientz. This country was over-run by the French army, under Gen. Buonaparte, in the beginning of 1797.

(2.) **BRIXEN**, the capital of the bishopric, and the bishop's common residence, is seated on the river Eisack, at some distance from the mountain Brenner. It is surrounded with mountains, where there are plenty of vineyards, which yield good red wine. It is a populous town; and the houses are well built with piazzas, and painted on the outside. The public buildings are very handsome, and there are several spacious squares. It is much frequented, on account of the mineral waters near it. Lon. 11. 30. E. Lat. 46. 35. N.

BRIXHAM, a village on the coast of Devonsh. S. W. of Berry-Point.

BRIXIA, in ancient geography, a town of the Cenomani in the Regio Transpadana; now called **BRESCIA**.

BRIXTON, two small towns; 1. in Devonsh. S. E. of Plymstock: 2. in W. Medina, Isle of Wight.

BRIXTON-CAUSEY, a village in Surry.

BRIXWORTH, 7 miles from Northampton.

(1.) **BRIZA**, in botany, **QUAKING GRASS**: A genus of the digynia order, and triandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 4th order, Gramina. The calyx is two-valved, and multiflorous; the spicula bifarious; with the small valves heart-shaped and blunt, and the inner one small in proportion to the rest. There are 5 species of briza; two of which are natives of Britain, viz.

1. **BRIZA MEDIA**, the middle quaking grass; and

2. **BRIZA MINOR**, the small quaking grass. Both grow in pasture grounds.

(II.) **BRIZA**, in the materia medica, a name used for the grain of the **ZEA MONOCOCCUS**, or St Peter's corn.

(4.) **BRIZE**, a town of Ireland, in Mayo.

(2.) **BRIZE**, in husbandry, ground that has lain long untilled.

(3.) * **BRIZE**. n. s. The gadfly.—

A brize, a scorned little creature,
Thro' his fair hide his angry sting did threaten.
Spenser.

BRIZEN, a town of Brandenburg.

BRIZE-VENTS, shelters used by gardeners who have not walls on the N. side, to keep cold winds from damaging their beds of melons. They are inclosures about 6 or 7 feet high, and an inch or more thick; made of straw, supported by stakes fixed into the ground, and props across on both inside and outside; and fastened together with willow twigs, or iron wire.

BRIZLES, a hill in Northumberland, 2 miles from Alnwick. The duke of Northumberland has erected a tower on the top of it, within sight of his castle. It is 90 feet high, and has a winding stair-case. It was finished in 1783.

BRIZO, in the mythology, the goddess of sleep.

(1.) * **BROACH**: n. s. [*broche*, Fr.] 1. A spit.—He was taken into service to a bafe office in his kitchen; so that he turned a broach, that had worn a crown. *Bacon's Henry VII.*—

Whose offered entrails shall his crime reproach,
And drip their fatness from the hazle broach.

Dryden.

2. A musical instrument, the sounds of which are made by turning round a handle. *Diſt.* 3. [With hunters.] A start of the head of a young stag, growing sharp like the end of a spit. *Diſt.*

(2.) **BROACH**, **BROCHA**, **BROCHE**, or **BROTCH**, in Scotland, is the name of an utensil, or rather ornament, which the Highlanders use, like the *fibula* of the Romans, to fasten their vests. They are usually made of silver; of a round figure; with a tongue crossing its diameter, to fasten the folds of the garment; sometimes with two tongues, one on each side of a cross bar in the middle. There are preserved, in several families, ancient broches of very elegant workmanship, and richly ornamented. Some of them are inscribed with names, to which particular virtues used to be attributed; others are furnished with receptacles for relics, supposed to preserve from harm. So that these broches seem to have been wore not only for use and ornament, but as amulets. One or two of this sort are figured and described by Mr Pennant, in his *Tour in Scotl.* i. 90. iii. 14. edit. 3d.

(3.) **BROACH**, with hunters, the start of a young stag's horn.

(1.) * **To BROACH**. v. a. [from the noun.] 1. To spit; to pierce as with a spit.—

Were now the general of our gracious empire,
As in good time he may, from Ireland coming,
Bringing rebellion broached on his sword. *Shak.*
—He felled men as one would mow hay, and sometimes broached a great number of them upon his pike, as one would carry little birds spitted upon a stick. *Hakewill.* 3. To pierce a vessel in order to draw the liquor; to tap. 3. To open any store.—I will notably provide, that you shall want neither weapons, victuals, nor aid; I will open the old armouries, I will broach my store, and bring forth my stores. *Knollys.* 4. To let out any thing.—

And now the field of death, the lists,
Were enter'd by antagonists,
And blood was ready to be broach'd,
When Hudibras in haste approach'd. *Hudibras.* 5. To give out, or utter any thing.—This error, that Pison was Ganges, was first broached by Josephus. *Raleigh.*—Those who were the chief instruments of raising the noise, made use of those very opinions themselves had broached, for arguments to prove, that the change of ministers was dangerous. *Swift's Examiner.*

(2.) **To BROACH** so, in sea language, is used for inclining suddenly to windward of the ship's course, when she sails with a large wind; or for deviating from the line of her course, when she sails directly before the wind, so as to bring her side to windward, and expose her to the danger of oversetting.

* **BROACHER**. n. s. [from *broach*.] 1. A spit. The youth approach'd the fire, and, as it burn'd,
On five sharp broachers rank'd, the roast they turn'd;

These morsels stay'd their stomachs. *Dryden.* 2. An opener, or utterer of any thing; the first authour.—There is much pride and vanity in the affectation of being the first broacher of an heretical opinion. *L'Estrange.*—Numerous parties denominate themselves, not from the grand Authour

and Finisher of our faith, but from the first *broacher* of their idolized opinions. *Decay of Piety*.—This opinion is commonly, but falsely, ascribed to Aristotle, not as its first *broacher*, but as its ablest patron. *Cheyne*.

(1.) * **BROAD**. *adj.* [*brad*, Sax.] 1. Wide; extended in breadth; distinguished from length; not narrow.—

The weeds that his *broad* spreading leaves did shelter,

Are pull'd up root and all. *Shakespeare*.

—The top may be justly said to grow *broad*, as the bottom narrower. *Temple*.—

Of all your knowledge this vain fruit you have,
To walk with eyes *broad* open to your grave.

Dryden.

So lofty was the pile, a Parthian bow,
With vigour drawn, must send the shaft below,
The bottom was full twenty fathom *broad*;

Dryden.

He launch'd the fiery bolt from pole to pole,
Broad burst the lightnings, deep the thunders roll.

Pope.

2. Large.—To keep him at a distance from falsehood and cunning, which has always a *broad* mixture of falsehood; this is the fittest preparation of a child for wisdom. *Locke*. 3. Clear; open; not sheltered, not affording concealment.—

In mean time he, with cunning to conceal
All thought of this from others, himself bore
In *broad* house, with the wooers us before.

Chapman.

—It no longer seeks the shelter of night and darkness, but appears in the *broadest* light. *Decay of Piety*.—If children were left alone in the dark, they would be no more afraid than in *broad* sunshine. *Locke*. 4. Gross; coarse.—The reeve and the miller are distinguished from each other, as much as the lady prioress and the *broad* speaking gap-toothed wife of Bath. *Dryden*.—

Love made him doubt his *broad* barbarian sound;

By love, his want of words and wit he found.

Dryden.

If open vice be what you drive at,
A name so *broad* will ne'er connive at. *Dryden*.

The *broadest* mirth unfeeling folly wears,
Less pleasing far than virtue's very tears. *Pope*.

Room for my lord! three jockeys in his train;
Six huntsmen with a shout precede his chair;

He grins, and looks *broad* nonsense with a stare.

Pope.

5. Obscene; fulsome; tending to obscenity.—As chaste and modest as he is esteemed, it cannot be denied, but in some places he is *broad* and fulsome. *Dryden*.—

† We have oftener than once remarked the improper use of the hyphen, in constituting compounds, of distinct substantives and adjectives; as well as the unnecessary multiplication of compound words, in general. **BROAD** and **CLOTH** are certainly two as distinct words as any two in the English language: and the former when applied to the latter, is used in its natural and original sense, as stated above in Dr Johnson's explanation of it,—"Wide—not narrow." Broad roads, narrow paths, &c. might with equal propriety be made compounds, and joined together by hyphens. But even granting *broad cloth* to be one word and a compound, Dr Johnson is wrong in stating it as a substantive noun. In the quotation from Swift, it is plainly an adjective, agreeing with breeches; and it is in such cases only, that the two words can be properly considered as one. Dr Johnson has great merit in distinguishing between active and neuter verbs; but he seems not to have paid equal attention to the difference between simple and compound nouns;—or even, at all times, to the distinction between substantives and adjectives.

Tho' now arraign'd, he read with some delight;
Because he seems to chew the cud again,
When his *broad* comment makes the text too plain. *Dryden*.

6. Bold; not delicate; not reserved.—Who can speak *broad*er than he that has no house to put his head in? Such may rail against great buildings. *Shakespeare*.—

From *broad* words, and 'cause he fail'd
His presence at the tyrant's feast, I hear,
Macduff lives in disgrace. *Shakespeare*.

(2.) **BROAD**, in geography, a river of the United States, which rises in the White Oak mountains, in N. Carolina; thence pursuing a S. by E. course, passes into S. Carolina, and uniting with Saluda river, forms the Congaree. This river may be rendered navigable about 30 miles within the state of N. Carolina.

(3.) * **BROAD AS LONG**. Equal upon the whole.—The mobile are still for levelling; that is to say, for advancing themselves; for it is as *broad as long*, whether they rise to others, or bring others down to them. *L'Esrange*.

BROAD-ALBIN. See **BRIDALBIN**.

BROADBULL, a village in Kent, between Hythe and Romney.

BROAD-CAMPDEN, in Gloucestershire.

BROAD-CAST, as opposed to the drill husbandry, denotes the method of cultivating corn, turnips, pulse, clover, the foreign grasses, and most other field plants, that are not transplanted by sowing them with the hand; in which method they are scattered over the ground at large, and thence said to be sown in *broad-cast*. This is called the *old husbandry*, to distinguish it from the drill, horse-hoeing, or new husbandry. See **HUSBANDRY**.

BROAD-CHALK, a village in Wiltshire, near Salisbury.

* **BROAD-CLOTH**. † *n. s.* [from *broad* and *cloth*.] A fine kind of cloth.—

Thus, a wise taylor is not pinching;
But turns at ev'ry seam an inch in;
Or else, be sure, your *broad-cloth* breeches
Will ne'er be smooth, nor hold their stitches.

Swift.

* **To BROADEN**. *v. n.* [from *broad*.] To grow broad. I know not whether this word occurs, but in the following passage.—

Low walks the sun, and *broadens* by degrees,
Just o'er the verge of day. *Thomson*.

* **BROAD-EYED**. *adj.* [from *broad* and *eye*.] Having a wide survey.—

In despite of *broad-eyed* watchful day,
I would into thy bosom pour my thoughts:
But, ah! I will not. *Shakespeare*.

BROAD-

BROADFIELD, a village in Hertfordshire.

BROADFORD, a town of Ireland, in Clare.

BROADHEMBURY, a village in Devonshire, S. E. of Ashburton. It has a fair November 30.

BROADHILL, in Sussex, near Cuckfield.

BROAD-HOLME, in Yorksh. N. of Hatfield.

BROADHURST, in Sussex, N. W. of Ashdown.

BROAD-JENESSE, a large and broad river of the United States, which rises in N. Carolina, and running into Georgia is so compressed in its passage through the Cumberland Mountains, as to produce a most rapid whirl. Below this it spreads to its former breadth, and, except a small interruption from some muske shoals, flows in a beautiful and placid stream, under the name of the **CHEROKEE**, till it mingles with the Ohio.

BROAD-LANDS, near Rumley, in Hampshire.

BROADLAW, a mountain of Scotland, in Tweed-dale, about 2800 feet above the level of the sea.

* **BROAD-LEAVED**. *adj.* [from *broad* and *leaf*.] Having broad leaves.—Narrow and *broad-leaved* cyprus grass. *Woodward on Fossils*.

* **BROADLY**. *adv.* [from *broad*.] In a broad manner.

BROAD MAIN, a village in Dorsetshire, 3 m. N. of Owen-Main.

BROAD-MEADOW, in Staffordshire, between Longnor and Hartington.

* **BROADNESS**. *n. f.* [from *broad*.] 1. Breadth; extent from side to side. 2. Coarseness; fulsome-ness.—I have used the cleanest metaphor I could find, to palliate the *broadness* of the meaning. *Dryd.*

BROAD PIECE, a denomination given to certain gold pieces broader than a guinea; particularly Caroluses and Jacobuses.

BROAD RIVER, more properly an arm of the sea, which, together with Whale-branch, and Cuslaw river, embraces the N. and N. W. sides of Beaufort island. This river communicates with the ocean between Hilton-head, and St Philip's point; and forms one of the best harbours in the state of S. Carolina.

BROADSEA, a fishing village on the coast of Aberdeenshire, containing about 200 inhabitants.

* **BROADSHOULDERED**. *adj.* [from *broad* and *shoulder*.] Having a large space between the shoulders.—

Big-bon'd, and large of limbs, with sinews strong,

Broad/boulder'd, and his arms were round and long. *Dryden.*

I am a tall, *broad/boulder'd*, impudent, black fellow; and, as I thought, every way qualified for rich widow, *Spectator*.

(1.) * **BROADSIDE**. † *n. f.* [from *broad* and *side*.] 1. The side of a ship, distinct from the head stern.—

From vaster hopes than this he seem'd to fall,
That durst attempt the British admiral:
From her *broadside* a ruder flame is thrown,
Than from the fiery chariot of the sun. *Waller.*

† This word in the 2d sense above stated, ("a volley of shot,") is a very proper compound, as the prefix *broad* in a considerable degree loses its original meaning, while it saves circumlocution; but in the 1st sense, ("the side of a ship,") as well as in the illustration from *Waller*, *broad* and *sides* are no distinct words, and ought to be joined together.

‡ **BROADSWORD** is another erroneous compound, similar to **BROAD-CLOTH**. See the Note on that article.

2. The volley of shot fired at once from the side of a ship. 3. [In printing.] A sheet of paper containing one large page.

(2.) * **BROADSIDE**, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) ought never to be given at a distance from the enemy above musket-shot, at point blank.

BROADSTAIRS, a village in Kent, between N. Foreland and Ramsgate.

BROAD STONE, in building, a species of free-stone, thus denominated because it is raised broad and thin out of the quarries; or not exceeding 2 or 3 inches in thickness; chiefly used for paving.

* **BROADSWORD**. † *n. f.* [from *broad* and *sword*.] A cutting sword, with a broad blade.—He, in fighting a duel, was run through the thigh with a *broadsword*. *Wifeman*.

BROADSWORTH, a village in Yorkshire, N. W. of Doncaster.

BROADWAS, on the N. bank of the Tame, W. of Worcester.

BROADWATER; 1. in Hertfordsh. between Welwyn and Stevonage: 2. in Sussex, W. of New Shoreham.

(1.) **BROADWAY**, in Wexford, Ireland.

(2—7.) **BROADWAY**, the name of 6 English villages; viz. 1. in Dorsetshire, near Weymouth: 2. in Gloucestersh. between Moreton and Eveham: 3. in Kent, N. of Hythe: 4. in Shropshire, between Church-stock and Baybury: 5. in Somersetsh. in the parish of Buckland Mary; and 6. in Worcestersh. W. of Campden.

BROADWELDON, in Somersetshire.

BROADWELL, 3 villages; viz. 1. and 2. in Gloucestersh. about 2 m. from Stow; and 3. in Oxfordsh. 4 m. W. of Hampton.

BROAD-WINDSOR, in Dorsetsh. W. of Beaminster.

* **BROADWISE**. *adv.* [from *broad* and *wise*.] According to the direction of the breadth.—If one should, with his hand, thrust a piece of iron *broadwise* against the flat ceiling of his chamber, the iron would not fall as long as the force of the hand preserves to press against it. *Boyle*.

BROADWOOD-KELLY, a village in Devonshire, N. E. of Hatherly.

BROADWOOD-WIGIER, W. of Lynton, Devonsh.

BROAD-WORM, *lumbricus latus*, a name given to the **TÆNIA**, or tape worm.

BROBERRY, a village in Staffordshire, S. W. of Stanton.

(1.) * **BROCADE**. *n. f.* [*brocado*, Span.] A filken stuff, variegated with colours of gold or silver.—I have the conveniency of buying and importing rich *brocades*. *Spectator*.—

Or stain her honour, or her new *brocade*,

Forget her pray'rs, or miss a masquerade. *Pope*.

(2.) **BROCADE**, or **BROCADO**, a stuff of gold, silver, or silk, raised and enriched with the flowers, foliages, and other ornaments, according to the fancy of the merchants or manufacturers. Formerly the word signified only a stuff, wove all of gold, both in the warp and in the woof, or all of

BROCKLEY, two villages; 1. in Somersetsh. N. of Winton: and 2. in Suffolk, near Debden.

BROCKLEY-HILL, two villages; 1. in Dorsetshire, near Abbotsbury: 2. in Hertfordshire.

BROCKMONTON, in Hertfordshire, E. of Leominster.

BROCKMORE HEATH, in Staffordshire.

BROCKRUP, or **BROCKTHORP**, in Gloucestersh. 3 m. from Painswick, and 4 from Gloucester:

BROCKSBURN, or **SPORT**, a rivulet of Scotland, in E. Lothian, which falls into the German Ocean at Broxmouth, near Dunbar.

BROCKTON, the name of 5 English villages; viz. 1. near Clune Forest; 2. near Easthop; 3. near Lower-Down; and 4. between Walton and Lee; all in Shropshire: and, 5. in Staffordshire.

BROCKWORTH, in Gloucestershire, 4 m. from Gloucester, and 5 from Painswick.

BROD, or **BRODT**, a town of Hungary, in the county of Posiega in Slavonia, seated on the Save; formerly more considerable than at present. It is memorable for a victory obtained over the Turks in 1668. Lon. 18. 36. E. Lat. 45. 20. N.

BRODÆUS, or **BRODEAU**, John, a great critic, on whom Lipsius, Scaliger, Grotius, and all the learned, have bestowed great encomiums, was descended from a noble family in France, and born at Tours in 1500. He was liberally educated, and placed under Alciat to study the civil law; but he gave himself up wholly to languages and the belles lettres. He travelled into Italy, where he became acquainted with Sadolet, Bembus, &c. and applied himself to the study of mathematics, philosophy, and the sacred languages, in which he made no small proficiency. Then, returning to his own country, he led a retired, but not an idle, life, as his many learned lucubrations abundantly testify. He was a man free from all ambition and ostentation, and suffered his works to be published rather under the authority of others than under his own. His chief works are, 1. A commentary on the *Anthologia*. 2. Ten books of miscellanies. 3. Notes on Oppian, Euripides, &c. He died in 1563, aged 63.

BRODAGH, a town of Ireland, in Clare.

BRODERA, or **BRODRA**, a town of Asia, in the province of Guzurat, on the great road between Surat and Ougenin; belonging to the Great Mogul. It stands in a large sandy plain, on the river Wasset; and is fortified, with pretty good walls and towers. It is inhabited by Banians and callico-weavers. The country produces cotton, wheat, rice, gum-lac and indigo. Lon. 73. 11. E. Lat. 22. 16. N.

BRODIATORES, in the middle age, a kind of *librarii*, or copyists, who did not write the words and letters plain, but variously flourished and decorated, after the manner of embroidery. *Du-Cange Gloss. Lat. tom. i.*

BRODIUM, a term used by some writers in pharmacy, for a liquor in which any solid substance has been boiled, is to be preserved, or with which a medicine too strong for use alone is to be diluted.

BRODNAM, a village in Dorsetshire.

BROD-NEMEKI, or **TEUTSCH-BROD**, a town of Bohemia on the river Sazawa, in the circle of

BRODOCK, a village in the county of Cornwall, near Boconnoc.

BRODRA. See **BRODERA**.

BRODSTEER, a good harbour of Kent, in the isle of Thanet.

BRODSWORTH, a village in Yorkshire, 3 m. from Doncaster.

BRODZIEC, a town of Poland, in Lithuania.

(1.) **BROEK**, a town of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia and duchy of Berg.

(2.) **BROEK**, a very neat and beautiful village of Holland, 6 m. from Amsterdam. The manners of its inhabitants are singular. They marry invariably among themselves. In every house they have one door appropriated to marriage and death. The new married couples enter in at it, and never pass through it again but to their graves. In the interval it is kept constantly shut. The women scarcely ever stir from Broek, and "Amsterdam, (says Mr Walker,) is as little known to them as London or Constantinople." Their gardens are adorned with China vases, grottoes of shell work, &c. and their streets are paved in Mosaic work, with variegated bricks. Behind their houses and gardens are extensive meadows, with vast herds of cattle. Their out-houses are also behind, so that carts, waggons and cattle do not enter their neat streets.

BROEKHUIZEN. See **BROUKHUIS**.

BROGLING for eels; the same with **SNICGLING**.

(1.) **BROGLIO**, a county of Italy in Piedmont situated near the frontiers of France.

(2.) **BROGLIO**, the capital of the county, (N. 1.) situated near the department of Lower Alps. Lon. 7. 42. E. Lat. 44. 12. N.

* **BROGUE**. *n. s.* [*brog*, Irish.] 1. A kind of a shoe.—

I thought he slept; and put
My clouted *brogues* from off my feet, whole
rudeness

Answer'd my steps too loud. *Shakespeare.*
—Sometimes it is given out, that we must either
take these halfpence, or eat our *brogues*. *Swift.* 2.
A cant word for a corrupt dialect, or manner of
pronunciation.—

His *brogue* will detect mine. *Farquhar.*

BROICHIN, CASTLE, an ancient fort of Inverness-shire, situated near the N. end of the isle of Raasay, on the E. coast, and well known as a land mark by mariners. "The rock on which it stands, nearly round and covering an area of 25 feet square, is about 40 feet high; and is itself, castle-like, placed on another rock, 60 feet at least above the level of the sea. It is composed of different kinds of burnt stone, lime and shells, that have all the appearance of having been jumbled together, some time or other, by a volcanic eruption; and is of such firm and solid consistence, that the largest hammer, wielded by the strongest arm, could scarcely make any impression upon it." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. Vol. XVI. p. 143.*

* To **BROIDER**. *v. a.* [*braidir*, Fr.] To adorn with figures of needle-work.—A robe, and a *broider'd* coat, and a girdle. *Exodus.*—

Infant Albion lay
In mantles *broider'd* o'er with gorgeous pride.

Tr. Bell.
• **BROIDERY**.

* **BROIDERY**. *n. f.* [from *broider*.] Embroidery; flower-work; additional ornaments wrought upon cloth.—

The golden *broidery* tender Milkah wove,
The breast to Kenia sacred, and to love,
Lie rent and mangled. *Tickell.*

* **BROIL**. *n. f.* [*brouiller*, Fr.] A tumult; a quarrel.—

Say to the king thy knowledge of the *broil*,
As thou didst leave it. *Shakespeare.*
—He has sent the sword both of civil *broils*, and
publick war, amongst us. *Wake.*—

Rude were their revels, and obscene their joys,
The *broils* of drunkards, and the lust of boys.
Granville.

(1.) * **To BROIL**. *v. a.* [*bruler*, Fr.] To dress or cook by laying on the coals, or before the fire.—
Some strip the skin, some portion out the
spoil,

Some on the fire the recking entrails *broil*. *Dryd.*

(2.) * **To BROIL**. *v. n.* To be in the heat.—

Where have you been *broiling*?

—Among the croud i' th' abbey, where a
finger

Could not be wedg'd in more. *Shakespeare.*

—Long ere now all the planets and comets had
been *broiling* in the sun, had the world lasted from
all eternity. *Gibson.*

BROK, *n. f. obs.* an old sword.

BROKAGE. See **BRACAGE**.

(1.) **BROKE**, a river in Lancashire.

(2.) **BROKE**, a village in Norfolkshire, 5 m.
from Norwich.

(3.) **BROKE**, Sir Robert, lord chief justice of
the common pleas, was the son of Thomas Broke,
Esq; of Claverly in Shropshire, and educated at
Oxford; whence he removed to the middle temple,
and soon became a very eminent lawyer. In 1552,
he was made serjeant at law; and in 1553, the 1st
of queen Mary, lord chief justice of the common
pleas; about which time he was knighted. He
was also appointed recorder of London and speaker
of the house of commons. He died at Claverly
in 1558, with the character of an upright judge.
His works are, 1. An abridgment containing an
abstract of the year-books till the time of queen
Mary. 2. Certain cases adjudged in the reign of
Henry VIII. Edward VI. and Q. Mary. 3. Reading
on the statute of limitations, 32 Henry VIII.

(4.) **BROKE**. *v. pret.* of **To BREAK**.

* **To BROKE**. *v. n.* [of uncertain etymology.
Skinner seems inclined to derive it from *To break*,
because *broken* men turn factors or *brokers*. *Ca-*
mbon, from *procurator*. *Skinner* thinks, again, that
it may be contracted from *procurer*. Mr *Lye*
more probably deduces it from *bruccan*, Sax. to
be busy.] To transact business for others, or by
others. It is used generally in reproach.—

He does, indeed,

And *brokes* with all that can, in such a suit,
Corrupt the tender honour of a maid. *Shakesf.*
—The gains of bargains are of a more doubtful
nature, when men should wait upon others neces-
sity; *break* by servants and instruments to draw
them on. *Bacon.*

BROKE-HAMPTON, a town in Warwick-
shire, near Kyneton.

VOL. IV. PART II.

* **BROKEN**. [*particip. pass.* of *break*.] Preserve
men's wits from being *broken* with the very bent
of so long attention. *Hooker.*

BROKEN-BACKED, in sea language, denotes
the state of a ship which is so impaired, and loosened
in her frame, as to droop at each end; a dis-
order to which the French ships, are most expo-
sed, on account of their length, &c.

BROKEN BAY, a bay of New S. Wales, on
the E. coast of New Holland.

BROKENBOROUGH, or } a town in Wilt-
BROKEN-BRIDGE, } shire, a mile from
Malmesbury, formerly called Caerberburg. It was
a court of some of the Saxon kings under the
Heptarchy.

* **BROKENHEARTED**. *adj.* [from *broken* and
heart.] Having the spirits crushed by grief or
fear.—He hath sent me to bind up the *brokenheart-*
ed. *Isaiab.*

BROKENHURST, a village in Hampshire.

* **BROKENLY**. *adv.* [from *broken*.] Without
any regular series.—Sir Richard Hopkins hath
done somewhat of this kind, but *brokenly* and
glancingly; intending chiefly a discourse of his
own voyage. *Hakewill.*

* **BROKEN MEAT**. Fragments; meat that has
been cut.—Get three or four chairwomen to at-
tend you constantly in the kitchen, whom you
pay at small charges; only with the *broken meat*,
a few coals, and all the cinders. *Swift.*

BROKEN WIND, among farriers. See **FARRIERY**.

BROKEN-WINDED, *adj.* having the wind
broken.

(1.) * **BROKER** *n. f.* [from *To broke*.] 1. A
factor; one that does business for another; one
that makes bargains for another.—*Brokers*, who,
having no stock of their own, set up and trade
with that of other men; buying here, and selling
there, and commonly abusing both sides, to make
out a little paultry gain. *Temple.*—

Some South-sea *broker*, from the city,

Will purchase me, the more's the pity;

Lay all my fine plantations waste,

To fit them to his vulgar taste. *Swift.*

2. One who deals in old household goods. 3. A
pimp; a match-maker.—

A goodly *broker*!

Dare you presume to harbour wanton lines;

To whisper and conspire against my youth?

Shakespeare.

In chusing for yourself, you shew'd your
judgment;

Which being shallow, you shall give me leave

To play the *broker* in mine own behalf. *Shakesf.*

(II.) **BROKER**. The origin of this word is con-
tested; some derive it from the French *broier*, to
grind; others from *brocarder*, to cavil; others
from a trader broken, and that from the Saxon
broc, misfortune, which is often the true reason
of a man's breaking. In this view, a broker is a
broken trader by misfortune; and it is said none
but such were formerly admitted to that employ-
ment. *Brokers* are of 3 kinds; exchange brokers,
stock brokers, and pawn brokers.

1. **BROKERS, EXCHANGE**, are a sort of nego-
ciators, who contrive, make, and conclude bar-
gains between merchants and tradesmen, in mat-
ters of money or merchandise, for which they have

after a premium. These, in old English law-books, are called *broggers*, and in Scotland, *broccarii*, i. e. according to Skene, mediators or intercessors in any contract, &c. They make it their business to know the alteration of the course of exchange, to inform merchants how it goes, and to notify to those who have money to receive or pay beyond sea, who are proper persons for negotiating the exchange with; and when the matter is accomplished, that is, when the money is paid, they have for brokerage 2s. per 100l. sterling. These, by stat. of 8. and 9. Will. III. are to be licensed in London by the lord mayor, who gives them an oath, and takes bond for the faithful execution of their offices. If any person shall act as broker without being thus licensed and admitted, he shall forfeit the sum of 500 l.; and persons employing him, 5 l.; and brokers are to register contracts, &c. under the like penalty: also brokers shall not deal for themselves, on pain of forfeiting 200 l.—They are to carry about with them a silver medal, having the king's arms and the arms of the city, and pay 40s. a-year to the chamber of the city. In France, till the middle of the 17th century, their exchange brokers were called *courtiers de change*; but by an arret of council in 1639, the name was changed for that more creditable one of *agent de change, banque, et finance*; and in the beginning of the 18th century, to render the office still more honourable, the title of *king's counsellors* was added. At Grand Cairo, and several places of the Levant, the Arabs, who do the office of exchange brokers, are called *consuls*; the manner of whose negotiating with the European merchants has something in it so very particular, that we refer it to a distinct article. See CONSUL. The exchange brokers at Amsterdam, called *MAKELERS*, are of two kinds; the one, like the English, called, *sworn brokers*, because of the oath they take before the burgo-masters; but the others negotiate without any commission, and are called *walking brokers*. The first are in number 395; whereof 375 are Christians, and 20 Jews: the others are near double that number; so that in Amsterdam there are near 1000 exchange brokers.—The difference between the two consists in this: The books and persons of the former are allowed as evidence in the courts of justice; whereas, in case of dispute, the latter are disowned, and their bargains disannulled. The fee of the sworn exchange brokers of Amsterdam is fixed by two regulations, of 1613 and 1623, with regard to matters of exchange, to 28 sols for 100 livres de gros, or 600 florins; i. e. 3 sols for 100 florins; payable, half by the drawer and half by the person who pays the money. But custom has made considerable alterations herein. The Jews, Armenians, and Banians, are the chief brokers throughout most parts of the Levant and the Indies. In Persia, all affairs are transacted by a sort of brokers whom they call *delal*, i. e. great talkers.—The manner of making their markets is very singular: after the brokers have launched out into long, and usually impertinent discourses, coming towards a conclusion, they only converse with their *angers*. The buyer and seller's broker each take by the right hand, which they cover in coat or handkerchief: the finger

stretched out stands for six; bent for five; the tip of the finger for one; the whole hand for 100; and the hand clinched, for 1000. They will express even pounds, shillings, and pence, by their hands. During all this mystic commerce, the two brokers appear as cold and composed as if there were nothing passing between them. The French distinguish two kinds of brokers; one for the service of merchants, the other of manufacturers, artificers, and workmen. The business of the former is to facilitate the sale of goods in the wholesale and mercantile way; that of the other, to procure the goods wanted for manufacturers, artificers, &c. or to sell their goods when made. At Paris there is scarce a company of tradesmen, or even mechanics, but have their brokers, who are usually taken out of their body, and make it their sole business to negotiate in the particular kinds of goods to which such company is by statutes restrained. There are brokers for drapery, brokers for grocery, brokers for mercury, &c. There are even brokers for tanners, curriers, cutlers, and the like. Such, at least, was their method of conducting business before the revolution.

2. **BROKERS, PAWN**, persons who keep shops, and lend money upon pledges to necessitous persons, and most commonly at an exorbitant interest. They are more properly styled *pawn takers*, or *tally-me*; sometimes *fripers*, or *friperers*. They are meant in 1 Jac. I. cap. xxi. sect. 5. where it is declared, that the sale of goods wrongfully taken to any broker, or pawn broker, in London, Westminster, Southwark, or within two miles of London, does not alter the property. And (sect. 7.) if a broker, having received such goods, shall not, upon request of the owner, discover them, how and when he came by them, and to whom they are conveyed, he shall forfeit the double value thereof, to be recovered by action of debt, &c. In the cities of Italy, there are companies established by authority for the letting out money on pawns, called *mounts of piety*; a title little becoming such institutions. In some parts of Italy, they have also mounts of piety of another kind, wherein they only receive ready money, and return it again with interest, at a certain sum *per annum*. At Bologna, they have several such mounts, which are distinguished into *frank* and *perpetual*: the interest of the former is only four *per cent.*; that of the latter, seven.

3. **BROKERS, STOCK**, are those who are employed to buy and sell shares in the joint stock of a company or corporation, and in the public funds. As the practice of stock-jobbing has been carried to such an excess as became not only ruinous to a great number of private families, but even affected, or at least might soon affect, the public credit of the nation, the legislature thought fit to put a stop to it, or at least to bring it within certain bounds, and under some regulation. The negotiations, &c. of these brokers are regulated by stat. 6 Geo. I. cap. 18. and 7 and 10 Geo. II. cap. 8. which among other things, enacted, that contracts in the nature of wagers, &c. incur a penalty of L. 500, and by the sale of stock, of which the seller is not possessed, a forfeit of L. 100, and that brokers keep a book, in which all contracts, with their

their dates, and the names of the parties concerned, shall be entered, on pain of L. 50.

(III.) **BROKERS OF FURNITURE, &c.** See **APPRAISERS**, § 2.

* **BROKERAGE**. *n. f.* [from *broker*.] The pay or reward of a broker. See **BROCCAGE**.

BROKESBY, a village in Leicestershire, 4 m. W. of Mowbray.

BROKEWER, a town in Gloucestershire.

To **BROKIN**. *v. n. obs.* To brook. *Chauc.*

* **BROKING**. *particip. adj.* Practised by brokers.—

Redeem from *broking* pawn the 'blemish'd crown,

Wipe off the dust that hides our sceptre's guilt.
Shakespeare.

BROLASS, a district in Argyllshire, about 22 m. long, and from 3 to 6 broad. There are basaltic pillars in it.

BROLL. *n. f. obs.* a part; a piece. *Ash.*

BROMAS, a name used by some botanists for the wild oats.

BROMBOROUGH, a town in Cheshire.

(1.) **BROME**, Alexander, a poet and attorney in the reign of Charles II. was the author of the greatest part of those songs and epigrams which were published in favour of the royalists, and against the *rump*, both in Oliver Cromwell's time and during the rebellion. These, together with his Epistles and Epigrams translated from different authors, were all printed in one volume 8vo, after the Restoration. He also published a pretty good version of Horace, by himself and others. He left behind him a comedy intitled *The Cunning Lovers*: and the world is indebted to him for two volumes of Richard Brome's plays in 8vo. many of which, but for his care in preserving and publishing them, would in all probability have been entirely lost. He died in 1666.

(2.) **BROME**, Richard, a dramatic writer who lived in the reign of Charles I. and was contemporary with Decker, Ford, Shirley, &c. He was originally a servant to the celebrated Ben Jonson. He wrote himself, however, into high reputation, as is testified not only by various commendatory verses written by his contemporaries and prefixed to many of his plays, but also by some lines which his quondam master addressed to him, on account of his comedy called *The Northern Lass*. Brome in imitation of his master, applied closely to the study of men and manners. His genius was entirely turned to comedy; and therefore his proper province was observation more than reading. His plots are all his own, and are far from being ill conducted; and his characters, which for the most part are strongly marked, were the offspring of his own judgment and experience, and his close attention to the foibles of the human heart. In a word, his plays in general are good; met with great applause when first acted; and were thought by the players worthy to be revived, to their own profit and the author's honour, in that critical age in which he himself lived. Nay, we have had a proof, even in our own time, of the merit of one of his comedies, which with a very little alteration has lately been revived with great success, viz. *The Jovial Crew*, which for no less than 3 seasons running, brought crowded audiences to

the theatre-royal in Covent Garden, at all the frequent repetitions of its performance. He left 15 comedies behind him, ten of which were collected together, by his namesake, (N. 1.) He also joined with Thomas Heywood in a play called *The Lancashire Witches*.

(3—9.) **BROME**, the name of 7 English villages, viz. 1. in Bedfordsh. near Biggleswade: 2. in Durham, W. of the city: 3. in Norfolk, near Bungay: 4. in Shropshire, near Clunbury: 5. in ditto, 3 m. W. of Wenlock: 6. in Staffordshire, near Clent; and 7. in Suffolk, 2 m. from Dis.

BROME-BURNELL'S in Warwickshire, between Bitford and Saltford.

BROME-GRASS, or **BROOM-GRASS**. See **BROMUS**.

BROME-HALL, 3 villages, viz. 1. in Norfolk, between Loddon and Bungay: 2. in Shropshire, near Oswestry: and, 3. in Yorkshire, near Sheffield.

BROMEHAM, in Suffex, near Battle-Abbey.

BROMEHILL, 3 villages; viz. 1. in Dorsetsh. near Morton: 2. in Norfolk, N. of Walsingham: and, 3. in Kent, 3 m. S. W. of Lydde.

BROME-HOUSE, near Fulham, Middlesex.

(1.) **BROMELIA**, the **PINE-APPLE**: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the hexandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 10th order, Coronarie. Linnaeus enumerates 7 species of which the following are the most remarkable:

i. **BROMELIA ANANAS** with leaves very like some sorts of aloe, but not so thick and succulent, which are strongly armed with black spines. From the centre of the plant arises the flower stalk, which is near 3 feet high; the lower part is garnished with entire leaves placed alternately at every joint. The upper part is garnished with flowers set in a loose spike or thyrse quite round: these are succeeded by oval seed-vessels, having a longitudinal partition, in the centre of which are fastened smooth cylindrical seeds. There are six varieties, viz.

1. **BROMELIA ANANAS GLABER**, with small leaves:

2. **BROMELIA ANANAS LUCIDUS**, with very smooth, shining grass-green leaves:

3. **BROMELIA ANANAS QVATUS**, the oval shaped pine-apple:

4. **BROMELIA ANANAS PYRAMIDALIS**, the pyramidal, or sugar-loaf pine:

5. **BROMELIA ANANAS SERRATUS**, with a yellowish coloured flesh: and

6. **BROMELIA ANANAS VIRIDIS**, the green pine-apple.

ii. **BROMELIA LINGULATA**, with obtuse, sawed, and prickly leaves.

iii. **BROMELIA NUBICAVULIS**, with the lower leaves indented and prickly. The leaves of this species are shorter than those of the **ANANAS** (N. 1.) They are sharply sawed on their edges, and of a deep green colour. The flower stem arises from the centre of the plant, which divides upward into several branches: the upper part of these are garnished with spikes of flowers, which come out alternately from the sides of the branches, each having a narrow entire leaf just below it, which are longer than the spike. The flowers are

placed very close on the spikes: and when they decay, the empalement turns to an oval-pointed seed-vessel, inclosing seeds of the same shape with the other.

(II.) **BROMELIÆ, CULTURE OF THE.** The **BROMELIA ANANAS OVATUS** (N. 3.) is the most common in Europe; but the **ANANAS PYRAMIDALIS** (N. 4.) is much preferable, the fruit being larger and much better flavoured. the juice of this sort is not so astringent as that of the first; so that this fruit may be eaten in greater quantity with less danger. This sort frequently produces suckers immediately under the fruit, whereby it may be increased much faster than the common sort; so that in a few years it may be the best common sort in Britain.—The **ANANAS GLABER** (N. 1.) is preserved by some curious persons for the sake of variety; but the fruit is not worth any thing. The **ANANAS LUCIDUS** (N. 2.) was raised from the seeds taken out of a rotten fruit which came from the West Indies to the late Henry Heathcote, Esq; from whom Mr Miller received one plant, which produced large fruit: this is what the people of America call the *king pine*.—The plants are propagated by planting the crowns which grow on the fruit, or the suckers which are produced either from the sides of the plants or under the fruit: both which are found to be equally good; although by some persons the crown is thought preferable to the suckers, as supposing it will produce fruit sooner than the suckers, which is certainly a mistake. The suckers and crowns must be laid to dry in a warm place for 4 or 5 days, or more (according to the moisture of the part which adhered to the old plant or fruit); for if they are immediately planted, they will rot. The certain rule of judging when they are fit to plant, is by observing if the bottom is healed over and become hard; for if the suckers are drawn off carefully from the old plants, they will have a hard skin over the lower part, and so need not lie so long as the crowns of those whose bottoms are moist. But whenever a crown is taken from the fruit, or the suckers from old plants, they should be immediately divested of their bottom leaves, so high as to allow depth for their planting; so that they may be thoroughly dry and healed in every part; lest when they receive heat and moisture they should perish, which often happens when this method is not observed. If these suckers or crowns are taken off late in autumn, or during winter, or early in spring, they should be laid in a dry place in the stove for a fortnight or 3 weeks before they are planted; but in summer they will be fit for planting in a week at farthest. These should be planted in a rich good kitchen garden mould, not too heavy so as to detain the moisture too long, nor over light and sandy; but where this is wanting, some fresh earth should be procured from good pasture, which should be mixed with about a third part of rotten neats dung; or the dung of an old melon or cucumber bed which is well consumed. These should be mixed 6 or 8 months before they are used, but if it be a year it will be better; and should be often turned, that their parts may be the better united, and the clods well broken. This earth should be screened very fine; for if it is only cleared of the great stones,

it will be the better for the plants than when it is made too fine. Always avoid mixing any sand with the earth, unless it be extremely stiff, and then it will be necessary to have it mixed at least six months or a year before it is used; it must be frequently turned, that the sand may be incorporated in the earth so as to divide its parts: but do not put more than a 6th of sand; for too much sand is very injurious to the plants. In summer they must be frequently watered; but not with large quantities at a time; and the moisture should not be detained in the pots by the holes being stopped, for that will soon destroy the plants. If the season is warm, they should be watered twice a-week; but in a cool season, once a-week will be sufficient; and in summer they should once a-week be watered gently all over the leaves; which will greatly promote their growth. Some frequently shift these plants, but unless the pots be filled with the roots, by the time the plants begin to show their fruit, they commonly produce small fruit, which have generally large crowns; therefore the plants should not be new potted oftener than twice in a season. The first time should be about the end of April, when the suckers and crowns of the former year's fruit, (which remained all the winter in these pots in which they were first planted) should be shifted into larger pots, *i. e.* those which were in halfpenny or three farthing pots, should be put into penny or at most three-half-penny pots, according to the size of the plants; for we must not over-pot them, nothing being more prejudicial. The 2d time for shifting, is in the beginning of August; when those which are of a proper size for fruiting the following spring should be put into two-penny pots, which are full large enough for any of these plants. At each time of shifting, the bark bed should be stirred up, and some new bark added, to raise the bed up to the height it was at first made; and when the pots are plunged again into the bark-bed, the plants should be watered gently all over the leaves, to wash off the filth, and to settle the earth to the roots of the plants. If the bark-bed be well stirred, and a quantity of good fresh bark added to the bed, at this latter shifting, it will be of great service to the plants; for they may remain in the same tan until the beginning of November, or sometimes later, according to the mildness of the season, and will require but little fire before that time. During the winter, they will not require to be watered oftener than once a week, according as the earth in the pots seems to dry. Plants beginning to show their fruit should never be shifted; for if they are removed after the fruit appears, it stops the growth, and thereby causes the fruit to be smaller, and retards its ripening; so that it will be October or November before the fruit is ripe; therefore the plants should be kept in a vigorous growing state from the first appearance of the fruit, as upon this depends the goodness and the size of it; for if they receive a check after this, the fruit is generally small and ill tasted. After cutting off the fruit from the plant intended to be propagated, the leaves should be trimmed, and the pots plunged again into a moderate hot-bed, observing to refresh them frequently with water, which will make them put out suckers

suckers in plenty ; so that one may be soon supplied with plants enough of any of the kinds, who will but observe to keep the plants in health. The most dangerous thing that can happen to these plants is their being attacked by small white insects, which appear at first like a white mildew, but soon after have the appearance of lice : these attack both root and leaves at the same time ; and if they are not soon destroyed, will spread over a whole stove in a short time, and in a few weeks entirely stop the growth of the plants by sucking out the nutritious juice, so that the leaves will appear yellow and sickly, and have a number of transparent spots all over them. These insects after they are fully grown, appear like bugs, and so closely to the leaves as not to be easily washed off, and seem to have no local motion. They were originally brought from America upon plants imported from thence ; and are the same insects which have destroyed the plants of late in some of the Leeward Islands ; and some sugar-canes which were sent Mr. Williams from Barbadoes, he observed great numbers of these insects. Since they have been in Europe, they have spread greatly in stoves where there has not been more than ordinary care taken to destroy them. They have also attacked the orange-trees in many gardens near London, and have done them incredible damage ; but as they do not endure the cold of our climate in winter, they are never found on such plants as live in the open air. The only method yet discovered of destroying them, is by frequently washing the leaves, branches, and stems, of such plants as they attack, with water in which there has been a strong infusion of tobacco stalks. But this method cannot be practised on the ananas plants, because the insects often themselves so low between the leaves, that it is impossible to come at them with a sponge to wash them off ; so that although they seem to be all cleared off, they are soon succeeded by a fresh supply from below, and the roots are also equally infested at the same time. Therefore, whenever they appear on the plants, the safest method is to take the plants out of the pots, and clear the earth from the roots ; then put them in a tub, filled with water in which there has been a strong infusion of tobacco stalks ; and lay some boards across to keep them immersed in the water ; wherein they should remain 24 hours ; then take them out, and with a sponge wash off all the insects from the leaves and roots, and wash the plants in a tub of fresh water. This is the most effectual way to clear them from the insects. After this, you should put them in fresh earth ; and, having stirred up the bark-bed, and added some new tan to give a fresh heat to the bed, the pots should be plunged again, observing to water them all over the leaves, and this should be repeated once a-week during summer ; for these insects always multiply much faster where the plants are kept dry, than when they are sometimes sprinkled over with water, and kept in a growing state. As these insects are frequently brought over from America on the ananas plants, those who procure their plants from thence, should look carefully over them when they receive them, to see they have none of these insects on them ; for if they have,

they will soon be propagated over all the plants in the stove where they are placed ; therefore, whenever they are observed, the plants should be soaked before they are planted into pots.

(III.) BROMELIÆ, IMPROVEMENTS IN THE CULTURE OF THE. Of late, some very considerable improvements have been made in this article. The leaves of the oak have been substituted for the more expensive bark ; and the pines treated with them are found to thrive as well, and to produce as good fruit as the others. The proper way of managing these leaves, for rearing exotic plants, will be found under the article OAK LEAVES. But the most considerable improvement is that mentioned in the 67th volume of the Philosophical Transactions, where the following method is shown by William Bastard, Esq; of Devonshire, of raising these fruits in water. " Before I enter into the particulars of raising pine-apples in water, it will be necessary to tell you that my hot-house is covered with the best crown glass, which I apprehend gives more heat than the common sort of green glass generally used for hot-houses. In the front part of the house, and indeed any where in the lowest parts of it, the pine-apple will not thrive well in water. The way in which I treat them is as follows : I place a shelf near the highest part of the back wall, that the pine plants may stand without absolutely touching the glass, but as near it as can be : on this shelf I place pans full of water, about 7 or 8 inches deep ; and in these pans I put the pine-apple plants, growing in the same pots of earth as they are generally planted in, to be plunged into the bark bed in the common way, that is, I put the pot of earth, with the pine plant in it, in the pan-full of water, and as the water decreases I constantly fill up the pan. I place either plants in fruit, or young plants as soon as they are well rooted, in these pans of water, and find they thrive equally well : the fruit reared this way is always much larger as well as better flavoured, than when ripened in the bark bed. I have more than once put only the plants themselves without any earth, I mean after they had roots, into these pans of water, with only water sufficient to keep the roots always covered, and found them flourish beyond expectation. In my house, the shelf I mention, is supported by irons from the top, and there is an intervening space of about 10 inches between the back wall and the shelf. A neighbour of mine has placed a leaden cistern upon the top of the back flue, (in which, as it is in contact with the flue, the water is always warm when there is fire in the house,) and finds his fruit excellent and large. My shelf does not touch the back flue, but is about a foot above it ; and consequently only warmed by the air in the house. Both these methods do well. The way I account for this success is, that the warm air always ascending to the part where this shelf is placed, as being the highest part of the house, keeps it much hotter than in any other part. The temperature at that place is, I believe, seldom less than what is indicated by 73° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, and when the sun shines it is often above 100° : the water the plants grow in, seems to enable them to bear the greatest heat, if sufficient air be allowed ; and I often see

roots of the plants growing out of the holes in the bottom of the pot of earth, and shooting vigorously in the water. My hot-house, (the dimensions of which it may be proper to know,) is 60 feet long and 11 feet wide, the flues included; 6 feet high in the front, and 11 feet at the back of the inside of the house. It is warmed by two fires. A leaden trough or cistern on the top of the back flue is preferable to my shelf, as in it the pine plants grow much faster in the winter, the water being always warmed by the flue; of this I have seen the great benefit these two last months in my neighbourhood. It is not foreign to this purpose to mention, that, as a person was moving a large pine plant from the hot-bed in my house last summer, which plant was just showing fruit, by some accident he broke off the plant just above the earth in which it grew, and there was no root whatever left to it: by way of experiment I took the plant, and fixed it upright in a pan of water (without any earth whatever) on the shelf; at there soon threw out roots, and bore a pine-apple that weighed upwards of two pounds."

BROME-PARK, N. W. of Alnwick, Northumberland.

BROMFIELD, 3 villages: 1. in Essex: 2. in Kent; near Lenham: and, 3. in Yorkshire, between S. Cave and the Humber.

BROMFORD, N. W. of Wooller, Northumberland.

BROMHALL, two villages in Cheshire: 1. near Combermere: 2. N. W. of Stockport.

(1.) **BROMLEY**, a town of Kent, situated on the river Ravensburn, 10 miles from London, on the road to Tunbridge. It has an hospital for 20 clergymen's widows, with an allowance of 20 l. a-year; and 50 l. a-year to the chaplain. It has fairs Feb. 14, and Aug. 5, and a market on Thurs. Lon. 0. 5. E. Lat. 51. 23. N.

(2—7.) **BROMLEY** is also the name of 6 villages; viz. 1. Cheshire, near Combermere: in Dorseth. 1½ mile S. W. of Abbots-Stoke: 3. in Middlesex, near Bow, 2 miles from London: 4. in Shropsh. between Bridgenorth and Worril: 5. in ditto, between Kingswood and Nether-Heath: and, 6. in Staffordshire, between Swinford and Brockmere. It likewise makes part of the names of other 7; viz.

(8.) **BROMLEY-ABBEY**, and } in Staffordshire, 6

(9.) **BROMLEY-BAGOTS**, } m. from Stafford.

(10.) **BROMLEY-GERARDS**, in Staffordshire, near Bloreheath.

(11.) **BROMLEY-HURST**, in Staffordshire, S. E. of Pagets-Bromley.

(12.) **BROMLEY MAGNA**, and } in Essex, S. W. of

(13.) **BROMLEY-PARVA**, } Manning-tree: and,

(14.) **BROMLEY REGIS**, or **KING'S BROMLEY**, in Staffordshire, on the Trent.

BROMPTON, the name of three villages; viz. 1. in Dorsetshire, near Bridport: 2. in Kent, near Rochester: and, 3. in Kensington parish, Middlesex.

BROMPTON-BRIAN. See **BRAMPTON-BRION**.

BROMSALL, S. W. of Uttoxeter, Staffordshire.

BROMSBOROUGH, a town in Gloucestersh. 4 miles from Ledbury.

BROMSGROVE, a town of Worcestershire, seated on the river Salwarp. It is a pretty good

town, has a considerable trade in cloth; and a large market on Tuesday, for corn, cattle, and all sorts of provisions. It is 15 miles N. E. by N. of Worcester, and 115 N. W. of London. It has fairs June 24, and October 1. Lon. 2. 5. W. Lat. 52. 26. N.

BROMSTHORP, in Norfolk, near Reedham.

BROMSWELL, near Woodbridge, Suffolk.

BROMUS, **BROOM-GRASS**, in botany: A genus of the digynia order, belonging to the triandria class of plants; and, in the natural method, ranking under the 4th order, *Gramina*. The calyx is bivalved, having a partial spike, oblong and round, opposite grains, with an awn below the point of each outer valve. There are 24 species, of which 7 are natives of Britain, viz.

1. **BROMUS ARVENSIS**, common broom-grass:

2. **BROMUS CILIATUS**, wall broom-grass:

3. **BROMUS GIGANTEUS**, tall broom-grass:

4. **BROMUS PINNATUS**, spiked broom-grass:

5. **BROMUS RAMOSUS**, wood broom-grass:

6. **BROMUS SECALINUS**, field broom-grass:

7. **BROMUS STERILIS**, barren broom-grass.

(1.) **BROMWICH**, a town in Shropshire.

(2.) **BROMWICH CASTLE**, } three villages in

(3.) **BROMWICH, GREAT**, and } Warwickshire,

(4.) **BROMWICH, LITTLE**, } near Colehill.

(5.) **BROMWICH, WEST**, S. of Walsal, Stafford.

BROMYARD, a town of Herefordshire, near the Frome, seated on a rising ground, and containing about 200 houses. It has 5 fairs, and a market on Monday. It is 18 miles W. of Worcester, and 125 W. N. W. of London. Lon. 2. 46. W. Lat. 52. 20. N.

BROMYTHE, or **TILL**, a river in Northumberland.

BRON, or **BRONNO**, a town of Italy, in the Milanese, on the S. side of the Po, 12 miles S. of Pavia. At this place the French were defeated by the Imperialists in 1703. Lon. 10. 5. E. Lat. 44. 50. N.

BRONCHANT, *adj.* in heraldry, projecting.

BRONCHIAE, in anatomy, the ramifications of the trachea. See **ANATOMY**, § 356.

* **BRONCHIAL**. **BRONCHICK**. *adj.* [*Brōnch* & *chick*]. Belonging to the throat.—Inflammation of the lungs may happen either in the *bronchial* or pulmonary vessels, and may soon be communicated from one to the other, when the inflammation affects both the lobes. *Arbutnot*.

BRONCHIAL ARTERIES. See **ANATOMY**, *Index*.

(1.) * **BRONCHOCELE**. *n. f.* [*Brōnch* & *cele*]. A tumour of that part of the *aspera arteria*, called the *bronchus*. *Quincy*.

(2.) **BRONCHOCELE**. See **MEDICINE**, *Index*.

(1.) * **BRONCHOTOMY**. *n. f.* [*Brōnch* & *tomē*]. That operation which opens the windpipe by incision, to prevent suffocation in a *quincy*. *Quincy*.—The operation of *branchotomy* is an incision into the *aspera arteria*, to make way for the air into the lungs, when respiration is obstructed by any tumour compressing the larynx. *Sherr's Surgery*.

(2.) **BRONCHOTOMY** is necessary in many cases, and especially in a violent *quincy*, to prevent suffocation from the great inflammation or tumour of the parts. It is also called **LARYNGOTOMY** & **TRACHEOTOMY**. See **SURGERY**.

BRONCHUS, the trachea or wind-pipe. See **ANATOMY**, § 354—358.

BRONCINI, a name given by some to the sea wolf.

* **BROND**. *n. f.* See **BRAND**. A sword.—

Foolish old man, said then the pagan wroth,
That weenest words or charms may force with-
stand,

Soon shalt thou see, and then believe for troth,
That I can carve with this enchanted *brond*.

Spenser.

BROND-IRON, *n. f. obs.* a sword. *Spenser.*

BRONELSTON, a village in Cumberland.

BRONKHORST, John VAN, an eminent painter of the 17th century, born at Utrecht. He studied under Cornelius Poolemburg, whose style he imitated with great success. He painted both history and landscapes; and his pictures, which are very highly finished, are held in great esteem.

BRONNO. See **BRON**.

BRONTEA, [from *βρονη*, thunder,] an instrument used in theatres to imitate thunder.

BRONTES, in the mythology, one of the Cyclops, who was employed by Vulcan, to make Jupiter's thunder-bolts.

BRONTEUM, in Grecian antiquity, a place underneath the floor of the theatres, in which were kept brazen vessels full of stones and other materials, with which they imitated the noise of thunder.

BRONTEUS, in the mythology, an epithet of Jupiter; applied also to Bacchus.

BRONTIÆ, or **THUNDER-STONES**, in natural history. See **BELEMNITES**.

(1.) * **BRONTOLOGY**. *n. f.* [*βρονη* and *λογος*.] A dissertation upon thunder. *Diff.*

(1.) **BRONTOLOGY** denotes an explanation of the causes, phenomena, &c. of thunder. See **ELECTRICITY** and **THUNDER**.

(1.) * **BRONZE**. *n. f.* [*bronze*, Fr.] 1. Brass.—

Imbrown'd with native *bronze*, lo! Henley
stands,

Tuning his voice, and balancing his hands. *Pope.*

2. Relief, or statue cast in brass.—

I view with anger and disdain,

How little gives thee joy or pain;

A print, a *bronze*, a flower, a root,

A shell, a butterfly can do't.

Prior.

(1.) **BRONZE**, a compound of copper and tin, to which sometimes other metallic substances, particularly zinc, are added.—This metal is brittle, hard, and sonorous. It is employed for making bells, cannons, statues, &c. and the proportions of the component metals are varied to suit the several purposes to which it is applied. This compound, like some others, is specifically heavier than either of the metals taken separately. A metallic mass, composed of 4 fifths of copper and 1 fifth of tin, weighs in water 7 and 1 tenth grains more than the same quantities of these two metals would together weigh in water if not alloyed. This proves, that in the union of copper and tin there is a penetration of parts, the one metal entering into the pores of the other; and this is further confirmed by an observation of Mr Tillet, member of the royal academy of sciences. In his memoir concerning the ductility of metals, he takes notice, that when the mixture of copper

and tin is made in the proportions above mentioned, the colour of the copper is entirely annulled and covered by that of the tin, although the quantity of the first be four times greater; and this singular effect cannot be understood without admitting a total change in the size and disposition of the pores of the compound metal.—Tin being less subject to rust than copper, bronze is also found to be less liable to be covered with verdigrise than pure copper is; and this is one reason why it is used for cannons, statues, and works exposed to the air and weather. The greater fusibility of bronze than copper is also an advantageous property, and much facilitates the casting of large works. The operation for casting bronze is simple. A brick furnace is used, nearly of the shape of an oven for baking bread. The floor of it is concave, and consists of a composition of sand and clay. In this hollow floor the metals to be fused are put.—The furnace has 3 openings. The first is a lateral mouth, at which enters the flame of the wood placed in a second furnace, on one side of the first: the 2d is a chimney placed on a side opposite to the mouth, by means of which the flame is drawn over the metal. The 3d is a hole which is opened and shut at pleasure; through which the inner part of the furnace may be occasionally inspected, that the state of the metal may be observed. When the metal is in the state required, a 4th opening is then unclosed, communicating with the hollow floor, and through which the melted metal flows by channels into the moulds prepared to receive it.

(3.) **BRONZE**, also denotes a colour prepared by the colourmen of Paris, wherewith to imitate bronze.—There are two sorts, the red bronze and the yellow or golden. The latter is made solely of copper dust, the finest and brightest that can be got; the former is made of the same, with the addition of a little red ochre well pulverized. They are both applied with varnish. To prevent their turning greenish, the work must be dried over a chafing-dish as soon as bronzed.

(4.) **BRONZE**, among antiquarians, is applied to figures of men or beasts, to urns, and in general to every piece of sculpture which the ancients made of that metal. We likewise give the name to statues or busts cast of bronze, whether these pieces be copies of antiques or original subjects.—Among medallists, all copper medals bear the name of *bronze*.

BRONZING, the art or act of imitating bronze, which is done by means of copper-dust or leaf, fastened on the outside, as gold leaves are in gilding.

* **BROOCH**. *n. f.* [*broke*, Dutch.] 1. A jewel; an ornament of jewels.—

Ay, marry, our chains and our jewels.—

Your *brooches*, pearls, and owches. *Shakeff.*

—Richly suited, but unseasonable; just like the *brooch* and the toothpick, which we wear not now. *Shakespeare.*—

I know him well; he is the *brooch*, indeed,

A gem of all the nation.

Shakespeare.

2. [With painters.] A painting all of one colour. *Diff.*

* To **BROOCH**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To adorn with jewels.—

Not

Not th' imperious shew
Of the full-fortun'd Cæsar, ever shall
Be *brooch'd* with me. *Shakespeare.*

(1.) * BROOD. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Offspring; progeny. It is now hardly used of human being, but in contempt.—

The heavenly father keep his *brood*
From foul infection of so great a vice. *Fairfax.*
With terrours, and with clamours compass'd
round,
Of mine own *brood*, that on my bowels feed.

Milton.

Or any other of that heav'nly *brood*,
Let down in cloudy throne to do the world
some good. *Milton.*

—Ælian discourses of storks, and their affection
toward their *brood*, whom they instruct to fly.
Brown's Vulgar Errors. 2. Thing bred; species
generated.—

Have you forgotten Libya's burning wastes,
Its barren rocks, parch'd earth, and hills of sand,
Its tainted air, and all its *broods* of poison? *Addis.*
3. A hatch; the number hatched at once.—I was
wonderfully pleased to see the different workings
of instinct in a hen followed by a *brood* of ducks.
Spectator. 4. Something brought forth; a pro-
duction.—Such things become the hatch and *brood*
of time. *Shakesp.* 5. The act of covering the eggs.

Something's in his soul,
O'er which his melancholy sits on *brood*;
And I doubt the hatch and the disclose
Will be some danger. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) BROOD, or } called by the French *couvain*,
BROOD-COMB, } is that part of the comb of a
bee-hive, which contains in its cells the future
progeny of the hive, in the three different states of
eggs, worms, and nymphs. See BEE, § I, 12.

(1.) * To BROOD. *v. a.* To cherish by care.—
Of crowds afraid, yet anxious when alone,
You'll sit and *brood* your sorrows on a throne.

Dryden.

(2.) * To BROOD. *v. n.* [*bradan*, Sax.] 1. To
sit as on eggs; to hatch them.—

Thou from the first
Wast present, and, with mighty wings outspread,
Dove-like sat'st *brooding* on the vast abyss,
And mad'st it pregnant. *Milton.*

Here nature spreads her fruitful sweetness
round,
Breathes on the air, and *broods* upon the ground.

Dryden.

2. To cover chickens under the wing.—

Exalted hence, and drunk with secret joy,
Their young succession all their cares employ;
They breed, they *brood*, instruct and educate,
And make provision for the future state. *Dryd.*

Find out some uncouth cell,
Where *brooding* darkness spreads his jealous
wings,
And the night raven sings. *Milton.*

3. To remain long in anxiety, or solicitous thought.
Defraud their clients, and, to lucre sold,
Sit *brooding* on unprofitable gold. *Dryden.*

As rejoicing misers
Brood o'er their precious stores of secret gold.
Smith.

4. To mature any thing by care.—It was the opi-
nion of Clinias, as if there were ever amongst na-

tions a *brooding* of a war, and that there is no sure
league but impuissance to do hurt. *Bacon.*

BROODING, the act of a hen in hatching her
chickens. See HATCHING.

* BROODY. *adj.* [from *brood*.] In a state of
sitting on the eggs; inclined to sit.—The common
hen, all the while she is *broody*, sits, and leads her
chickens, and uses a voice which we call clocking.
Ray.

(1.) * BROOK. *n. f.* [*broc*, or *broca*, Sax.] A
running water, less than a river.—

A substitute shines brightly as a king,
Until a king be by; and then his state
Empties itself, as doth an inland *brook*
Into the main of waters. *Shakespeare.*

Or many grateful altars I would rear,
Of grassy turf; and pile up every stone,
Of lustre from the *brook*; in memory,
Of monument to ages. *Milton.*

And to Cephissus' *brook* their way pursue:
The stream was troubled, but the ford they
knew. *Dryden.*

—Springs make little rivulets; those united, make
brooks; and those coming together, make rivers,
which empty themselves into the sea. *Locke.*

(2.) A BROOK is by some distinguished from a
river, in this, that it flows at particular seasons
only; whereas a river flows at all times.

(3—5.) BROOK, in geography, the name of 3
villages; viz. 1. in Kent, S. of Ashford: 2. in W.
Medina, Isle of Wight: and 3. in Wiltshire, S. of
N. Bradley.

(1.) * To BROOK. *v. a.* [*brucan*, Sax.] To bear;
to endure; to support.—Even they, which *brook*
it worst, that men should tell them of their duties,
when they are told the same by a law, think very
well and reasonably of it. *Hooker.*

A thousand more mischances than this one,
Have learned me to *brook* this patiently. *Shakesp.*
How use doth breed a habit in a man?

This shadowy desert, unfrequented woods,
I better *brook* than flourishing peopl'd towns.
Shakespeare.

Heav'n, the seat of bliss,

Brooks not the works of violence, and war. *Milt.*
—Most men can much rather *brook* their being re-
puted knaves, than for their honesty be accounted
fools. *South.*

Restraint thou wilt not *brook*; but think it hard,
Your prudence is not trusted as your guard.

Dryden.

(2.) * To BROOK. *v. n.* To endure; to be con-
tent.—He, in these wars, had flatly refused his aid;
because he could not *brook*, that the worthy prince
Plangus was, by his chosen Tiridates, preferred
before him. *Sidney.*

(1.) BROOKE, a town near Oakham, Rutlandsh.

(2.) BROOKE, Mrs Frances, daughter of the rev.
Mr More, was a lady as remarkable for her vir-
tues and suavity of manners, as for her great lite-
rary accomplishments. Her first performance,
which introduced her to the esteem of the public,
was *Julia Mandeville*; a work concerning which
there were various opinions, but which every body
read with eagerness. It has often been wished
that she had made the catastrophe less melanco-
ly; and we believe that she afterwards was of the
same opinion, but she thought it beneath her cha-
racter

rather to alter it. She soon afterwards went to Canada with her husband, who was chaplain to the garrison at Quebec; and here she saw and loved those romantic characters and scenes which gave birth to *Emily Montague*, a work deservedly and universally esteemed, which has passed through several editions, and is now not easily met with. On her return to England, accident introduced her, and congenial sentiments attracted her, to Mrs Yates; an intimacy was formed, which terminated only with the life of that lady. Mrs Brooke, in consequence of this connection, formed an acquaintance with Mr Garrick, and wrote some pieces for the stage. She had, however, great reason to be dissatisfied with his behaviour as a manager; and she made *The Excursion*, a novel which she wrote at this time, the vehicle by which she exhibited to the public her complaints and anger against the king of Drury. Her anger, we believe, was just, but the retribution was too severe. She herself afterwards thought so, for she retracted it. Her first dramatic performance was the tragedy of *Virginia*, 1756. Her next, was *The Siege of Synope*, a tragedy introduced by Mr Harris, and written principally with a view of placing Mr Yates in a conspicuous character. This did not altogether fail, but it did not become popular; it wanted energy, and it had not much originality; it had little either to censure or admire. Her next and most popular production was *Rosina*, which, in a most liberal manner, she presented to Mr Harris. Few modern pieces have been equally successful. About ten years ago, her musical piece, entitled *Marian*, was introduced, and exhibited. Mrs Brooke also translated several books from the French. She was esteemed by Dr Johnson, Miss Seward, and all the first characters of her time. She died in Jan. 1789, two days after her husband, who enjoyed the rectory of Colney in Norfolk, to which he had been preferred after his arrival from America.

(1.) BROOKE, Sir Robert. See BROKE, N° 3.

BROOKE-GREEN, a village in Middlesex, near Hammersmith.

BROOKFIELD, a post-town of the United States, in Massachusetts; situated in Worcester county. It contains about 30 houses, compactly built, and a congregational church. It is 68 m. W. by S. of Boston, and 297 from Philadelphia.

BROOKHAVEN, a town of Long-Island; situated in Suffolk county. It contains about 40 dwellings, compactly built, an Episcopalian, and a Presbyterian church. It is 60 miles E. of New-York.

BROOKHOUSE, in Kent, near Dartford.

BROOKLAND, in Romney-marsh, Kent.

BROOKLEY, in Kent, near Eltham.

(1.) * BROOKLIME. *n. f.* [*becabungo*, Lat.] A sort of water speed-well, very common in ditches.

(2.) BROOK-LIME. See VERONICA.

BROOKLYN, a handsome town of Long-Island; pleasantly situated in King's county, opposite New York city. It consists of one principal street, on which are erected about 100 houses, a Presbyterian, and a Dutch Reformed church.

BROOKS-BOROUGH, a town of Ireland, in Fermanagh, Ulster, about 87 m. from Dublin.

BROOKSTREET, in Essex, near Burtwood.

VOL. IV. PART II.

(1.) * BROOM. *n. f.* [*genista*; *brom*; Saxon.]

2. A small tree.—

Ev'n humble *broom*, and osiers, have their use,
And shade for sheep; and food for flocks, produce.

Dryden.

2. A besom; so called from the matter of which it is sometimes made.—

Not a mouse

Shall disturb this hallow'd house;

I am sent with *broom* before,

To sweep the dust behind the door. *Shake-sp.*

—If they came into the best apartment, to set any thing in order; they were saluted with a *broom*. *Arbutnot.*

(2.) BROOM, as defined § 1. *def. 2.* is applied to besoms of various kinds; such as a *birch broom*, a *hair broom*, a *rush broom*, a *heath broom*, &c. The primitive brooms, from whence the denomination is given to all the rest, were made of the *genista* or wild broom growing on commons, as many of them still are.

(3.) BROOM, in botany. See GENISTA.

(4.) BROOM, in geography, a district in Renfrewshire, in the parish of Mearns, where there is a bleachfield, which employs 22 persons.

(5.) BROOM, AFRICAN. See ASPALATHUS, § 2.

(6.) BROOM, BUTCHER'S, in botany. See RUSCUS.

(7.) BROOM, SPANISH, in botany. See SPARTIUM.

BROOME, William, the coadjutor of Pope in translating the *Odyssey*, was born in Cheshire, of poor parents. He was educated at Eaton, and was captain of the school a whole year, by which he might have obtained a scholarship at King's college; had there been a vacancy. He was therefore sent to St John's college by the contribution of his friends, where he obtained a small exhibition. At this college he lived for some time in the same chamber with the well known Ford, by whom Dr Johnson heard him described as a contracted scholar, and a mere versifier, unacquainted with life, and unskilful in conversation. His addiction to metre was then such, that his companions called him *Poet*. But when he had opportunities of mingling with mankind, he cleared himself, from his scholastic rust. He appeared early in the world as a translator of the *Iliad* into prose, in conjunction with Ozell and Oldisworth. How their several parts were distributed is not known. This is the translation of which Ozell boasted, as superior, in Toland's opinion, to that of Pope: It has long since vanished, (Dr Johnson observes,) and is now in no danger from the critics. He was introduced to Mr Pope, when visiting Sir John Cotton at Madingley, near Cambridge; and gained so much of his esteem, that he employed him to make extracts from Eustathius, for the notes to the translation of the *Iliad*; and in the volumes of poetry published by Lintot, commonly called *Pope's Miscellanies*, many of his early pieces were inserted. Pope and Broome were yet more closely connected. When the success of the *Iliad* gave encouragement to a version of the *Odyssey*, Pope, weary of the toil, called Fenton and Broome to his assistance; and taking only half the work upon himself, divided the other half between his partners, giving 4 books to Fen-

E e e

ton

ton and 8 to Broome. Fenton's books are enumerated in Dr Johnson's life of him. To the lot of Broome fell the 2d, 6th, 8th, 11th, 12th, 16th, 18th, and 23d, together with the burden of writing all the notes. The price at which Pope purchased this assistance was 300l. paid to Fenton and 500l. to Broome, with as many copies as he wanted for his friends, which amounted to 100l. more. The payment made to Fenton is known only by hearsay; Broome's is very distinctly told by Pope in the notes to the Dunciad. It is evident, that, according to Pope's own estimate, Broome was unkindly treated. If four books could merit 300l. eight and all the notes, equivalent at least to other four, had certainly a right to more than 600l. Broome probably considered himself as injured, and there was for some time more than coldness between him and his employer. He always spoke of Pope as too much a lover of money, and Pope pursued him with avowed hostility; for he not only named him disrespectfully in the Dunciad, but quoted him more than once in the Bathos, as a proficient in the art of sinking: and in his enumeration of the different kinds of poets distinguished for the profound, he reckons Broome among "the parrots who repeat another's words, in such an hoarse odd tone as makes them seem their own." It has been said that they were afterwards reconciled; but their peace was probably without friendship. He afterwards published a *Miscellany of Poems*, but never rose to any high dignity in the church. He was some time rector of Sturston in Suffolk, where he married a wealthy widow; and afterwards, when the king visited Cambridge, in 1728, became LL. D. He was, in 1733, presented by the crown to the rectory of Pulham in Norfolk, which he held with Oakley Magna in Suffolk, given him by Lord Cornwallis, to whom he was chaplain, and who added the vicarage of Eye in Suffolk. He amused himself with translating Odes of Anacreon, which he published in the *Gentleman's Magazine* under the name of *Chester*. He died at Bath in 1745.

BROOM FLOWER, KNIGHTS OF THE, (*Ordre de la Geneste*,) a ci-devant order of knights instituted by St Lewis of France, on occasion of his marriage. The motto was *Exaltat humiles*; and the collar of the order made up of broom flowers and husks, enamelled and intermixed with *fleur-de-lys* of gold, set in open lozenges, enamelled white, chained together, and a cross florence of gold hung at it. Some speak of another order of the *Broom* established by Charles Martel, or rather Charles VI.

BROOM GALL, in natural history, a remarkable species of galls found on the common broom; occasioned, like all other galls, by the puncture and eating of an insect. When opened they are found to contain a small oblong worm, of a red colour, but whose size requires a glass to see it distinctly.

BROOMHILL, a district in Lanarkshire.

BROOMING, or BREAMING A SHIP. See *To BREAM*, and *CAREENING*.

* **BROOMLAND:** *n. s.* [*broom* and *land*.] Land that bears broom.—I have known sheep cured of the rot, when they have not been far gone with it, by being put into *broomlands*. *Mortimer*.

BROOM, LOCH. See *LOCH-BROOM*.

BROOM-RAPE, in botany. See *OROBANCHÆ*.

* **BROOMSTAFF.** *n. s.* [from *broom* and *staff*.] The staff to which the *broom* is bound; the handle of a besom.—They fell on; I made good my place: at length they came to the *broomstaff* with me; I defied 'em still. *Shakespeare*.—

From the age,

That children tread this worldly stage,

Broomstaff, or poker, they bestride,

And round the parlour love to ride. *Prior*.

—Sir Roger pointed at something behind the door, which I found to be an old *broomstaff*. *Spectator*.

* **BROOMSTICK.** *n. s.* The same as *broomstaff*.—When I beheld this, I sighed and said within myself, *SURELY MORTAL MAN IS A BROOMSTICK!* *Swift's Meditation on a Broomstick*.

* **BROOMY.** *adj.* [from *broom*.] Full of broom.—If land grow mossy or *broomy*, then break it up again. *Mortimer*.—

The youth with *broomy* stumps began to trace
The kennel edge, where wheels had worn the place. *Swift*.

(1.) **BRORA,** a lake of Scotland, in the county of Sutherland, 4 miles long and 1 broad. At two different places it is so much contracted, as to exhibit the appearance of 3 lakes. It is environed on both sides with lofty mountains, villages and natural wood. In the middle of it is an island of an oblong square figure, which tradition says, was artificially constructed on an immense collection of stones brought there on purpose. One half of it was appropriated for lodgings in time of war, and the other laid out for a garden. "The walls, (says the rev. Mr Ross, minister of Clyne) are still pretty high, and ascend perpendicularly from the surface of the water, without a vestige of the island behind them; and are only accessible by two stairs, which front the S. and E. so that with plenty of stores, and the fishing of the loch, abounding with salmon, trout and eel, the place was impregnable, when properly defended." Mr Ross also gives a traditional account of the people of that neighbourhood having preserved themselves in that island from a sudden invasion of the Caithness men, till they were relieved by their allies of the clan Gun. *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* x. 304.

(2.) **BRORA,** a river in Sutherlandshire, which falls into the sea, about a furlong below the village, N^o 3. There is a tolerable harbour at the mouth of it, for small ships.

(3.) **BRORA,** a village seated on the river, N^o 2. over which it has a bridge, on the high road to Caithness and Orkney. Salt pans were established, and great quantities of salt made and exported by a company from Portsoy; but they were discontinued about 20 years ago, on account of the high tax on coals. It is to be hoped they will now be again set agoing.

(1.) **BROS,** a district of the Saxon territory in Transylvania.

(2.) **BROS,** a royal free town; and capital of the district, (N^o 1.) seated on the Maros. It has been admitted by the Saxons among the German towns.

BROSELEY, a village in Shropshire, 3 miles from Bridgenorth.

BROSNEY, in King's county, Ireland.

BROSSÆA, in botany, a genus of plants ranked

ed by some botanists under the order Monogynia, of the class Pentandria; but Mr Lee and others class it in Linnæus's appendix, under the order Palmæ. The characters are these: the cup is a one-leaved perianthium, divided into 5 segments, each of which terminates in a long point, of the same length with the petals; the flower is monopetalous, of the shape of a truncated cone, and undivided at the edge; the germen is divided into 5 parts; the style is pointed, not so long as the flower, and its stigma simple. The fruit is a roundish capsule, divided by 5 deep furrows into 5 cells; it is covered with a large cup, which closes over its top; it is succulent and fleshy; and, opening at the sides, discharges a great number of seeds.

BROSSARD, Sebastian de, an eminent French musician. In the former part of his life he had been prebendary and chapel master of the cathedral church of Strasburg; but afterwards became grand-chaplain, and also maitre de chapelle in the cathedral of Meaux. He published a work entitled *Prodromus musicalis*; and a very useful book entitled *Dictionnaire de musique*, printed at Amsterdam, in folio, 1703. At the end of this book is a catalogue of 900 authors, ancient and modern, who have written on music; divided into classes, wherein he has interspersed many curious observations relating to the history of music. By Mr Boivin's *Catalogue general des livres de musique* for 1729, it appears that Brossard was the author of two sets of motets, and 9 *Leçons de Tenebres* therein mentioned. These several publications were at a time when the author was far advanced in years; for Walther says, that in the *Mercure Galante*, he is mentioned as an abbé and componist so early as 1678.

BROSSETTE, Claude, a learned French advocate, born at Lyons, in 1671. He was keeper of the public library at Lyons; and published the works of Boileau and Regnier, with historical illustrations. He purged the text of these authors from the errors of former editions, and interspersed his notes with many curious anecdotes. He wrote also *L'Histoire Abregée de la Ville de Lyons*; a elegant and correct work. He corresponded with many eminent literati, particularly Voltaire and Rousseau. He died at Lyons in 1746, aged 73.

BROSSIER, Martha, a French woman who made no small noise about the end of the 16th century, by pretending to be possessed by the devil, and counterfeiting convulsive fits. M. De Thou and other French historians have given a particular account of her. Her father was a weaver at Romorentin, but found he could gain more, at that credulous age, by exhibiting his daughter as a demoniac, than by following his honest and useful profession. She was first detected at Orleans, in 1598; and afterwards at Angers, where the bishop, inviting Martha to dinner, not only proposed that her *dæmon* could not distinguish between common and holy water, but that he was such an *arrant devil*, that he did not know the difference between the *Book of exorcisms* and *Virgil's Æneid*. Notwithstanding these detections, the credulity of the public was such, and some of the priests acquired so much reputation by exorcising the evil

spirit, that Henry IV. enjoined the parliament of Paris to take cognizance of the affair; who, after a consultation of physicians, ordered the father and daughter to be confined to Romorentin, under pain of corporal punishment. The priests, however, carried the business and the parties before the court of Rome; but the pope, being forewarned by the court of Paris, did nothing contrary to the decision of parliament. Some of the French priests lost their benefices by their villainous zeal; and the pretended dæmoniac and her father died in deserved contempt, in an hospital at Rome.

BROSSUS, in old records, bruised.

BROST, or } *adj. obs.* Broken, torn, or rent.

BROSTIN, } *Chauc.*

BROSTON, a town 2 miles E. of Norwich, Norfolk.

* **BROTH**. *n. s.* [*broth*, Sax.] Liqueur in which flesh is boiled.—You may make the *broth* for two days, and take the one half every day. *Bacon*.—

Instead of light deserts and luscious froth,

Our author treats to-night with Spartan *broth*.

Southerne.

—If a nurse, after being sucked dry, eats *broth*, the infant will suck the *broth* almost unaltered. *Arbutnot*.

* **BROTHEL**.

} *n. s.* [*brodel*, Fr.] A

(1.) * **BROTHEL-HOUSE**. } house of lewd entertainment; a bawdyhouse.—

Perchance

I saw him enter such a house of sale,

Videlicet, a *brothel*.

Shakespeare.

Then courts of kings were held in high renown,

Ere made the common *brothels* of the town:

There, virgins honourable vows receiv'd,

But chaste as maids in monasteries liv'd. *Dryd.*

From its old ruins *brothelhouses* rise,

Scenes of lewd loves, and of polluted joys. *Dryd.*

—The libertine retires to the stews, and to the *brothel*. *Rogers*.

(2.) **BROTHEL HOUSES**, lewd places, the common habitations of prostitutes. King Henry VIII. by proclamation, in the 37th year of his reign, suppressed all the stews or brothel-houses: which had long continued on the bank side in Southwark, contrary to the law of God and of the land. See **BAWDY-HOUSE**.

BROTHERLIER FEMME, a common whore.

BROTHELMAN, a loose idle fellow. *Borelman* is a contraction for *brothelman*.

BROTHERLY, *n. s.* obscenity; lewdness.

(1.) * **BROTHER**. *n. s.* [*brother*, *brother*, Sax.] Plural, *brothers*, or *brethren*. 1. One born of the same father or mother.—

Be sad, good *brothers*;

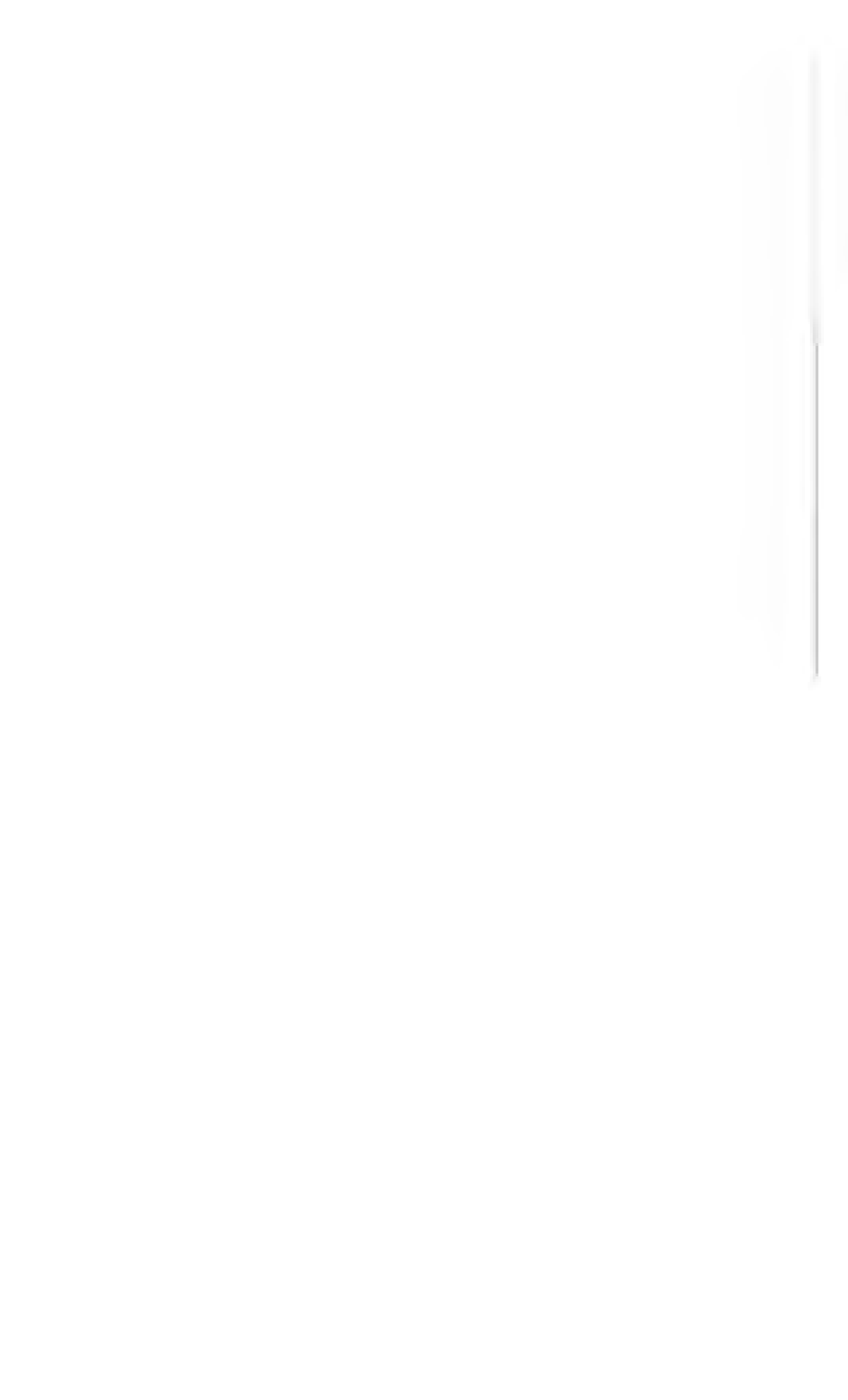
Sorrow so royally in you appears,

That I will deeply put the fashion on. *Shakesp.*

Whilst kin their kin, *brother* the *brother* foils,
Like ensigns all, against like ensigns bend. *Daniel*.

These two are *brethren*, Adam, and to come
Out of thy loins. *Milton*.

—Comparing two men, in reference to one common parent, it is very easy to form the idea of *brothers*. *Locke*. 2. Any one closely united; associate.—



BROTHER LOCH, a lake in Renfrewshire, 3 m. in circumference, abounding with trouts and char.

(1.) * **BROTHERLY**. *adj.* [from *brother*.] Natural; such as becomes or befits a brother.—He was a priest, and looked for a priest's reward; which was our *brotherly* love, and the good of our souls and bodies. *Bacon*.—

Though more our money than our cause,

Their *brotherly* assistance draws. *Denham*.

—They would not go before the laws, but follow them; obeying their superiours, and embracing one another in *brotherly* piety and concord. *Addis.*

(2.) * **BROTHERLY**. *adv.* After the manner of a brother; with kindness and affection.—I speak but *brotherly* of him; but should I anatomize him to thee as he is, I must blush and weep. *Shakesp.*

BROTHERTOFT, a village in Lincolnshire, N. W. of Boston.

BROTHICK, or } a small river of Angus-shire,

BROTHOCK, } which runs through the parish of St Vigeans, and falls into the sea at Aberbrothick, to which it gives name.

BROTHIEUS, in the mythology, a son of Vulcan, said to have been remarkably deformed; and on that account to have thrown himself into the abyss of Mount *Ætna*.

BROTIL, *adj. obs.* brittle. *Chauc.*

BROTTON, 4 m. from Gisborough, Yorksh.

BROUAGE, a maritime town of France in the department of Lower Charente, and ci-devant province of Saintong. It consists of 5 or 6 streets which terminate in a great square. It is famous for its salt-works, which are the finest in the kingdom. The salt is called *Bay Salt*, because the town lies on a bay. It is 17 miles S. of Rochelle and 170 S. W. of Paris. Lon. 1. 4. W. Lat. 45. 51. N.

BROUAGEOIS, a ci-devant territory of France, now included in the department of Lower Charente.

BROUCA, a town of Sicilly, in the Val di Noto.

BROUCH, *n. f. obs.* a jewel.

BROUCK, **BRUCK**, or **BRUGG**, a town of Switzerland, in the county of Argow.

BROUDRED, *adj. obs.* embroidered. *Chauc.*

BROUERSHAVEN, or **BROWERSHAVEN**, a port town of Zealand, in the N. side of the island of Schonen, seated on a bay; 9 m. S. W. of Helvoetsluys. Lon. 3. 35. E. Lat. 51. 50. N.

(1.) **BROUGH**, a fishing town on the coast of Caithness, close by Dunnet Head, where there is a harbour well sheltered from every wind but the N. W. and which (says Mr Jolly, minister of Dunnet,) might at a small expence be rendered secure against it too, by throwing a pier from the land to a large rock about 100 yards from the shore, to which there is already a natural ridge of large stones, though not sufficiently high to keep back the sea at high water. Mr Knox, during his tour, was much taken with this harbour, and thought the executing such a pier an object worthy of attention; as Brough is contiguous to the best fishing ground, S. of the Pentland Frith. *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* XI. 247.

(2.) **BROUGH**, a town in Westmoreland, seated under Stanmore hill, 6 m. from Appleby and 259 from London. It was formerly a place of great note, being a Roman fortress; but is now much

decayed. It has a castle, lately rebuilt and an ancient fort called *Cæsar's Tower*. It is divided into two, the *Upper* and *Lower*, and has a market on Thursd. and a fair Thursd. before Whitf. Lon. 2. 50. W. Lat. 54. 40. N.

(3.) **BROUGH**, in Holderness, Yorkshire.

BROUGHAM, near Penrith, Westmoreland.

BROUGHSHANE, a village of Ireland, in the county of Antrim, 95 miles from Dublin.

* **BROUGHT**. [*participle passive* of *bring*.] The Turks forsook the walls, and could not be *brought* on again to the assault. *Knolles*.—The instances *brought* by our author are but slender proofs. *Locke*.

(1.) **BROUGHTON**, a parish of Scotland, in the county of Tweeddale, 4 m. long and 3 broad, consisting of two ridges of hills with a valley between them. The whole landed property of it, worth about L. 700 a-year, belongs to the R. H. Robert M'Queen of Braxfield, the present Lord Justice Clerk. The soil is generally a deep wet clay, which produces good crops in dry seasons, and the climate is healthy. The population, in 1792, as stated by the rev. Mr Gray in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 264. It had decreased 103, since 1755, owing to the enlargement of farms and pulling down cottages. There were above 2000 sheep, 200 black cattle, and 80 horses at that period, and 400 acres were in tillage, 300 sown with corn, 60 with bear, 30 with peas, 10 with potatoes, and 30 with grass. All the rest is laid out in pasture. The exports are corn, cattle and wool to a considerable amount. There are ruins of 10 ancient castles in the parish, in one of which the usurper Macbeth is said to have resided.

(2.) **BROUGHTON**, a remarkably neat village in the above parish, (N. 1.) containing 20 houses, and 97 inhabitants, in 1792. It was all rebuilt by the last proprietor, James Dickson, Esq; of Edrum. It has a fair Oct. 4.

(3.) **BROUGHTON**, a village near Edinburgh, on the N. E. side of the New Town.

(4.) **BROUGHTON**, Thomas, a learned divine, and one of the original writers of the *Biographia Britannica*, was born at London, July 5th 1704, in the parish of St Andrew, Holborn; of which his father was minister. At an early age he was sent to Eton school, where he soon distinguished himself by his acute genius, and studious disposition. He removed, about 1722, to the university of Cambridge, where he studied mathematics, under the famous professor Sanderson, and acquired a knowledge of the modern languages.—In 1727 he was made A. B. and admitted to deacon's orders. In 1728, he was ordained priest, and took the degree of M. A. when he removed to the curacy of Olney, in Hertfordshire. In 1739, he was instituted rector of Stepington, appointed chaplain to the D. of Bedford, and soon after was chosen reader to the Temple, by which he became known to Bishop Sherlock, who conceived so high an opinion of his merit, that, in 1744, he appointed him vicar of Bedminster, and not long after prebendary of Bedminster and Redcliff. Upon receiving this preferment, he removed from London to Bristol, where he married the daughter of Thomas Harris, clerk of that city, by whom he had 7 children, six of whom survived him.

him. He resided on his living till his death, 21st Dec. 1774, in the 71st year of his age. From his quitting the university till he was considerably advanced in life, he was engaged in a variety of publications, of which a list is given in the *Biographia Britannica*, 2d edition. Sometime before his death, he composed "A short view of the principles upon which Christian churches require, of their respective clergy, subscription to established articles of religion;" but this work never appeared in print. He possessed, likewise, no inconsiderable talent for poetry, as is evident from many MS. poems found among his papers; and particularly from two unfinished tragedies, both written at the age of 17. During his residence in London, he enjoyed the esteem and friendship of most of the literary men of his time. He was a great lover of music, particularly the ancient; which introduced him to the acquaintance of Mr Handel; whom he furnished with the words for many of his compositions. In his public character, Mr Broughton was distinguished by an active zeal for the Christian cause, joined with moderation. In private life, he was devoted to the happiness of his family; and was of a mild, cheerful, and liberal temper. This disposition, which is not always united with eminent literary abilities, attended him to his grave. In 1778, a posthumous "volume of sermons, on select subjects," was published by his son, the rev. Thomas Broughton, M. A. vicar of Tiverton, near Bath.

(5—21.) BROUGHTON, the name of 17 small towns or villages in England; viz. 1. in Bucks, 2 m. E. of Aylesbury: 2. in ditto, between Woburn and Newport: 3. in Hampshire, near the Wallops: 4. in Hertfordshire, near Hoddesdon: 5. in Huntingdonshire, 4 miles S. of Ramsey: 6. in Lancashire, 5 miles from Preston: 7. in ditto 4 m. N. W. of Ulverston: 8. in Lincolnshire, near Glandford bridge: 9. in Northamptonshire, near Kettering: 10. in Oxfordshire, near Banbury: 11. in Shropshire, 4 m. from Wem. 12. in ditto, in the parish of Wurthen: 13. in Staffordshire 5 miles N. W. of Eccleshall: 14. in Warwickshire, adjoining to Whitchurch: 15. in Wilts, between Bradford and Lacock: 16. in Yorkshire, 5 miles S. W. of Skipton: and 17. in ditto, 3 m. S. E. of Stockesley. It also makes part of the names of other 10 villages, viz.

(22.) BROUGHTON-ASHLEY, in Leicestershire, 4 m. N. of Lutterworth.

(23.) BROUGHTON-CASTLE, in Cumberland, E. of Penrith.

(24.) BROUGHTON-CHURCH, in Derbyshire, 4 m. E. of Daberton.

(25.) BROUGHTON, GREAT, a town near Cockermouth in Cumberland.

(26.) BROUGHTON HACKETTS, a village 3 m. E. of Worcester.

(27.) BROUGHTON, LITTLE, near GREAT BROUGHTON, (N. 25.)

(28.) BROUGHTON, NETHER, in Leicestersh.

(29.) BROUGHTON ON THE SANDS, on the Solway Frith, in Cumberland.

(30.) BROUGHTON, OVER, in Nottinghamsh.

(31.) BROUGHTON-POGES, in Oxfordshire.

(32.) BROUGHTY, [from *Borgh*, a security, a strict on the coast of Forfarshire, a-

bout 4 m. E. from Dundee, and one N. from the coast of Fife.

(2.) BROUGHTY CASTLE, an ancient fort in the above district, formerly a scene of many warlike deeds, but now verging fast to ruin. The earliest mention made of it is by Hector Boece in 1492. In 1547, it was seized by the English, under the D. of Somerset, during the minority of Edward VI. and filled with an English garrison. Upon the Duke's return to England, it was blockaded by the E. of Arran, then regent of Scotland, from Oct. 1st, 1547, to 1st Jan. 1548, when he was obliged to raise the siege, after losing one of his best generals, and all his ordnance. It was soon after attacked by the E. of Argyll, who was likewise repulsed. It was next attack by three French regiments under D'Esse, and as many German troops, who all met with similar fate. At last the supplies from England of provisions, arms, and ammunition failing, the English garrisons, in Broughty Castle and the fort Balgillo, were obliged to surrender to the allied army of Scots, Germans, and French, under Des Thermes, on the 12th Feb. 1550.

To BROUILLER, v. n. [French,] in the manege, to plunge; to appear in disorder.

BROUKHUSIUS, Jonas, or John BROEKHUIZEN, a distinguished writer in Holland, was born Nov. 20, 1649, at Amsterdam, where his father was a clerk to the admiralty. He learned Latin under Hadrian Junius, and made a prodigious progress in literature; but, his father dying when he was very young, he was placed with an apothecary at Amsterdam, with whom he lived some years. Not liking this profession, he went to the army, where his behaviour raised him to the rank of lieutenant-captain; and, in 1674, he was sent with his regiment to America, in the fleet under admiral de Ruyter, but returned to Holland the same year. In 1678, he was sent to the garrison at Utrecht, where he contracted a friendship with the celebrated Grævius; and here, though of an excellent temper, he had the misfortune to be so deeply engaged in a duel, that according to the laws of Holland, his life was forfeited; but Grævius wrote immediately to Nicolas Heinsius, who obtained his pardon from the Stadtholder. Not long after that, he became captain of one of the companies then at Amsterdam; which placed him in an easy situation, and gave him leisure to pursue his studies. His company being disbanded in 1697, a pension was granted him; upon which he retired to a country house near Amsterdam, where he saw but little company, and spent his time among books. He died Dec. 15th 1707. As a classical editor, he is distinguished by his labours upon Propertius and Tibullus, published in 1701, and 1708. He was also an excellent Latin poet, though the authors of the *Journal de Trevoux* alleged he was only "a poet by art and not by nature." A volume of his poems was published at Utrecht, 1684, in 12mo; and an elegant edition of them was given by Van Hoogstraeten at Amsterdam, 1711, in 4to, who also published his Dutch poems, in 1712, in 8vo, and prefixed his life, extracted from Peter Burman's funeral oration upon him. Broukhufius was also editor of the Latin works of Sannazarius and Palæarius.

BROUKIN, *v. n. obs.* To brook; to bear.

For even the day before she broke her *brow*.

Shakespeare.

Chaucer.

BROUNCKER, William, lord viscount of Castle Lyons, in Ireland, and the first president of the Royal Society, was the son of Sir Wm. Brouncker, and born about 1620. He was distinguished by his knowledge of the mathematics, and by the considerable posts he enjoyed after the restoration; being chancellor to the queen, and keeper of her great seal, and one of the commissioners of the navy, &c. He wrote, 1. Experiments of the recoiling of guns. 2. An algebraical paper upon the square of the hyperbola; and several letters to Abp. Usher. He died in 1684.

BROUNGELLY, a village in Cornwall, seated on a hill, N. of Lefkard.

BROUNKER. See **BROUNCKER**.

BROUNRIGG, a village in Cumberland, near Abbey-Holm.

BROUSSON, Claude, an eminent French protestant martyr, born at Nîmes, in 1647. He was an advocate and distinguished himself by his pleading at Castres and Toulouse. The deputies of the protestants assembled at his house, after their churches were demolished, and resolved to continue to meet there. The execution of this resolution, however, as might have been expected, occasioned fresh persecutions, and massacres. Brousson retired to Brismes, and afterwards to Geneva and Lausanne; whence he travelled through the different protestant states, soliciting their assistance and compassion to their suffering brethren in France. Returning to France, he ventured to preach at Cevennes and in several provinces; in consequence of which, he was apprehended at Lyon, in 1698, and being convicted of having preached in defiance of the edicts, was broke upon the wheel. He was a man of great eloquence and learning, and wrote many books in favour of the Calvinists: particularly, 1. The State of the reformed in France: 2. Letters to the Clergy in France: 3. Letters from the Protestants in France, to all other Protestants: and, 4. Remarks upon Melotte's translation of the New Testament. The States of Holland gave him a pension of 400 florins; and, upon his death, added 600 more, (making 1000 in all) as a pension to his widow.

BROUWER, Adrian, a famous Dutch painter, born in 1608, of poor parentage. Francis Hals, under whom he proved an inimitable artist, took him from begging in the streets. His subjects were copied from nature, but taken from low life; such as droll conversations, drunken brawls, bores at cards, or surgeons dressing the wounded. Brouwer was apprehended at Antwerp as a spy; where, being discovered by Rubens, he procured his liberty, took him home, clothed him, and endeavoured to acquaint the public with his merit; but the levity of his temper made him quit his benefactor; and he died in 1638, destroyed by a dissolute course of life, in his 30th year.

(1.) * **BROW**. *n. s.* [*brona*, Sax.] 1. The arch of hair over the eye.—

'Tis now the hour which all to rest allow,
And sleep sits heavy upon every *brow*.

Dryden.

The forehead.—

She could have run, and waddled about;

So we some antique hero's strength,
Learn by his lance's weight and length;
As these vast beams express the beast,
Whose shady *brows* alive they dress. *Waller.*

3. The general air of the countenance.—

Then call them to our presence, face to face,
And frowning *brow* to *brow*. *Shakespeare.*

Though all things foul would bear the *brows*
of grace,

Yet grace must still look so. *Shakespeare.*

4. The edge of any high place.—The earl, nothing dismayed, came forwards that day into a little village, called Stoke, and there encamped that night, upon the *brow* or hanging of a hill. *Bacon.*—On the *brow* of the hill, beyond that city, they were somewhat perplexed by espying the French ambassador, with the king's coach and others attending him. *Wotton.*—

Then with fire, and hostile arms,
Fearless assault; and, to the *brow* of heav'n
Pursuing, drive them out from God and bliss.

Milton.

(2.) **BROW**, or **EYE-BROWS**. See **ANATOMY**, § 567.

(3.) **BROW**, in geography, a place in Dumfriesshire, in the parish of Ruthwell, where there is a chalybeate spring, the water of which is beneficial in stomachic complaints. When mixed with brandy, it assumes the colour of ink.

* **To BROW**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To bound; to limit; to be at the edge of.—

Tending my flocks hard by i' th' hilly crofts,
That *brow* this bottom glade. *Milton.*

BROWALLIA, in botany, a genus of the angiospermia order, in the didynamia class of plants. There are two species: viz.

1. **BROWALLIA DEMISSA**, with a single flower upon each footstalk. The seeds were sent to Mr Miller from Panama. It usually grows about two feet high, and spreads out into lateral branches on every side of the stalk, garnished with oval leaves which are entire, and have short footstalks. Towards the end of the branches, the flowers are produced singly upon pretty long footstalks, arising from the wing of the leaf. These are of a light blue colour, sometimes inclining to a purple or red; and there are often 3 colours of flowers on the same plant. They flower in July, August, and September; and the seeds are ripe in 5 or 6 weeks after.

2. **BROWALLIA ELATA**, with one or many flowers on each footstalk, is a native of Peru. The stalk is twice the size of that of the first, and appears somewhat shrubby; the leaves upon the flower branches are smooth: the footstalks have some with one flower, others with 3, and others with 5, of a deep violet colour. As both species of browallia are annual plants, they must be raised from seeds, which are to be sown on a hot-bed; but they may be transplanted in June, into the borders of the flower garden; where, if the weather proves warm, they will flower and perfect seeds; but least these should fail, there should be a plant or two kept in the stove to secure seeds.

BROW-ANTLER, among sportsmen, the branch of a deer's horn next the tail.

Allen, Esq. owed to him, beside his review of Brown published by Lord Allen, Esq. in 1754, a notice to the public, and published with considerable success. This trade acquaintance, however he had represented at a received by the famous *Edinburgh Review*. The work was very fast of it having been in. Its design was, and selfish efforts marked the character of the efforts and several antagonists re neither diligent, though Dr Brown himself, a clergyman of mid and decent address. The testimony to the effect which duct of the nation, is, "When Marston at celebrated writer, he capita of Minorca, a Byng with a strong French fleet off the At this time there appeared *Edinburgh Review*, there was no less than London in the space of the author proves that entirely degenerated;—that its inhabitants and hardy as in former times had lost their courage, the fertility of the mind the following consequences, almost at one and the same time of France, and her colonies, and America." In the 10th volume of his additional remarks on the principles, and on their publication of this volume was, to review points formerly affirmed; not explained; to reply to play the consequences which in his principles. But upon's self-importance, which volume, broke out in the violence. The consequences himself to general censure; real excellence of his work. The poetical criticism,

whom he had needlessly abused, treated him with uncommon severity; and such a multitude of antagonists rose against him, that he seems to have been deeply impressed, when he retired for a while into the country. From the country, however, he wrote, in a series of letters to a noble friend, "An Explanatory Defence of the *Edinburgh Review* of the *Manners and Principles of the Times*," being an appendix to that work, occasioned by the clamours lately raised against it among certain ranks of men." Though Dr Brown thus distinguished himself as a political writer, he was advanced to no higher dignity in the church; only Dr Osbaldeston procured him the rectory of St Nicholas in Newcastle upon Tyne. In 1760, he published an *Additional Dialogue of the Dead, between Pericles and Aristides*; being a sequel to a dialogue of lord Lyttleton's between Pericles and Cato. One design of this additional dialogue was to vindicate the measures of Mr Pitt, against whose administration lord Lyttleton had thrown out some hints. Dr Brown's next publication was *The Cure of Scurvy*, a sacred ode, which was followed by "A Dissertation on the Rise, Union, and Power, the Progression, Separations, and Corruptions of Poetry and Music;" both in 1763. A number of tracts on this last piece were published; and the Doctor defended himself in a treatise entitled *Remarks on some Observations on Dr Brown's Dissertations on Poetry and Music*. In 1764 he published, in 8vo, "The History of the Rise and Progress of Poetry through its several Species," which is merely the substance of the Dissertation. The same year he published a volume of sermons, dedicated to his patron Bp. Osbaldeston. In the beginning of 1765, he published *Thoughts on Civil Liberty, Literature, and Education*. At the conclusion of this work the author prescribed a mode of education, upon which Dr Priestley made remarks at the end of his "Essay on the Course of a Liberal Education for Civil and Active Life." The same year he published a sermon *On the Female Character and Education*, preached 16th May 1765, before the guardians of the asylum for deserted female orphans. His last publication was in 1766, "A Letter to the rev. Dr Lowth, occasioned by his late Letter to the Right Rev. Author of the Divine Legation of Moses." This was occasioned by Dr Lowth's having *clearly*, though indirectly, pointed at Dr Brown as one of the extravagant salvators of bishop Warburton. Besides these works, Dr Brown published a poem on Liberty, and a or 3 anonymous pamphlets. At the end of several of his later writings, he advertised his design of publishing *Corrupta Principia of Legislation*, but was prevented from executing it, (though the work appears to have been completed,) by the circumstances now to be narrated. In 1765, while Dr Dumas was residing in Russia, to which he had been invited in 1764, to give his advice for the regulating of several schools, which the empress intended to erect, he received a letter from a lady of distinguished character in England, recommending Dr Brown as a proper correspondent on the occasion. Dr Dumas then wrote to Dr Brown, telling him the occasion of his application, and the difficulties that occurred. He had imagined that nothing

more would be wanted than what concerned classical learning, and a general foundation for the sciences. But on his arrival he found that a much more extensive scheme was required; and such as included matters military and naval, civil and commercial. Having stated his difficulties in executing this plan to Dr Brown, the latter proposed a scheme still more extensive; and which was no less than a general plan of civilization throughout the whole Russian empire. The Doctor's letter was laid before the empress, who was so pleased with it that she immediately invited him to Russia. He accepted the invitation, and procured the king's leave to go; 1000*l.* were ordered for his expence, and he actually received 200*l.* But when he was on the point of setting out, an attack of the gout and rheumatism, to which he had been long subject, so impaired his health, that his friends dissuaded him from going. The money was returned excepting 97*l.* 6*s.* which had been expended in necessaries for the intended journey. But though he thus declined the journey, a long letter which he afterwards wrote to the empress, and which does honour to his abilities, shows that he had not abandoned his intention of being serviceable. The affair, however, greatly agitated his mind; and his being obliged at length to give up the journey, must have been no small disappointment to a man of his sanguine temper. This disappointment, concurring with the general state of his health, was followed by a dejection of spirits; in consequence of which he put an end to his life on the 23d of Sept. 1766, in the 31st year of his age. On the morning of that day his servant came into his bed-chamber, and asked him what sort of night he had had? to which he replied, "A pretty good one." The servant having quitted the bedside for a few minutes, heard a noise in the Doctor's throat, which he imagined to be owing to some obstruction occasioned by phlegm. Going to assist his master, he found him speechless, and bleeding profusely, having cut the jugular vein with a razor; and this he had done so effectually, that death speedily ensued. Mrs Gilpin of Carlisle, soon after Dr Brown's decease, wrote in the following terms in a letter to a friend. "His distemper was a frenzy, to which he had by fits been long subject; to my own knowledge above 30 years. Had it not been for Mr Farish frequently, and once for myself, the same event would have happened to him long ago. It was no premeditated purpose in him; for he abhorred the thought of self murder; and in bitterness of soul expressed his fears to me, that one time or another some ready mischief might present itself to him, at a time when he was wholly deprived of his reason."

(7.) BROWN, John, M. D. author of the *BAUWONIAN OR NEW SYSTEM* of medicine, was born A. D. 1735, in the parish of Bonkle in Berwickshire, in a village near Dunfermline. His parents were people of honest characters, but far from being in affluence. His father dying, while he was young, and his mother's second husband being a weaver, it was intended to breed him to the same profession, but young Brown having already given evidence of uncommon genius, as well as intense application, while attending the grammar-school

of Dunfermline, under the celebrated Mr Cruickshanks, a lady in that neighbourhood took him under her patronage, and sent him to the University of Edinburgh to study divinity; being determined that such a prodigy of genius, as he was even then esteemed, should not be thrown away upon a mechanical employment. This lady as well as Mr Brown's parents being Seceders, it was resolved that his abilities should be exerted in favour of the principles of the secession, as soon as his studies were completed. The pious intentions however of this benevolent lady were frustrated by an incident, which Dr Beddoes relates at large, with suitable comments, in his observations, introductory to the last edit. of *Dr Brown's Elem. of Med.* (p. xlii—xlv.) The circumstance was simply this. He was summoned before the kirk session, for having heard sermon in the established church, and unwilling to submit to ecclesiastical censure, for this venial fault, he chose rather to leave his old friends, and join the establishment. As yet, however, his zeal for religion had not abated, and the deistical writings of Mr Hume making some noise about this time, he expressed no small indignation against them and their author; although not many years afterwards he became a complete convert to that fashionable and still too prevalent system. He never went farther in divinity, than delivering one probationary sermon in the hall of the University. He returned to Dunfermline in 1758, and acted for a year as usher or assistant to his late teacher; under whom he gave fresh evidences of his prodigious memory, as well as critical judgment in the Latin language. In the end of 1759, he settled in Edinburgh with the double view of teaching Latin and studying physic. He addressed a letter in Latin to each of the medical professors, all of whom, being apprized of his merits as a classical scholar, presented him with tickets of admission to their lectures gratis. But none of them seemed to entertain a higher opinion of his classical powers, than the late celebrated Dr Cullen, who not only employed him as a private instructor in his own family, but took every opportunity of recommending him to others, particularly to students, who wished to graduate, but were deficient of their knowledge of the learned languages. From such pupils Mr Brown received very genteel fees, not only for *grinding* them, as it is called, (i. e. for preparing them to give proper answers, in classical Latin, at the public examinations,) but also for translating their inaugural dissertations, and sometimes for composing them. His fame and his emoluments now increased so rapidly, that finding his income could enable him to maintain a family genteelly, he, in 1765, married Miss Lamond, a young lady descended from a respectable line of burghesses in Edinburgh, but without any fortune. Mrs Brown not long after taking up a boarding-house, her husband's high reputation soon crowded it with respectable boarders. But whether it was, that, from perhaps too genteel a spirit, economy was not sufficiently attended to, or that some of the students after running deep in arrears, went off without paying, or from these and other causes conjoined, it is certain, that little profit was ultimately made of this branch of business. One gentleman in particular

icular went off indebted to Mr Brown above £150, of which he never received a shilling, and many others owing him smaller sums. These losses obliged Mr Brown at last to stop payment about 1770. About this time, too, that warmth of attachment which had hitherto subsisted between him and Dr Cullen, and which was so great that he had named three of his children after the Dr and his family, began to cool. For this various reasons have been assigned; such as disappointment of a professor's chair in the university, and of a seat in a certain literary society, in both which cases, Dr Cullen's influence is said to have been exerted rather in opposition to, than in favour of Mr Brown's applications. Others ascribe the rupture to Mr Brown's discovery and promulgation of his new doctrine, (See BRUNONIAN SYSTEM,) which they alledge was the sole cause of Dr Cullen's opposition on these occasions. Be that as it may, it is certain, that Mr Brown's income was by no means increased by his discovery. It was not to be expected, indeed, that a set of learned gentlemen would be ready to acknowledge all the former theories of the science they professed to teach, to have been erroneous, and at once become converts to his new doctrine. Neither could it be expected, that they would advise their pupils to apply for instruction in the dead languages, or for the translation of their inaugural dissertations, to the author of a new *medical heresy*, to speak. Nor, indeed, did the disrespectful manner, in which Mr Brown now spoke of the medical professors, in the lectures which he gave on his new system, tend to conciliate their favour. Like other reformers, (as Dr Beddoes justly remarks, p. lxiii.) who had to wrestle with powerful opposition, he committed and sustained injustice. Like them too, where his system was concerned, he gradually lost his sense of equity." His classes were therefore never attended by very great numbers of students, nor were his patients by any means so numerous, as might have been expected, from the surprising cures he performed upon some individuals, who applied to him in desperate cases, where the ordinary practice had failed. No physician, however, or public lecturer, was ever more beloved by his patients and pupils than Brown. The gratitude of the former, for being delivered from the gates of death, or what is worse than death, *lunacy*, was inexpressible; and the attachment of the latter to his person, family, and doctrine, was beyond precedent. Of this they gave various instances. Their zeal for the doctrine, indeed, often carried them to the most imprudent lengths; of which Dr Jones has recorded, and Dr Beddoes quotes, an evidence, in the clandestine cure made, or attempted to be made, of a Mr Mackon. Of their attachment to his person, we shall give one instance out of many. In the session of 1779-80, a few of them, unknown to Brown, collected money among themselves, to pay the usual fees of a diploma from the university of St Andrews; (where his merits, both as a medical teacher and linguist, were too well known, to render any examination necessary,) and surprised him, upon presenting it to him, by thus making him a Doctor without his knowledge. Had not such a circumstance happened, it is highly proba-

ble he would have died without a degree, as he resembled the celebrated anatomist, Mr John Hunter, in this respect, as well as in some others; that he paid no great respect to universities. But to show that he was not insensible of the honour done him by his pupils, he took them over to St Andrews, and gave them and the professors a genteel treat; upon which occasion, while the glass and song were circulating freely after dinner, he wrote a short but elegant and comprehensive inaugural dissertation, which he presented to the professors, saying "it was improper to take a degree without writing a thesis." And while he was writing it, he gave a proof how little trouble the composition cost him, by correcting one of the songsters for singing an erroneous note in an old Scots song.—In the course of the year 1780, he published the first edition of his *Elementa Medicinæ*, in one vol. 8mo, dedicated to Sir John Eliot, M. D. and in 1782, he reprinted it, (but without any dedication,) in 2 vols 8vo, with considerable alterations and large additions. The Dr's affairs now hastened to a crisis. His income not being equal to his expenditure, he was obliged, in spring 1785, to take shelter from creditors in the abbey of Holyroodhouse: and, though a settlement was soon obtained with most of them, yet one more rigorous than the rest incarcerated him in the Canongate jail, in Jan. 1786. On both these occasions he was attended and sympathised with by his pupils; who, upon his coming out of jail, gave a new proof of their attachment, by proposing the plan of his clinical lectures, for which they took out fresh tickets. Dr Brown, in his greatest distress, had a spirit above making application to his monied friends. The late Lord Gardenstone, however, having heard of his distress, generously enabled him to execute the plan he had long had in contemplation, of settling in London, by presenting him with 260 guineas. The Dr accordingly went up in the end of 1786; after having published his *Observations on the New and Old Systems of Medicine*: And having performed some capital cures upon patients who were able to reward him liberally, he was enabled within 4 months after his arrival, to send for his wife and family. But his income being uncertain, and his family expences very great, he was incarcerated in King's Bench prison; though he was not long confined. In 1788, he published his *Elements of Medicine* in English, a work long wished for, as the original Latin is in many parts so elegant, or, as other alledge, so *obscure*, that it was thought nobody could do justice to the translation but himself, although Dr Beddoes has since ventured to correct the Dr's translation in his 2d edition. Dr Brown did not long survive this labour, which he executed in a shorter time than the most of ordinary amanuenses could have copied the work; and, contrary to his usual practice, without drinking any thing stronger than water with a very little wine in it. Whether he had exhausted his strength by this change of regimen, or whether, (as is more probable, upon the principles of his own system,) his usual dose of laudanum was rendered too great for the state of his excitement, (so much lowered by his late abstemiousness,) or the accumulated state of his excitability, (See BRUNON -

KN, § 4, and EXCITABILITY. it is difficult to say; but it is certain, that, after giving an introductory lecture on the 6th of Oct. 1788, and going to bed seemingly in ordinary health, he was found dead next morning. He was then in his 53d year. He left a widow and 8 children, 4 sons and 4 daughters, having had 13 in all. As to Dr Brown's character, we will not say, that he was without foibles, but his good properties, amongst those who were best acquainted with him, greatly overbalanced them. "He was," says a writer in the *Analytical Review*, "a man of infinite goodness of heart."—"He possessed a great mind, that supported him in all his distresses. He despised riches; detested every thing base, and possessed such openness of heart as to be liable to be taken in by every knave." The writer of this article can add, from personal knowledge, that he never knew a fonder parent, or a more affectionate husband. Lord Gardenstone comprehended much in few words, when he styled Dr Brown, "a man of primitive manners." Dr Brown was twice elected president of the Royal Medical Society in 1776 and 1780. He was also elected Latin Secretary to the society of Scots Antiquaries: and he was the founder of a Lodge of Free Masons, styled the *ROMAN EAGLE*, instituted in 1784, upon a new and original plan, never before attempted or thought of. His design was to conjoin instruction with amusement, by improving the brethren, (who at first were mostly students of physic,) in speaking Latin with ease and fluency; *that* being the only language spoken in the lodge, excepting by the interpreters, who explained what was said, when visitors came in. A funeral meeting of this lodge was held in honour of Dr Brown on the 30th Jan. 1789, with suitable music, and all the other solemnities usual on such occasions. An elegant funeral oration in Latin was delivered from the chair, by Thomas M'Grugar Esq; advocate, then master of the lodge; and an interpretation of it read by the secretary. A copy of the oration is preserved in the Scots Magazine. Dr Beddoes mentions, (p. xcix.) from Dr M'Donnel, that Dr Brown "designed a Latin elementary treatise of morality on philosophical principles—*Elementa Morum*."—"We may fairly presume, (he adds) that it would have been original, luminous, and profound"—and he concludes, "the failure of Brown's design may be regretted as an heavy loss to literature." From this conclusion we cannot help expressing our dissent. Much as we admire Dr Brown's abilities, we do not think the world stands in need of any new system of morals; especially from authors of his particular way of thinking. The morality of the present age has not improved since the publication of the *Ethics* of Messrs Hume, Voltaire, and Rousseau. Dr Brown used to alledge, that "a principle of morals was not yet discovered;" but he never committed a greater mistake. It was discovered nearly 1800 years ago, not by a great man—not even by a philosopher—but by one, who though born and educated in one of the lowest stations of life, proved himself, by *this* alone, (were there no other proofs of superior excellency,) superior to all the philosophers that ever existed. "Do to
as ye would that others should do to you,"

is an infallible rule of morality, applicable in all possible cases, and intelligible by the most ignorant.

(8.) BROWN, Isaac Hawkins, an ingenious English poet, born at Burton upon Trent, Jan. 21. 1705-6; of which place his father was the minister. He received his grammatical institution first at Lichfield, then at Westminster; whence, at 16 years of age, he was removed to Trinity college, Cambridge. He remained there till he had taken the degree of M. A. and about 1727, settled in Lincoln's Inn, where he devoted more of his time to the muses than to the law. He wrote several poems, particularly one on *Design and Beauty*, which he addressed to Mr Highmore the painter, for whom he had a great friendship; and *The Poet of Tobacco*; in imitation of Cibber, Ambrose Philips, Thomson, Young, Pope, and Swift, who were then all living. This is reckoned one of the most pleasing and popular of his performances. In 1743-4, he married the daughter of Dr Trimmell, archdeacon of Leicester. He was chosen twice to serve in parliament, in 1744, and 1748; both times for the borough of Wenlock in Shropshire, near which place he had a considerable estate, left by his maternal grandfather, Isaac Hawkins, Esq. In 1754, he published what was deemed his capital work, *De Animi Immortalitate*, in two books; in which, besides a most judicious choice of matter and arrangement, he is thought to have shown himself not a servile but happy imitator of Lucretius and Virgil. The great popularity of this poem produced several English translations of it; the best of which is that by Soame Jenyns, Esq. printed in his *Miscellaneous*. Mr Brown intended to have added a 3d part, but left only a fragment. This excellent person died, after a lingering illness, in 1760, aged 55. In 1768, his son Hawkins Brown, Esq. obliged the world with an elegant edition of his father's poem, in large 8vo, to which is prefixed a print of the author, from a painting of Mr Highmore, engraved by Ravenet.

(9.) BROWN, Robert, a schismatic divine, the founder of the BROWNISTS, a numerous sect in the reign of Q. Elizabeth. He was the son of Mr Anthony Brown of Tolthorp in Rutlandshire, whose father obtained the singular privilege of wearing his cap in the king's presence, by a charter of Henry VIII. Robert was educated at Cambridge, and was afterwards schoolmaster in Southwark. About 1580, he began to promulgate his principles of dissent from the established church; and the following year preached at Norwich, where he soon accumulated a numerous congregation. He was violent in his abuse of the church of England; pretended to divine inspiration, and that he alone was the sure guide to heaven. His sect daily increasing, Dr Freake bishop of Norwich, with other ecclesiastical commissioners, called him before them. He was insolent to the court; and they committed him to the custody of the sheriff's officer; but he was released at the intercession of lord treasurer Buleigh, to whom he was related. Brown then left the kingdom; and, with permission of the states, settled at Middleburg in Zealand; where he formed a church after his own plan, and preached without molestation. In 1585, we find him again in England; Cambridge.

for in that year he was cited to appear before Abp. Whitgift; and seeming to comply with the established church, was, by lord Burleigh, sent home to his father: but, relapsing into his former principles, his aged parent was obliged to turn him out of his house. He now wandered about for some time, and endured great hardships. At last he fixed at Northampton; where, labouring with too much indiscretion to increase his evil, he was cited by the bishop of Peterborough, and, refusing to appear, was excommunicated or contempt. The solemnity of this censure effected his reformation. He moved for absolution, which he obtained, and from that time became a dutiful member of the church of England. This happened about 1590; and, in a short time after, Brown was preferred to a rectory in Northamptonshire, where he kept a curate to do his duty, and where he might probably have died in peace: but having some dispute with the constable of his parish, he proceeded to blows; and was afterwards so insolent to the justice, that he committed him to Northampton jail, where he died in 1730, aged 80. Thus ended the life of the famous Robert Brown; the greatest part of which was a series of opposition and persecution. He boasted on his death-bed, that he had been confined in no less than 32 different prisons. He wrote "A treatise of reformation without tarrying for any, and of the wickedness of those teachers which will not reform themselves and their charge, &c. by me Robert Brown;" and two others, making together a thin 4to, published at Middleburg, in 1582.

(10.) BROWN, Simon, a dissenting minister, of uncommon talents and singular misfortunes, born at Shepton-Mallet in Somersetshire, in 1680. Excelling in grammatical learning, he early became qualified for the ministry, and actually began to preach before he was 20. He was first called to be a pastor at Portsmouth, and afterwards removed to the Old Jewry, where he was admired for a number of years. But the death of his wife and only son, in 1723, affected him so as to deprive him of his reason; and he became from that time lost to himself, to his family, and to the world. His congregation at the Old Jewry, in expectation of his recovery, delayed for some time to fill his post; but at length all hopes being over, Mr Chandler was appointed to succeed him in 1725. This double misfortune affected him at first in a manner little different from distraction, but afterwards sunk him into a settled melancholy. He quitted the duties of his function, and would not be persuaded to join in any act of worship, public or private. Being urged by his friends for a reason of this extraordinary change, at which they expressed the utmost astonishment, he told them that "he had fallen under the sensible displeasure of God, who had caused his rational soul gradually to perish, and left him only an animal life in common with brutes: that, though he retained the human shape, and the faculty of speaking in a manner that appeared to others rational, he had all the while no more notion of what he said than a parrot; that it was therefore profane in him to pray, and incongruous to be present at the prayers of others;" and very consistently with

this, he considered himself no longer as a moral agent, or subject of either reward or punishment. In this way of thinking and talking he unalterably and obstinately persisted to the end of his life; though he afterwards suffered, and even requested, prayers to be made for him. Some time after he retired to Shepton-Mallet, and though in his retirement he was perpetually contending, that his powers of reason and imagination were gone, yet he was as constantly exerting both with much activity and vigour. He amused himself sometimes with translating parts of the ancient Greek and Latin poets into English verse: he composed little pieces for the use of children; An English Grammar and Spelling Book; An Abstract of the Scripture History, and A Collection of Fables, both in metre; and with much learning he brought together into a short compass all the *Themata* of the Greek and Latin tongues, and also compiled a Dictionary to each of those works, to render the learning of these languages more easy and compendious. Of these performances none have been made public. But what showed the strength and vigour of his understanding, while he was bemoaning the loss of it, were two works composed during the two last years of his life, in defence of Christianity, against Woolston and Tindal.—He wrote an answer to Woolston's fifth Discourse on the Miracles of our Saviour, intitled, *A fit rebuke for a ludicrous Infidel*, with a preface concerning the prosecution of such writers by the civil power. The preface contains a vigorous plea for liberty, and is strongly against prosecutions in matters of religion; and in the Answer, Woolston is as well managed as he was by any of his refuters, and more in his own way too. His book against Tindal was called *A Defence of the Religion of Nature and the Christian Revelation*, against the defective account of the one and the exceptions against the other, in a book intitled, *Christianity as old as the Creation*; and it is allowed to be as good a one as that controversy produced.—He intended to dedicate it to Queen Caroline; but as the unhappy state of his mind appeared in the dedication, his friends suppressed it. The following is a copy which was preserved as a curiosity. "Madam, Of all the extraordinary things that have been rendered to your royal hands since your first happy arrival in Britain, it may be boldly said what now bespeaks your majesty's acceptance is the chief. Not in itself indeed; it is a trifle unworthy your exalted rank, and what will hardly prove an entertaining amusement to one of your majesty's deep penetration, exact judgment, and fine taste; but on account of the author, who is the first being of the kind, and yet without a name. He was once a man, and of some little name; but of no worth, as his present unparalleled case makes but too manifest: for by the immediate hand of an avenging God, his very thinking substance has for more than 7 years been continually wasting away, till it is wholly perished out of him, if it be not utterly come to nothing. None, no, not the least remembrance of its very ruins remains; not the shadow of an idea is left; nor any sense, so much as one single one, perfect or imperfect, whole or diminished, ever did appear to a mind within him, or was perceived by it. Such a pre-

sent

sent from such a thing, however worthless in itself, may not be wholly unacceptable to your majesty, the author being such as history cannot parallel; and if the fact, which is real, and no fiction or wrong conceit, obtains credit, it must be recorded as the most memorable, and indeed astonishing, even in the reign of George II. that a tract, composed by such a thing, was presented to the illustrious Caroline; his royal consort needs not be added; fame, if I am not misinformed, will tell that with pleasure to all succeeding times. He has been informed, that your majesty's piety is as genuine and eminent as your excellent qualities are great and conspicuous. This can indeed be truly known to the great Searcher of hearts only. He alone, who can look into them, can discern if they are sincere, and the main intention corresponds with the appearance; and your majesty cannot take it amiss if such an author hints, that his secret approbation is of infinitely greater value than the commendation of men, who may be easily mistaken, and are too apt to flatter their superiors.—But, if he has been told the truth, such a case as his will certainly strike your majesty with astonishment; and may raise that commiseration in your royal breast, which he has in vain endeavoured to excite in those of his friends: who, by the most unreasonable and ill-founded conceit in the world, have imagined, that a thinking being could for seven years together live a stranger to its own powers, exercises, operations, and state; and so what the great God has been doing in it and to it. If your majesty, in your most retired address to the King of kings, should think of so singular a case, you may perhaps make it your devout request, that the reign of your beloved sovereign and consort be renowned to all posterity by the recovery of a soul now in the utmost ruin, the restoration of one utterly lost, at present amongst men. And should this case affect your royal breast, you will recommend it to the piety and prayers of all the truly devout who have the honour to be known to your majesty: many such doubtless there are, though courts are not usually the places where the devout resort, or where devotion reigns. And it is not improbable, that multitudes of the pious throughout the land may take a case to heart, that under your majesty's patronage comes thus recommended. Could such a favour as this restoration be obtained from heaven by the prayers of your majesty, with what transport of gratitude would the recovered being throw himself at your majesty's feet, and, adoring the divine power and grace, profess himself, Madam, your majesty's most obliged and dutiful servant, SIMON BROWN."—The above pieces were published by Dr W. Harris, who, in an advertisement to the reader, recommends the afflicted case of the author, under a deep and peculiar melancholy, to the compassion and prayers of all his friends, and every serious Christian. Mr Brown survived the publication of this last work a very short time. A complication of distempers, contracted by his sedentary life, (for he could not be prevailed on to take air and exercise) brought on a mortification, which put a period to his labours and for-

about the end of 1732. He was unquestion-

an of uncommon abilities and learning:

his management of Woolston showed him to have also vivacity and wit: and, notwithstanding that strange conceit which possessed him, it is remarkable that he never appeared feeble or absurd, except upon the subject of his frenzy. Before he was ill, he published some single Sermons, with a Collection of Hymns and Spiritual Songs. He left several daughters.

(11.) BROWN, Sir Thomas, an eminent physician and author, was born at London, Oct. 19th 1603. Having studied at Winchester and Oxford, he travelled through France and Italy; and returning by Holland, took his degree of M. D. at Leyden. In 1626, he settled at Norwich: and in 1637 was incorporated as M. D. at Oxford.—His *Religio Medici* made a great noise; and being translated into Latin, instantly spread throughout Europe, and gained him a prodigious reputation; it was then translated into almost every language in Europe. This book has been censured by some, as tending to infidelity, and even atheism; while others, with more reason, have applauded the piety, as well as the parts and learning, of the author. The rev. Mr Granger observes, that among other peculiarities in this book, he speaks of the ultimate act of love as a folly beneath a philosopher; and says that he could be content that we might procreate, like trees, without conjunction: but, after this, he descended from his philosophic dignity, and married an agreeable woman. His *Treatise on Vulgar Errors* was read with avidity; he also published *Hydriotaphia*, or a Discourse of Sepulchral Urns lately found in Norfolk. His reputation in his profession was equal to his fame for learning; and therefore the college of physicians elected him an honorary member; and king Charles II. coming to Norwich in 1677 knighted him, with singular marks of favour. He died on his birth day, in 1682, leaving several MSS. behind him, which were published, as the *posthumous works of the learned Sir Thomas Brown, Knt. M. D.*

(12.) BROWN, Sir William, a noted physician and multifarious writer, was settled originally at Lynn in Norfolk, where he published a translation of Dr Gregory's Elements of Catoptrics and Dioptrics; to which he added, 1. A Method for finding the Foci of all Specula, as well as Lenses, universally; as also magnifying or lessening a given Object by a given Speculum or Lens, in any assigned Proportion. 2. A Solution of those Problems which Dr Gregory has left undemonstrated. 3. A particular Account of Microscopes and Telescopes, from Mr Huygens; with the Discoveries made by Catoptrics and Dioptrics.—Having acquired a competence by his profession, he removed to Queen's Square, Ormond Street, London, where he resided till his death. By his lady, who died in 1763, he had one daughter, grandmother to Sir Martin Brown Folkes, bart. He wrote a great number of lively essays, in prose and verse, which he printed and circulated among his friends. The active part taken by Sir William Brown in the contest with the licentiates, in 1768, occasioned his being introduced by Mr Foote in his *Devil upon Two Sticks*. Upon Foote's exact representation of him with his identical wig and coat, tall figure, and glass stiffly applied to his

5e, he sent him a card complimenting him on having so happily represented him; but as he had forgot his muff, he had sent him his own. This good-natured method of resenting disarmed Foote. He used to frequent the annual ball at the ladies boarding-school, Queen's Square, as a neighbour, and of the company of sprightly young folks. A signatory of the church being there one day to see a daughter dance, and finding this upright figure stationed there, told him he believed he was Herippus *redivivus*, who lived *anbelitu puellarum*. When he lived at Lynn, a pamphlet was written against him: he nailed it up against his own door. He died in 1774, aged 82; and by his will left 50 prize medals to be annually contended for by the Cambridge poets.

(13.) BROWN, Thomas, "of facetious memory," as he is styled by Addison, was the son of a farmer in Shropshire; and entered in Christ-church college, Oxford, where he soon distinguished himself by his uncommon attainments in literature.—but the irregularities of his life not suffering him to continue long there, he, instead of returning to his father, went to London to seek his fortune. His companions, however, being more delighted with his humour, than ready to relieve his necessities he had recourse to the usual refuge of half-starved wits, scribbling for bread; and published a great variety of poems, letters, dialogues, &c. full of humour and erudition, but often indelicate. Though a good-natured man, he had one pernicious quality, which was, rather to lose his friend than his joke. Towards the end of Tom Brown's life, he was in favour with the earl of Dorset, who invited him to dinner on a Christmas day, with Mr Dryden, and some other gentlemen celebrated for their ingenuity; when Mr Brown, to his incredible surprise found a bank note of 50 l. under his plate, and Mr Dryden, at the same time, was presented with another of 100 l. Mr Brown died in 1704; and was interred in the cloyster of Westminster abbey, near the remains of Mrs Behn, with whom he was intimate. His works, consisting of Dialogues, Essays, Satires, &c. have been printed both in 8vo and 12mo, making 4 vols.

(14.) BROWN, Ulysses Maximilian, a celebrated general of the 18th century, was son of Ulysses, Aaron Brown and Camus, colonel of a regiment of cuirassiers in the emperor's service, and descended from one of the most ancient families in Ireland. He was born at Bazil in 1705; and having finished his first studies at Limerick in Ireland, was, in 1715, sent for into Hungary, by count George Brown, his uncle, colonel of a regiment of infantry. He was present at the famous battle of Belgrade, in 1717. Next year he followed his uncle into Italy, who made him continue his studies in the Clementine College at Rome, till 1721, when he was sent to Prague to learn the civil law. At the end of 1723, he became captain in his uncle's regiment; and in 1725, lieutenant-colonel. In 1730, he went into Corsica with a battalion of his regiment; and contributed greatly to the taking of Calanara, where he received a considerable wound in his thigh. In 1732, the emperor made him chamberlain. He was raised to the rank of colonel in 1734; and distinguished himself so much in the war of Italy, especially at the battles of Pa-

ma and Guastalla, and in burning, in the presence of the French army, the bridge which the marshal de Noailles had caused to be thrown over the Adige, that he was made general in 1736. In 1737, he favoured the retreat of the army, after the unhappy battle of Banjuluca in Bosnia, by an excellent manœuvre, and saved all the baggage. His admirable conduct upon this occasion was rewarded by his obtaining a second regiment of infantry. At his return to Vienna, in 1739, the emperor Charles VI. raised him to the rank of general field-marshal-lieutenant, and made him counsellor in the aulic council of war. After the death of that prince, the king of Prussia entering Silesia, count Brown with a small body of troops, disputed the country with him inch by inch. He signalized himself on several other occasions; and, in 1743, the queen of Hungary made him a privy counsellor, at her coronation in Bohemia. He at length passed into Bavaria, where he commanded the van-guard of the Austrian army; seized Deckendorf, with a great quantity of baggage; and obliged the French to abandon the banks of the Danube, which the Austrian army passed in full security. The same year, the queen of Hungary sent him to Worms, as her plenipotentiary to the queen of Britain; where he put the last hand to the treaty of alliance between the courts of Vienna, London, and Turin. In 1744, he followed prince Lobkowitz into Italy; took Veletri, in spite of the superior numbers of the enemy, overthrew several regiments, and took many prisoners. The following year he was recalled into Bavaria, where he took Wilshofen by assault, and received a dangerous shot in the thigh. The same year he was made general of the artillery; and in Jan. 1746, marched for Italy at the head of a body of 18,000 men. He then drove the Spaniards out of the Milanese; and having joined the forces under prince de Lichtenstein, commanded the left wing of the Austrian army at the battle of Placentia on the 15th of June, 1746, and defeated the right wing of the enemy's forces commanded by Marshal de Maillebois. After this victory he commanded in chief the army against the Genoese: seized the pass of Bochetta, though defended by above 4000 men; and took the city of Genoa. Count Brown at length joined the king of Sardinia's troops; and took, in conjunction with him, Mont-Alban, and the county of Nice. On the 30th Novem. he passed the Var; entered Provence; took the isles of St Margaret and St Honorat; and thought to have rendered himself master of a much greater part of Provence, when the revolution which happened in Genoa, and Marshal de Belleisle's advancing with his army, obliged him to make that fine retreat which procured him the admiration of all persons skilled in war. He employed the rest of the year 1747 in defending the Austrian states in Italy; and after the peace of 1748, he was sent to Nice to regulate there, in conjunction with the duke of Belleisle and the marquis de la Minas, the differences that had arisen with respect to the execution of some of the articles of the definitive treaty of Aix la Chapelle. The empress queen, to reward these signal services, made him governor of Transylvania, where he rendered himself generally admired for

for his probity and disinterestedness. In 1752, he obtained the government of the city of Prague, with the chief command of the troops in that kingdom; in 1753, the king of Poland, elector of Saxony, honoured him with the collar of the order of the white eagle; and in 1754 he was declared field-marshal. The king of Prussia entering Saxony in 1756, and attacking Bohemia, count Brown repulsed him at the battle of Lobositz, 1st Oct. though he had only 27,000 men, and the king of Prussia had at least 40,000. Seven days after this battle, he undertook the famous march into Saxony, to deliver the Saxon troops shut up between Pirna and Konigstein; an action worthy of the greatest captains, ancient or modern. He at length obliged the Prussians to retire from Bohemia; for which he was made a knight of the golden fleece. Soon after, he hastily assembled an army in Bohemia, to oppose the king of Prussia, who had again penetrated into that kingdom at the head of all his forces; and on the 6th of May fought the famous battle of Prague; in which, while he was employed in giving orders for maintaining the advantages he had gained over the Prussians, he was so dangerously wounded, that he was obliged to be carried to Prague, where he died on the 26th June, 1757, aged 52.

(15.) BROWN, William, an English poet of the 17th century, born at Tavistock in 1590. He was sent to Exeter college, Oxford, in the beginning of the reign of James I. and became tutor to Robert Dormer, afterwards earl of Carnarvon, who was killed at Newbury battle, Septem. 20, 1643. He is styled in the public register of the university, *vir omni humane literatura et bonarum artium cognitione instructus*; a man well skilled in all kinds of polite literature and useful arts. After he had left the college with his pupil, he was taken into the family of William earl of Pembroke, who had a great respect for him; and he made his fortune so well, that he purchased an estate. His poetical works procured him great reputation. They are, 1. Britannia's pastorals. The first part was published at London, 1616, in folio; and ushered into the world with verses by his friends John Selden, Michael Drayton, Christopher Cook, &c. The second part was printed at London in 1616, and recommended by verses written by John Glanville, (afterwards eminent in the law) and others. 2. The shepherd's pipe, in seven eclogues; Lond. 1614, in 8vo. 3. An elegy on the never enough bewailed death of prince Henry, eldest son of K. James I.

(16.) BROWN, LOCH. See LOCH-BROWN.

(17.) BROWN, SPANISH. See § 2.

BROWNÆA. See BROWNEA.

* BROWNBILL. *n. f.* [from *brown* and *bill*.] The ancient weapon of the English foot; why it is called *brown*, I have not discovered; but we now say *brown musket* from it.—

And *brownbills*, levied in the city,

Made bills to pass the grand committee. *Hudib.*

BROWN-CANDOVER, a town in Hampshire.

(1.) BROWNE, George, archbishop of Dublin, and the first prelate who embraced the doctrines of the reformation in Ireland, was originally an Austin friar of London, and was educated near

Widelywell, Oxford. He afterwards became pro-

D. D. abroad, was admitted to the same at Oxford and Cambridge, in 1534. After reading Luther's writings, he began to teach the people to pray, not to the Virgin Mary, or the Saints, but to Christ. This recommended him to Henry VIII, who, in 1535, promoted him to be archbishop of Dublin, and nominated him one of the commissioners for abolishing the papal supremacy in Ireland. In 1551, K. Edward VI. gave him the additional honour of primate of all Ireland: but in 1554 he was deposed by Q. Mary, on pretence of his being married, though in reality, on account of his zeal for the reformation. He published a work against keeping the Scriptures in the Latin tongue, and against the worship of images. He died in 1556.

(2.) BROWNE, Peter, a native of Ireland, provost of Trinity college, Dublin, and afterwards bishop of Cork. He distinguished himself by his writings; particularly, 1. A refutation of Toland's Christianity not mysterious;—a work that was the foundation of his preferment; which occasioned him to say to Toland himself, that it was he who made him bishop of Cork: 2. The progress, extent, and limits of the human understanding: 3. Sermons; and, 4. An essay, in 1800, against the custom of drinking to the memory of the dead.

(3—5.) BROWNE, Simon, Sir Thomas, Sir William, &c. See BROWN, N° 10—12, &c.

BROWNEA, or } in botany, a genus of the
BROWNIA, } endecandria order, in the
monadelphia class of plants. The calyx is bided, the corolla double, the exterior quinquefid, and the interior pentapetalous. There is but one species; viz.

BROWNIA COCCINEA, a native of the W. Indies.

* BROWNISH. *adj.* [from *brown*.] Somewhat brown.—A *brownish* grey iron-stone, lying in strata, is poor, but runs freely. *Woodward.*

BROWNISM, the doctrine of the Brownists. See next article.

BROWNISTS, a religious sect, which sprang out of the Puritans, towards the close of the 16th century: so named from their leader, Robert Brown. See BROWN, N° 9. They were also called BARROWISTS, from another of their preachers. To avoid the persecutions of the English bishops, Brown, with his congregation, left the kingdom, and settled at Middleburgh in Zealand; where they obtained leave of the states to worship God in their own way, and form a church according to their own model; which they had not long done before they began to differ among themselves, and divide into so many parties, that Brown their pastor grew weary of his office; and returned to England in 1589. This was attended with the dissolution of the church at Middleburgh; but the seeds of Brownism, sown in England, were so far from being rooted out, that Sir Walter Raleigh, in a speech, in 1592, computes no less than 20,000 Brownists. The occasion of their separation was not any fault they found with the faith, but only with the discipline and form of government of the churches in England. They equally charged corruption on the episcopal and presbyterian forms; nor would they join with any other reformed church, because they were not assured of the sanctity and regeneration of the members that

"I
 d
 of
 the
 con
 ch
 any
 ord
 e fu
 gedi
 and
 is or
 praye
 gave
 was to
 here c
 regim
 k hope
 e powe
 nith thi
 e the b
 nether il
 word,
 I to thei
 dmpatitk

. they did not know
 and order. As the
 de a man a minister,
 reach and administer
 to the same power
 as officer, and reduce
 And as they main-
 arch to be no greater
 than in one place and
 the power of these of-
 fers the same limits. The
 arch could not admi-
 n. another, nor baptize
 of his own society.
 red the liberty of giving
 the people; and it was
 for sermons, to ask ques-
 tions, doctrines that had been
 very church on their mo-
 having full power to do
 od of the society require,
 ble to any class, spread
 addition whatever. Most
 een adopted by the Inde-
 afterwards arose from a
 The laws were executed
 the Brownists, their books
 queen Elizabeth, and their
 d many of them were hange-
 commission and the flane-
 ment to such a degree, that
 their country. Accordingly,
 and settled at Amsterdam
 church, and chose Mr John
 after him Mr Amisworth,
 d commentary on the Penta-
 th flourished near 100 years.

district situated between Ha-
 consisting of land, which, till
 th 31. a year, as it produced
 L.

a flourishing port town of PENNSYLVANIA. It is
 situated in Fayette county, on the S. E. bank
 of Monongahela river, between Dunlop and Red
 dune creeks, over the former a bridge has been e-
 rected, which connects Bridge-port, a small vil-
 lage on the opposite side of the creek, with Brown-
 ville. It is 160 feet long, and 14 broad, and 31
 feet in height. The town is laid out in regular
 streets crossing each other at right angles. It con-
 tains about 100 houses, 11 stores, with a pretty
 general assortment of goods, an Episcopalian and
 a Roman Catholic church; and within a few miles
 of the town are four quaker meeting-houses. Up-
 wards of a hundred boats are built here annually
 for trade and emigration to Kentucky; averaging
 about 20 tons each; 14 galls. saw, oil, and pulping
 mills, are within less than 2 miles of the town.
 A brewery and a distillery have been established
 in it; and next to Pittsburg, it is the most con-
 siderable town of the western part of Pennsylvania.
 It is 33 miles S. by E. of Pittsburg, 12 N. W. of
 Union; 25 S. E. by E. of Washington, and 320
 W. of Philadelphia. *Lat.* 41. 44. *W. Lat.* 39.
 58. N.

BROWNNEWELL, near Finchley, Middlesex.
 BROWNWORT, the English name of two
 different genera of plants. See FRUNELLA and
 SCROTULARIA.

BROWNY, a servicable kind of spirit, who
 according to a superstitious notion formerly pre-
 valent in the Hebrides and Highlands of Scotland
 (as well as among the country people in England,
 where he had the name of *Robin Good-fellow*), was
 wont to clean the houses, help to churn, thresh
 the corn, and belabour all that pretended to make
 a jest of him. He was represented as stout and
 blooming, had fine long flowing hair, and went
 about with a wand in his hand. He was the very
 counter part of Milton's *Lilith*.

BROW-POST, among builders, denotes a
 beam which goes across a building.

G g g (A.) BROWIE.

(1.) * **BROWSE**. *n. s.* [from the verb.] Branches, or shrubs, fit for the food of goats, or other animals.

The greedy lions the wolf pursues,
The wolf the kid, the wanton kid the *browse*.

Dryden.

On that cloud-piercing hill,
Plinlimmon, from afar the traveller kens,
Astonish'd, how the goats their shrubby *browse*
Gnaw pendent. *Philips.*

(2.) **BROWSE** more properly denotes the food which deer find in young copses, continually sprouting anew.

(1.) * **To BROWSE**. *v. a.* [*brouser*, Fr.] To eat branches, or shrubs.—

And being down, is trod in the dirt.
Of cattle, and *browsed*, and sorely hurt. *Spens.*

Thy palate then did deign
The roughest berry on the rudest hedge :
Yea, like the stag, when snow the pasture sheets,
The barks of trees thou *browsedst*. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) * **To BROWSE**. *v. n.* To feed : it is used with the particle *on*.—They have scared away two of my best sheep ; if any where I have them, 'tis by the sea-side, *browsing on* ivy. *Shakespeare.*—

A goat, hard pressed, took sanctuary in a vineyard ; so soon as he thought the danger was over, he fell presently a *browsing upon* the leaves. *L'Estr.*

Could eat the tender plant, and, by degrees,
Browse on the shrubs, and crop the budding trees. *Blackmore.*

—The Greeks were the descendants of savages, ignorant of agriculture, and *browsing on* herbage, like cattle. *Arbutnot.*

BROWSEWOOD, *n. s.* Brushwood.

* **BROWSICK**. *adj.* [from *brow* and *sick*.] Dejected ; hanging the head.—

But yet a gracious influence from you,
May alter nature in our *browsick* crew. *Suckl.*

BROWTING, [*brouter*,] among the French gardeners, signifies, breaking off the tips of the slender branches of trees, when too long, in proportion to their strength.

BROXAM, a town in Kent, 5 m. W. of Penhurst.

BROXBOROUGH, and 2 in Hertfordsh. near **BROXBOURNBURY**, 5 Hoddesdon.

(1.) **BROXBURN**, a rivulet in Linlithgow.

(2.) **BROXBURN**, a village in the parish of Uphall, seated on the rivulet, No. 1. It is on the increase, the ground being let out for building, in leases of 99 years, at 3s. 4d. per acre. It has a fair in August.

BROXEY, in Yorksh. N. of Pickering.

BROXHOLM, 4 m. N. W. of Lincoln.

BROXMOUTH, a seat of the Duke of Roxburgh, in E. Lothian, on the mouth of Broxburn, near Dunbar.

BROXTED, in Essex, 4 m. S. of Thaxted.

BROXTON, 2 villages, viz. 1. in Cheshire, S. of Beeston-Castle : 2. in Hamph. 4 m. E. of Alton.

BROXTOW, N. W. of Nottingham.

BROXWOOD, in Herefordshire, 3 m. E. of Kington.

BROYLE, 3 m. S. E. of Lewes, Sussex.

BROYOCK, INCH. See INCH-BRAYOCK.

BRU, a safe harbour on the coast of Argyllsh.

BRUARIA TURBARIA. See TURBARY.

BRUCE, James, Esq. of Kinnaird, F. R. S.

and the most intrepid traveller of the present or most any age, was born at Kinnaird, in Stirlingshire, Dec. 14, 1728. It is almost superfluous to mention his noble ancestors ; that by his father Dav. Bruce of Kinnaird, he was lineally descended from Robert Bruce E. of Carrick, (N. 3.) competitor with Baliol, and grandfather to king Robert I. ; as well as from the public spirited Robert Bruce of Kinnaird, (No. 5.) who was banished for his attachment to civil and religious liberty ; and by his mother, Miss Graham of Airth, from the late Marquis of Montrose, who was beheaded for his attachment to royalty. The personal merits of Mr Bruce are much superior to all that can be derived from the most glorious ancestry. He has done honour to himself and his country by accomplishing, what the most celebrated conquerors of antiquity repeatedly attempted without success. By discovering the source of the Nile, he has acquired a degree of fame which was sought for in vain, by Sesostris, king of Egypt, Cambyses, king of Persia, Alexander the Great, two of the Ptolemies, and Julius Cæsar. Mr Bruce was instructed in classical learning at Harrow on the hill in Middlesex. Returning to Scotland, he intended to study the law, but from the barbarity of his stepmother, (a daughter of the late Gen. Glen,) he resolved to push his fortune in the Indies. But not procuring an appointment in the Company's service, he engaged in partnership with Mr Allen, merchant, London, whose daughter he married, but lost within a year after. To dispel grief he travelled, but his father dying in 1758, he returned to Britain to take possession of the inheritance of his ancestors. About this time Lord Chatham intended to employ Mr Bruce upon a particular service, but his resignation soon after put it out of his power. Similar intentions were entertained by Lord Egremont, but by Lordship's death prevented the fulfilment. It fell to the lot of the Earl of Halifax to do more than fulfil the intentions of his predecessors, by pointing out a scene of action to Mr Bruce, where his abilities have since been exerted with so much honour to himself and his country. To explore the coast of Barbary ; to investigate its natural history, ancient architecture, and other curiosities hitherto little known, or illustrated by former travellers ; and to make large additions to the royal collection, were the outlines of his Lordship's plan. To discover the source of the Nile was also mentioned, but rather as an object to be wished than hoped for, from so young a traveller. The resignation of the consul of Algiers at the time, and the death of his newly appointed successor, favoured the Earl's plan ; who pressed Mr Bruce to accept of the consulship ; which he did the more cheerfully, that the transit of Venice was at hand, which he hoped to see from his own house at Algiers. Within a year after his arrival there, he qualified himself by the acquisition of the Arabic, to appear without an interpreter. An anecdote related of Mr Bruce during his consulship to Algiers, deserves to be mentioned as an early instance of that daring intrepidity, fully manifested afterward in his Abyssinian journey. At one of his first audiences of the Deft Mr Bruce went to court with a sword ; the effect

waiting at the palace, intimated that no person could go into the presence of the Dey armed, and therefore it was necessary to lay aside his sword; Mr Bruce, not deigning to make any reply, knocked the officer down with a violent blow, and marched into the audience chamber without waiting any introduction. "It was beneath the dignity, he said, of a servant of the British Monarch, to submit to any humiliating ceremony before an African Chief." At Algiers, Mr Bruce was detained longer than he expected, in consequence of a dispute with the Dey concerning Mediterranean passages. The business being adjusted, he proceeded to Mahon, and from Mahon to Carthage. He afterwards visited Tunis and Tripoli, and travelled over the interior parts of these states. At Benazai, a small town on the Mediterranean, he suffered shipwreck, and with extreme difficulty saved his life, though with the loss of all his baggage. He afterwards sailed to the Isles of Rhodes and Cyprus, and proceeding to Asia Minor, travelled through a considerable part of Syria and Palestine, visiting Haffia, Latikea, Aleppo, and Tripoli, near which last city he was again in imminent danger of perishing in a river. The ruins of Almyra and Baalbec, were next carefully surveyed and sketched by him; and his drawings of these places, are deposited in the king's library at Lew; the most magnificent present, in that line, of his own words, "ever made by a subject to his sovereign." It is much to be regretted, that Mr Bruce published no particular account of these various journies; from the nature of the places visited, and the abilities of the man, much various and useful information might have been expected. Some MS. accounts of different parts of them are said to have been left by him, but whether in such a state as to be fit for publication is very uncertain. In these various travels some years were passed; and Mr Bruce now prepared for the grand expedition, the accomplishment of which had ever been nearest his heart, the discovery of the source of the Nile. In the prosecution of that great and dangerous object, he left Sicily on the 15th of June 1768, and arrived at Alexandria on the 20th of that month. He proceeded from thence to Cairo, where he continued till the 11th Dec. when he embarked on the Nile, and sailed up that river as far as Seyne, visiting the course of his voyage, the ruins of Thebes. Leaving Kenne on the Nile, 16th Feb. 1769, he crossed the desert of the Thebaid to Cosseir on the Red Sea, and arrived at Jidda on the 3d of May. In Arabia Felix, he remained, not without making several excursions, till the 3d Sept. when he sailed from Lobeia, and arrived on the 19th at Mahah, where he was detained near 2 months by the treachery and avarice of the Naybe of that place. It was not till the 15th Nov. that he was allowed to quit Arkeeko near Masua; and he arrived 15th Feb. 1770, at Gondar, the capital of Abyssinia, where he ingratiated himself with the most considerable persons of both sexes belonging to the court. Several months were employed in attendance on the king; and in an unsuccessful expedition round the lake of Dambea. Towards the end of October, Mr Bruce set out for the source of the Nile, at which long desired spot, he arrived

on the 14th Nov. and his feelings on the accomplishment of his wishes cannot better be expressed than in his own words: "It is easier to guess than to describe the situation of my mind at that moment; standing in that spot which had baffled the genius, industry, and inquiry of both ancients and moderns, for the course of near 3000 years. Kings had attempted this discovery at the head of armies, and each expedition was distinguished from the last, only by the difference of the numbers which had perished, and agreed alone in the disappointment which had uniformly and without exception, followed them all. Fame, riches, and honour had been held out for a series of ages to every individual of those myriads those princes commanded, without having produced one man capable of gratifying the curiosity of his sovereign, or wiping off the stain upon the enterprize and abilities of mankind, or adding this desideratum for the encouragement of geography. Though a mere private Briton, I triumphed here in my own mind over kings and their armies; and every comparison was leading nearer and nearer to the presumption, when the place itself where I stood, the object of my vain glory, suggested what depressed my short-lived triumphs. I was but a few minutes arrived at the source of the Nile, through numberless dangers and sufferings, the least of which would have overwhelmed me, but for the continual goodness and protection of Providence; I was, however, but then half through my journey, and all those dangers which I had already passed, awaited me again on my return. I found a despondency gaining ground fast upon me, and blasting the crown of laurels I had too rashly woven for myself." When he returned to rest the night of his discovery, repose was sought for in vain. "Melancholy reflections upon my present state, the doubtfulness of my return in safety, were I permitted to make the attempt, and the fears that even this would be refused, according to the rule observed in Abyssinia, with all travellers who have once entered the kingdom; the consciousness of the pain that I was then occasioning to many worthy individuals, expecting daily that information concerning my situation, which it was not in my power to give them; some other thoughts perhaps, still nearer the heart than those, crowded upon my mind, and forbade all approach of sleep. I was, at that very moment, in possession of what had, for many years been the principal object of my ambition and wishes; indifference, which, from the usual infirmity of human nature, follows, at least for a time, complete enjoyment, had taken possession of it. The marsh of the fountains, upon comparison with the rise of many of our rivers became now a trifling object in my sight. I remembered that magnificent scene in my own native country, where the Tweed, Clyde, and Annan rise in one hill; three rivers I now thought, not inferior to the Nile in beauty, preferable to it in the cultivation of those countries through which they flow; superior, vastly superior to it in the virtues and qualities of the inhabitants, and in the beauties of its flocks, crowding its pastures in peace, without fear of violence from man or beast. I had seen the rise of the Rhine and Rhone, and the more magnificent sources

sources of the Soane. I began, in my sorrow, to treat the enquiry about the sources of the Nile as a violent effort of a disordered fancy. Grief and despondency now rolling upon me like a torrent, relaxed, not refreshed by unquiet and imperfect sleep, I started from my bed in the utmost agony; I went to the door of my tent; every thing was still; the Nile, at whose head I stood, was not capable either to promote or interrupt my slumbers, but the coolness and serenity of the night braced my nerves, and chased away those phantoms, that while in bed had oppressed and tormented me. It was true, that numerous dangers, hardships and sorrows had beset me through this half of my excursion, but it was still as true that another guide more powerful than my own courage, health or understanding, if any of them can be called a man's own, had uniformly protected me in all that tedious half. I found my confidence not abated, that still the same guide was able to conduct me to my wished-for home. I immediately resumed my former fortitude, considered the Nile indeed as no more than rising from springs, as all other rivers do, but widely different in this, that it was the palm for 3000 years held out to all the nations of the world, as a *detur dignissimo*, which, in my cool hours, I had thought was worth the attempting at the risk of my life, which I had long either resolved to lose, or lay this discovery, a trophy in which I could have no competitor, for the honour of my country, at the feet of my sovereign whose servant I was. Mr Bruce now bent his thoughts on his return to his native country. He arrived at Gondar 19th Nov. 1770; but found, after repeated solicitations, that it was not an easy task to obtain permission to quit Abyssinia. A civil war in the mean time breaking out, no uncommon occurrence in that barbarous country: several engagements took place between the king's forces, and the rebels, particularly 3 actions at Serbraxos, in May 1771. In each of them Mr Bruce acted a considerable part, and for his valiant conduct in the second, received a reward from the king, a chain of gold, of 184 links; each link weighing $3\frac{1}{2}$ dwts. or somewhat more than $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. troy, in all. At Gondar, after these engagements, he again earnestly entreated to be allowed to return home, which was long resisted; but his health at last giving way, from the anxiety of his mind, the king consented to his departure, on condition of his engaging by oath to return to him in the event of his recovery, with as many of his kindred as he could engage to accompany him. After a residence of nearly two years in that wretched country, Mr Bruce left Gondar, Dec. 16, 1771, taking the dangerous way of the desert of Nubia, in place of the most easy road of Masuah, by which he entered Abyssinia. He was induced to take this route from his experience of the savage temper of the Naybe of Masuah. Arriving at Teawa, 21st March 1772, he found the Shekh Fidele at Athara the counterpart of the Naybe of Masuah in every bad quality. By his intrepidity, and prudence, however, and by making good use of his foreknowledge of an eclipse of the moon, which happened on the 17th of April, he was permitted to depart next day, and arrived at Senaar, on the 29th. He was detained upwards

of 4 months at that miserable and inhospitable place, the inhabitants of which he describes in these expressive words: "War and treason seem to be the only employment of these horrid people, whom Heaven has separated by almost impassable deserts, from the rest of mankind, confining them to an accursed spot, seeming to give them an earnest in time, of the only other worse which he has reserved to them for an eternal hereafter." This delay was occasioned by the villany of those who had undertaken to supply him with money; but at last, by disposing of 178 links of his gold chain, the well earned trophy of Serbraxos, he was enabled to make preparations for his dangerous journey through the deserts of Nubia. He left Senaar 5th Sept. and arrived on the 3d Oct. at Chendi, which he quitted on the 10th, and travelled through the desert of Gooz, to which village he came Oct. 26. On the 9th Nov. he left Gooz, and entered upon the most dreadful and dangerous part of his journey, the perils attending which he has related with a power of pencil, not unworthy of the greatest masters. All his camels having perished, he was under the necessity of abandoning his baggage in the desert, and with the greatest difficulty reached Assouan upon the Nile, Nov. 29. After some days rest, having procured fresh camels, he returned into the desert and recovered his baggage, among which was a quadrant (of 3 feet radius) supplied by Louis XV. from the Military Academy at Marseilles, by means of which noble instrument, now deposited in the museum at Kinnaird, Mr Bruce was enabled with precision and accuracy to fix the relative situations of the several remote places he visited. On the 10th Jan. 1773, after more than 4 years absence, he arrived at Cairo, where, by his manly and generous behaviour, he so won the heart of Mahomet Bey, that he obtained a firman, permitting the commanders of English vessels belonging to Bombay and Bengal, to bring their ships and merchandize to Suez, a place far preferable, in all respects, to Jidda, to which they were formerly confined. Of this permission, which no European nation could ever before acquire, many English vessels have already availed themselves; and it has proved peculiarly useful both in public and private dispatches. Such was the worthy conclusion of his memorable journey through the desert, a journey, which, after many hardships and dangers, terminated in obtaining this great national benefit. At Cairo, Mr Bruce's earthly career had nearly been concluded by a disorder in his leg, occasioned by a worm in the flesh. This accident kept him 5 weeks in extreme agony, and his health was not re-established till a year afterwards, at the baths of Poretta in Italy. On his return to Europe, Mr Bruce was received with all the admiration due to so exalted a character. After passing some time in France, particularly at Montbard, with his friend the Comte de Buffon, by whom he was received with much hospitality, and is mentioned with great applause, he at last revisited his native country, from which he had been upwards of 12 years absent. On his return the public curiosity was highly excited to see a narrative of his travels; but this was retarded by various circumstances—particularly a number of

law suits; the long continued illness and death of his 1d wife, daughter of Mr Dundas of Fingask, and a severe ague which repeatedly attacked him for 16 years. At last, however, he got leisure to put his materials in order; and, in 1790, his long expected work appeared in 5 large 4to volumes embellished with many plates, maps, and charts; at 5 guineas each copy. The work has been criticised and the author accused of vanity; but there appears, on the whole, such an air of manly veracity, and circumstances are mentioned, with a minuteness so unlike deceit, that a general impression of truth irresistibly fixes on the mind of the reader. There never perhaps existed a man better qualified for the hazardous enterprise he undertook, than Mr Bruce. His person was of the largest size, his height exceeding six feet, and his bulk and strength proportionally great. He excelled in all corporeal accomplishments, being a hardy practised and indefatigable swimmer, trained to exercise and fatigue of every kind, and his long residence among the Arabs had given him a more than ordinary facility in managing the horse. In the use of fire arms he was so unerring, that in innumerable instances he never failed to hit the mark; and his dexterity in handling the spear and lance on horseback was also uncommonly great. He was master of most languages, understanding the Greek perfectly; and was so well skilled in oriental literature, that he revised the New Testament in the Ethiopic, Samaritan, Hebrew, and Syriac, making many useful notes and remarks on difficult passages. He had applied from early youth to mathematics, drawing, and astronomy; and had acquired some knowledge of physic and surgery. His memory was astonishingly retentive, his judgment sound and vigorous. He was dexterous in negotiation, a master of public business, animated with the warmest zeal for his king and country, a physician in the camp or city, a soldier and horseman in the field, while, at the same time, his breast was a stranger to fear, though he took every precaution to avoid danger. Of his learning and sagacity, his delineation of the course of Solomon's fleet from Tarshish to Ophir, his account of the cause of the inundations of the Nile, and his comprehensive view of the Abyssinian history, afford ample proofs. He expresses, throughout all his works, a deep and lively sense of the care of a superintending providence, without whose influence, he was convinced of the futility of all human ability and foresight to preserve from danger. He appears to have been a serious believer of the truth of Christianity; and his illustrations of some parts of the sacred writings are original and valuable. He was preparing a 2d edition of his travels for the press, when he died April 27th 1794, in consequence of a fall down his own stair, in the 66th year of his age.

(1.) BRUCE, Michael, an amiable young poet, of great merit, but of few years, was born at Kinross-wood, in Kinross-shire, March 27th 1746. He gave early signs of superior genius, which led his parents, though in a humble sphere of life, to give him a liberal education, intending him for divinity: so that in 1762, he was sent to the university of Edinburgh, where he contracted an acquaintance with the rev. Mr William Logan, who

gave the public the first specimen of his abilities, by publishing a few of his poems after his death. He kept a small school for children, (for a very small salary) first at Gairney-bridge, near Kinross, and afterwards at Forest-mill, near Alloa. At this place he began and finished his excellent poem called *Lochleven*, of which he gave the following humorous account, in a letter to his friend Mr Arnot at Portmoak: "I have wrote a few lines of a descriptive poem, *cui titulus est Lochleven*: You may remember you hinted such a thing to me; so I have set about it, and you may expect a dedication. I hope it will soon be finished, as I every week add two lines, blot out 6, and alter 8. You shall hear the plan when I know it myself." In autumn 1766, his delicate constitution, ill calculated to bear the exertions of daily labour and the austerities of a cold climate, under the pressure of that rigid frugality, which his humble circumstances rendered necessary, began to decline, and in the end of the year terminated in a deep consumption. He therefore returned to his native village, to receive the consolations of parental affection and the sympathy of friendship. In spring he wrote an elegy on his own approaching death, and expired, July 6, 1767, in his 21st year. A small collection of his *Poems on Several Occasions*, was first published in 1770, by Mr Logan, who, rather injudiciously mingled with them some poems of his own and others. Lord Craig having called the attention of the public to them, in 1779, in the *Mirror*, N. 36. they were reprinted in 1784. A new edition, with several more of his poems, which had not been published, has been lately printed at Edinburgh for the benefit of his mother, under the direction of the rev. Dr Baird. It is to be regretted that the patronage bestowed upon his posthumous works, was not exerted to render his situation more comfortable, while he lived. He united an ardent and enlightened sense of religion with a lively imagination and a feeling heart. Elegance, simplicity, and tenderness, characterise him as a man and a poet. Under the names of *Bumelia* and *Peggy*, he celebrates in his poems an amiable young woman, whose modest beauty and artless simplicity had made an impression on his susceptible heart.

(3.) BRUCE, Robert, son of the earl of Carrick, being competitor with Baliol for the crown of Scotland, lost it by the arbitration of Edward I. of England, for generously refusing to hold the crown of Scotland as depending on him, which his ancestors had left him independent.

(4.) BRUCE, Robert, grandson of the preceding, (No. 3.) when Baliol broke his agreement with Edward, was easily persuaded to side with him against Baliol, upon promise that he would settle him on the throne. Having contributed much to the breaking of Baliol's party he demanded the accomplishment of king Edward's promise, who is said to have given him this answer: "What! have I nothing else to do but to conquer kingdoms for you?" However, he recovered his crown, defeated the English in several battles, raised the glory of the Scots, and extended their dominions. See SCOTLAND, HISTORY OF.

(5.) BRUCE, Robert, of Kinnaird, one of the ministers of Edinburgh, under Q. Mary and James

contains several walks between two rows of trees, and a new guard-house in the middle. The Burg is a large square, in which is the town-house, built in the Gothic manner, and adorned with a variety of figures of the ancient counts and countesses of Flanders. In the same quarter there are several other public buildings. The church dedicated to the Virgin Mary has a high steeple, which serves as a sea-mark for the ships that come to Ostend; on the inside are two tombs of copper gilt, of an extraordinary magnificence. Besides the cathedral and two collegiate churches, there are 5 parish churches and 14 chapels. There are many almshouses and hospitals, one of which is called the *school of Bogards*, where there are about 180 boys, some of whom are brought up to learning, others to trades, according to their genius. Their habit is cloth, and half of them wear blue and half red, with a black bonnet. There is also a school for poor girls, to the number of 120, clothed with red and blue. Bruges has long been famed for taking care of widows and orphans. The parts about the city, which belong to it, are called *Franc of Bruges*, and contain 37 villages. They enjoyed much liberty even under their old government. The fortifications being but trifling, in time of war it always yields to the strongest. The French took it in 1792, lost it in 1793, but soon after retook it, and now include it in their republic. It is 8 miles E. of Ostend, 24 N. E. of Ghent, and 46 west of Antwerp. Lon. 3. 5. E. Lat. 51. 11. N.

BRUGG. See BROUCK.

BRUGGE, or } a town of Germany, in the
BRUGGEN, } circle of Lower Saxony.

BRUGHT, a river in Westphalia.

BRUGNETTO, a city of Italy, in the territory of Genoa, with a bishop's sec. Lon. 9. 5. E. Lat. 44. 20. N.

BRUHAM, NORTH, } two villages in Somers-
BAUHAM, SOUTH, } setshire, near Bruton.

BRUIN, John DE, professor of natural philosophy and mathematics at Utrecht, was born at Gorcum in 1620. He had an uncommon skill in dissecting animals, and was a great lover of experiments. He made also observations in astronomy. He published dissertations *De vi altrice*; *De corporum gravitate et levitate*; *De cognitione Dei naturali*; *De lucis causa et origine*, &c. He had a dispute with Isaac Vossius, to whom he wrote a letter printed at Amsterdam, 1663; wherein he criticises Vossius's book *De natura et proprietate lucis*; and strenuously maintains the hypothesis of Descartes. He died in 1675, after he had been professor 23 years: and his funeral oration was pronounced 4 days after by M. Grævis.

BRUIR, [Gael. *bruir*, a noisy water,] a rivulet of Perthshire, in Athol.

(1.) * BRUISE. *n. s.* [from the verb.] A hurt from something blunt and heavy.—

One arm'd with metal, th' other with wood,
This fit for *bruise*, and that for blood. *Hudlib.*

I since have labour'd

To bind the *bruises* of a civil war,
And stop the issues of the winking blood. *Dryd.*

(2.) BRUISE, in surgery. See CONTUSION.

* To BRUISE. *v. a.* [*briser*, Fr.] To crush or mangle with the heavy blow of something not

edged or pointed; to crush by any weight; to beat into gross powder; to beat together coarsely.—

Fellows in arms, and my most loving friends,
Bruis'd underneath the yoke of tyranny. *Shakes.*

And fix far deeper in his head their stings,
Than temporal death shall *bruise* the victor's heel,
Or theirs whom he redeems. *Milton.*

As in old chaos heav'n with earth confus'd,
And stars with rocks together crush'd and *bruis'd*.
Waller.

They beat their breasts with many a *bruising* blow,

Till they turn livid, and corrupt the snow. *Dryd.*

BRUISER, in mechanics, a concave tool used for grinding and polishing the specula of telescopes. It is made of brass, about a quarter of an inch thick, and hammered as near to the gage as possible. It is tinned on the convex side, and made equally broad at bottom and top. It serves to reduce the figures of the bones, when too convex, and to rub down any gritty matter that happens to be mixed with the putty, before the speculum is applied to the polisher.

* BRUISEWORT. *n. s.* An herb; the same with COMFREY.

BRUISING, in pharmacy, the operation of breaking or pounding a thing coarsely; frequently practised on roots, woods, and other hard bodies, to make them yield their juice more freely than they would do whole.

* BRUIT. *n. s.* [*bruit*, Fr.] Rumour; noise; report.—A *bruit* ran from one to the other, that the king was slain. *Sidney*.—Upon some *bruits* he apprehended a fear, which moved him to send to Sir William Herbert to remain his friend. *Hayward*.—

I am not

One that rejoices in the common wreck,
As common *bruit* doth put it. *Shakes.*

* To BRUIT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To report; to noise abroad; to rumour. Neither the verb nor the noun are now much in use.—

His death,

Being *bruited* once, took fire and heat away,
From the best temper'd courage in his troops.

Shakespeare.

—It was *bruited*, that I meant nothing less than to go to Guiana. *Raleigh.*

BRUMÆ. See BRUMALIA.

BRUMAIRE, [*i. e.* the foggy month, Fr. from *brume*, fog,] the 2d month in the new French calendar. It begins Oct. 22d and ends Nov. 20th, consisting, like all the other months, of 30 days.

* BRUMAL. *adj.* [*brumalis*, Lat.] Belonging to the winter.—About the *brumal* solstice, it hath been observed, unto a proverb, that the sea is calm, and the winds do cease, till the young ones are excluded, and forsake their nests. *Brown.*

BRUMALES PLANTÆ, in botany (from *bruma*, winter); plants which flower in our winter: common about the Cape.

BRUMALIA, in Roman antiquity, festivals of Bacchus celebrated twice a-year; the first on the 12th of the kalends of March, and the other on the 18th of the kalends of November. They were instituted by Romulus, who during these feasts used to entertain the senate. Among other heathen festivals which the primitive Christians were much

much inclined to observe, Tertullian mentions the *brumæ* or *brumalia*,

BRUMFIELD, 2 villages; 1. in Cumberland, 4 m. from Wigton: 2. in Somersetsh. 5 m. from Taunton, and 5 S. W. of Bridgewater.

BRUMHAM, two villages: 1. two m. from Bedford: 2. in Wilts, 3 m. N. W. of Devizes.

BRUMLEY, in Northumberland, between Newcastle and Newbiggen.

BRUMMOY, Peter, a learned Jesuit born at Rouen in 1668, distinguished himself in his youth by his talents for the belles lettres; and during his whole life was beloved for his probity, virtue, and goodness of heart. He wrote many works, the most considerable of which is his *Theatre of the Greeks*. He died at Paris in 1742.

BRUMPTON, 2 villages in Yorksh. 1. near Northallerton: 2. five m. N. W. of Scarborough.

BRUMPTON-RALPH, in Somersetsh. 2 m. W. of Stokegomer.

BRUMPTON-REGIS, in Somersetsh. 2 m. N. E. of Dulverton.

BRUMSTAL, or **BRUNSAL**, in Yorkshire, near Appletree-wick.

BRUMWELL, in Norfolk. 3 m. N. of Brandon ferry.

(1.) **BRUN**, Anthony LE, an ambassador of Spain, famous for his skill in negotiating, was of an ancient and noble family, and born at Dole in 1600. He was attorney-general in the parliament of Dole; during which time he had a hand in all the state negotiations which concerned the provinces. He was sent afterwards by Philip IV. to the diet of Ratisbon, and from thence to the court of the emperor Ferdinand III. He was one of the plenipotentiaries at the conferences of Munster held in 1643; where, he far exceeded them all in capacity. The king of Spain was particularly indebted to him for the peace which the Dutch made at Munster, exclusively of France; and the intriguing turn which he showed upon this occasion made him dreaded ever after by French ambassadors. He was a man of letters as well as of politics; and employed his pen as well as his tongue in the service of his master. He died at the Hague, during his embassy, in 1654.

(2.) **BRUN**, Charles LE, was descended of a family of distinction in Scotland, and born in 1619. His father was a statuary by profession. He discovered such an early inclination for painting, that at 3 years of age he used to design on the hearth and sides of the chimney, with coals; and at 12 he drew the picture of his uncle so well, that it still passes for a fine piece. His father being employed in the gardens at Sequier, the chancellor placed him with Simon Vouet, an eminent painter. He was afterwards sent to Fontainebleau, to take off some of Raphael's pieces. He sent him next to Italy, and supported him there for six years. Le Brun, in his return, met with the celebrated Poussin, by whose conversation he greatly improved, and contracted a friendship with him which lasted as long as their lives. A painting of St Stephen, which he finished in 1651, raised his reputation to the highest pitch. Soon after, the king made him his first painter, conferred on him the order of St Michael, and spent hours every day to see him work, while he

was painting the family of Darius at Fontainebleau. About 1662, he began his five large pieces of the history of Alexander the Great, in which he is said to have set the actions of that famous conqueror, in a more glorious light than Quintus Curtius hath done in his history. He procured several advantages for the royal academy of painting and sculpture at Paris, and formed the plan of another for the students of his own nation at Rome. The king gave him the direction of all his works, particularly of his royal manufactory at the Gobelins, where he had a handsome house with a genteel salary. He had a vast inventive genius, which extended to arts of every kind. He was well acquainted with the manners and history of all nations; and was the author of two treatises; 1. on physiognomy, and 2. on the different characters of the passions. His talents as a painter, except for landscapes, were universal. His compositions command the admiration of the nicest judges. The pieces that gained him the greatest reputation were, those which he finished at Fontainebleau, the great stair case at Versailles, and especially the grand gallery there, which is the last of his works, and is said to have taken him up 14 years. He died at Paris in 1690.

(3.) * **BRUN**, **BRAN**, **BROWN**, **BOURN**, **BURN**, &c. all derived from the Saxon, *born*, *bourn*, *brunn*, *burna*; all signifying a river or brook. *Gibson*.

BRUNANBURGH, an ancient town of York. now called **BROUGH**, where a bloody battle was fought between K. Athelstan, and an army of Scots, Danes, Welsh, and Irish: A. D. 938.

BRUNDAL, or } two villages: 1. in Lancast.
BRUNDALL, } S. W. of Houghton Town:
2. three m. E. of Norwich.

BRUNDEN, in Essex, near Sudbury.

BRUNDISIUM, or **BRUNDUSIUM**, in ancient geography, a town of Calabria, with the best harbour in Italy. It was a very ancient town, and belonged originally to the Salentines; but was taken by the Romans about A. A. C. 256. It is now called **BRINDISI**; which see.

BRUNDISH, in Suffolk, 4 m. N. E. of Framlingham.

BRUNDISH-HALL, in Essex, 2 m. from Ongar.

BRUNDUSIUM. See **BRINDISI** and **BRUNDISIUM**.

BRUNELLA, in botany, the plant self-heal. See **SANICULA**.

* **BRUNETT**. *n. f.* [*brunette*, French.] A woman with a brown complexion.—Your fair women therefore thought of this fashion, to insult the olives and the *brunetts*. *Addison*.

BRUNETTO, a town in Piedmont.

BRUNFELSIA. See **BRUNSFELSIA**.

BRUNIA, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants. The flowers are aggregate or clustered; the filaments inserted into the heels of the petals; the stigma is bifid: the seeds are solitary, and the capsule is bilocular. There are 8 species.

* **BRUNION**. *n. f.* [*brugnion*, Fr.] A sort of fruit between a plum and a peach. *Tremoux*.

BRUNLESS, a village of S. Wales, in Brecknockshire, near Crick-howel.

BRUNN, a village in Howden, Yorkshire.

(1.) **BRUNO**, [*i. e.* brown, Ital.] the Latin name assumed

affected by the late Dr Brown, in his *Elementa Medicinae*; whence the epithet BRUNONIAN.

BRUNO, Jordano, an atheistical writer, born at Nola in Naples. About A. D. 1582 he began to call in question some of the tenets of the Roman church, which occasioned his retiring to Geneva; but after two years stay there, he expressed his aversion to Calvinism in such a manner that he was expelled the city. After having staid some time at Lyons, Thoulouse, and Paris, he came to London, and continued two years in the house of Mr Castlneau the French ambassador. He was very well received by Q. Elizabeth and the greater part of the court. His principal friends were Sir Philip Sidney and Sir Fulke Greville. With these and some others of their club, Bruno held assemblies; but as they treated of subjects of very delicate nature, which could not suit the taste or capacity of every body, they kept the door always shut, and none but select persons were admitted into their company. At Sir Philip's request, he composed his *Spaccio della Bestia Trionfante*, which was printed in 8vo, 1584, and dedicated to that gentleman. This work, which is remarkable for nothing but its impiety, was set in the *Spectator*, N° 389, sold at an auction in London for 30l. From England he went to Wittenberg, and from thence to Prague, where he printed some tracts, in which he openly avowed his atheistical principles. After visiting the other towns in Germany, he made a tour into France; where he was apprehended by the inquisition, tried, condemned, and refusing to recant, was burnt at the stake, Feb. 9, 1600.

BRUNONIAN, *adj.* belonging to the new medical system of Dr Brown.

BRUNONIANS, *n. s.* the followers of Dr Brown's system, or practice of medicine.

BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, the system of medicine discovered by the late Dr Brown, and explained at large in his *Elements of Medicine*. It does not appear proper to give an account of this system under the general article MEDICINE; but because this system differs so widely from all former systems of that science, that we think it more consistent with propriety to delineate it under its own super-title. The following will give a sufficient view of the outlines of this doctrine, to such as are unacquainted with it: and for its minutiae we must refer to the Dr's own works, and those of Dr Beddoes, Dr Jones, &c. See § 4—10.

BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, ACCOUNT OF THE HUMAN BODY, particularly the system of solids consists of, is a form of living matter, whose characteristics are sensation and motion. The property of being affected by external powers is termed *excitability*; the agents, *stimuli*, or exciting powers; the result *excitement*. Without this property, (excitability,) the body would be dead inanimate matter: By this property it becomes living matter; by this property, called into action by exciting powers, it becomes a living system. When the *stimuli* act on the *excitability* with a sufficient degree of power, then is the pleasant sensation of health; when they raise the excitement above this point, or depress it below it, disease ensues: when the stimuli cease to act, or the body is unable to feel their power, death ensues. EXCITEMENT.

TABILITY is a property of living matter, peculiar and inherent, but it is a property which Dr Brown did not pretend to explain. He left it as Sir Isaac Newton did his *Attraction*, as a property not to be investigated. Of this energy or power, there is assigned to every living system, at the commencement of life, a certain quantity or proportion; but its quantity differs in each, and in the same body it is found to change, for the excitability, according to circumstances, may be 'abundant, increased, accumulated, superfluous, exhausted, consumed, &c.' The STIMULI, or exciting powers are of two classes: External, and Internal. The external stimuli are heat, light, sound, air, and motion; food, drink, medicines, and whatever else is taken into the body, not excepting poisons and contagions. The internal are the functions of the body, the blood, the secretions, muscular exertion, and finally the powers of the mind, as sensation, passion, and thought. Dr Beddoes, we know not for what reason, ranks "the blood and secreted fluids" among the *external* stimuli. EXCITEMENT is Life; the natural movements of the machine, and the functions resulting from these, as sensation, reflection, and voluntary motion; which as they immediately flow from the exciting powers, are vigorous when they are strong, languid when they are weak, and cease when they are taken away entirely. Thus our body is continually moved by external agents and life is a *forced state*. Our weak frame has an unceasing tendency to dissolution, which is opposed only by the incessant application of *exciting powers*; which are the sources of life, and which, being partially or completely withdrawn, are immediately followed by disease or death. It is also a principle of this doctrine, that "all stimuli by acting on the excitability exhaust it." Thus the stimuli of food, air, motion, passion, and thought, have supported the body through the labours of the day: they have supported the functions by acting on the excitability; in the evening it is exhausted by their continued operation; they have no longer the same power; the functions fail; we sink into rest and continue in sleep, unaffected by stimuli, renewing by sleep that excitability, which had been exhausted by the labours or by the pleasures of the day; we rise with restored excitability; we feel a new power of excitement in every object around us; we are refreshed in the morning, and languid at night, and our whole life is an alternation of motion and rest, of action and sleep, of apathy and pleasure, of wasting our excitability by day in labour, or enjoyment, and of recruiting it by night by the abstraction of all stimulant powers. The same philosophy extends to the duration of life: In childhood excitability is abundant in *quantity*, as being little exhausted but it is low in power, because the tender stamina and accumulated excitability of children can neither suffer nor support high excitement. Their excitability is so abundant, that they are easily supported by weak diet and low exciting powers, and therefore most of their diseases are diseases of weakness. In youth and manhood the excitability is yet entire, the stamina are strong; the powerful stimuli are applied, and high passions prevail: these are the periods of vigour, and the era

of inflammatory disease. In old age the stamina are worn, the excitability is exhausted, the common stimuli have lost their power, and the system begins to decline; we have weakness of body, imbecillity of mind, and asthenic diseases. We may, last of all have recourse to more generous diet, and raise the stimulant powers by substituting wine to water, or brandy to wine; thus perhaps excitement may be a while supported, and life prolonged; but in a few years, these also fail. This doctrine farther teaches, that our body is never moved but by exciting powers. None but stimuli affect our system: That there are *direct* SEDATIVES in nature is esteemed an unphilosophical and vulgar error. In stimuli there is a gradation, which being relative to the system, deceives our sense; for, as some stimuli are powerful, and others weak, a low stimulus, applied after a more powerful one, will stimulate less than the former; will allay the motions, which the former had excited, and will, therefore, be named a *sedative*. Take heat as an example of this: *cold* is but an abstraction of *heat*, yet it is thought a positive existence; and *cold* is named a *sedative*, and heat a *stimulant* power. To detect this deception of sense, plunge the right hand into water at the heat of 150° ; the left into melting snow; withdraw both, and plunge them at once into water at 100° , it will prove at once stimulant and sedative; cold or sedative to the right hand, and hot or stimulant to the left. Here we clearly see, that the effect is not always the same, but is proportioned to the state of the body; and as cold is thus only an abstraction of heat, so is *fear* an abstraction of *confidence*, *grief* of *joy*, *disappointment* of *hope*; &c. so is *fasting* an abstraction of the wonted stimulus of *food*, *bleeding* of the usual stimulus of *blood*, and so on. Health, then, is the due operation of stimuli on a well regulated excitability, producing a moderate excitement, and a pleasant sensation; moving the whole system with a just degree of power, and giving all the functions their due energy and tone. ASTHENIC DISEASE, disease of debility, or of weakness, is the result of stimuli applied in a low degree, or of the system less easily excited. STHENIC DISEASE, or disease of strength, is the result of stimuli applied in too great a degree, or of a system too susceptible of excitement. The first is depression of excitement below the healthy state: it produces languid motions and functions; and requires excitement for its cure. The second is a strong state of the system, wound up to too high a pitch of excitement. It is an exuberance of health and strength. It is marked by violent movements, and is cured by abstraction of stimuli. Thus are all our maladies either diseases of weakness or of excessive strength, and this is the foundation of the *Brunonian scale*, (see *Plate XLVII.*) which has for its middle point *health*; below that are arranged the diseases of weakness; above it the diseases of excessive strength; and in both divisions of the scale, diseases are so arranged, that the worst forms are set off at the greatest distance from the middle point, to mark them as the widest deviations from the healthy state. To illustrate still further the nature of these two forms of disease, we must observe their respective causes. *Asthenia*,

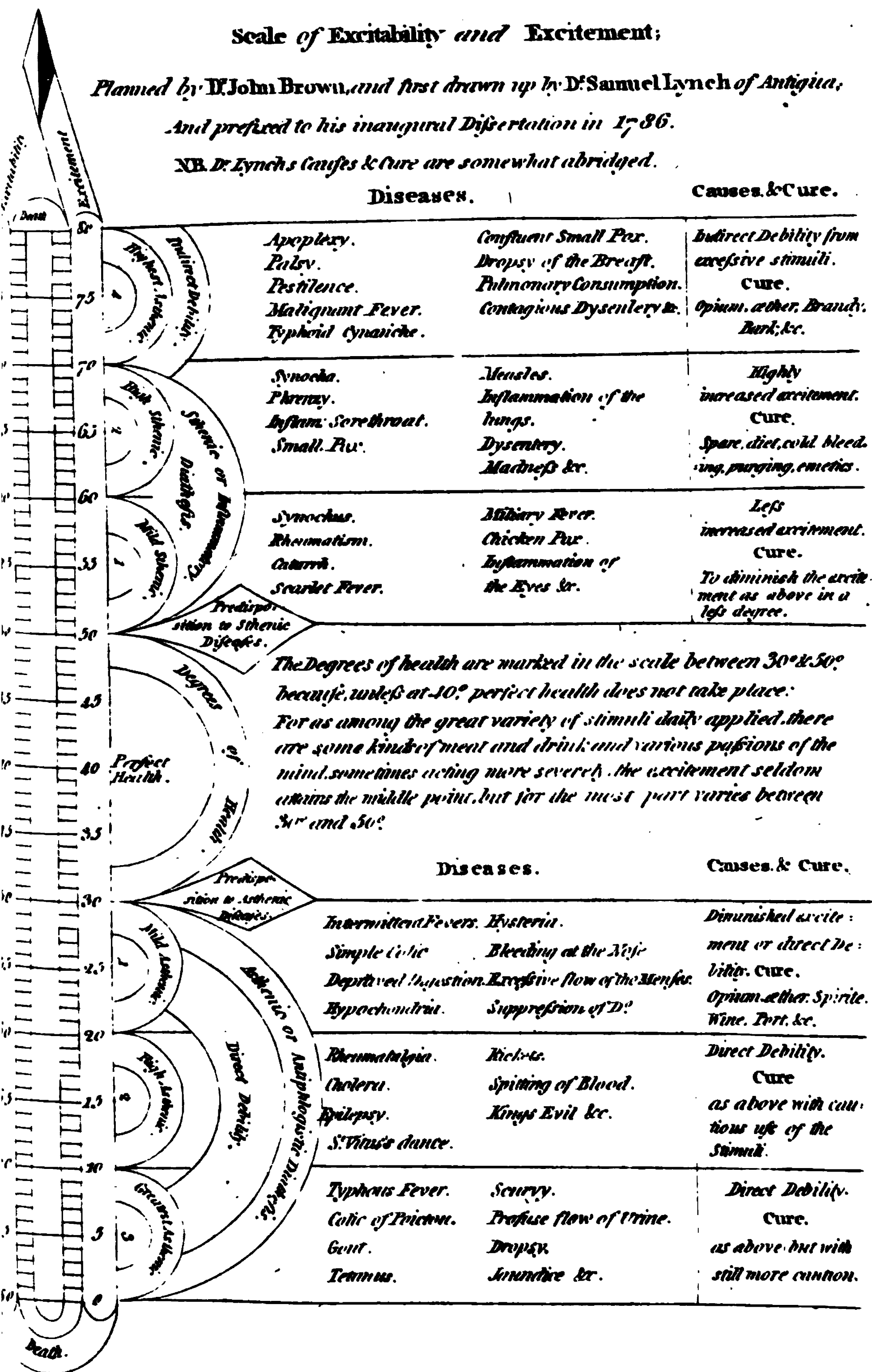
or excessive strength, is simply the effect of many or powerful stimuli acting on the system. *Asthenia* is the immediate effect of withdrawing these; but *asthenia* is not so simple as its opposite state, for debility varies in its nature according to its various causes. 1. By abstraction of exciting powers is produced a species of debility, named *direct*. 2. By long or violent application of strong exciting powers, the excitability is exhausted; both the excitement and the strength fail: this species of debility is named *indirect*. 3. When the exciting powers are withdrawn, and the direct debility produced, it is at the same time combined with a new species. By merely withdrawing the stimuli, such weakness would be produced as should be temporary only, and might be done away by restoring the usual exciting powers; but where the stimuli are withdrawn, excitability is accumulated, and when it is accumulated in an undue degree, it cannot bear the usual stimuli, and will not give out the healthy degree of excitement. Thus DIRECT DEBILITY, caused by the absence of exciting powers, is attended with accumulation of excitability. INDIRECT DEBILITY, caused by superabundant stimuli, is attended with exhausted excitability: The former is most easily cured, as we have but to apply stimuli, and raise the excitement; The latter is difficultly cured, for the excitability being in some degree exhausted, the system is less susceptible, and has less excitability to operate upon for the restoration of health. The abstraction of stimuli is an immediate cause of weakness; high excitement is a state of the system which the excitability cannot long endure without being exhausted, so that stimuli themselves produce ultimate weakness. Therefore, since high excitement is temporary only, and has but one cause, while weakness is a permanent state, and has many causes, the diseases of debility must in a very great proportion exceed in number the diseases of excessive strength; and diseases of excessive strength must ultimately end there. If 97 of 100 diseases arise from weakness, the conclusion must be of the first importance in practice. Hence it is a general principle in this system, that though there be many individual diseases, there are but two states of the system, and two general methods of cure; and though it admits the difference between local and general diseases, yet it does not allow that a local sthenic disease can exist for any time along with a general asthenic diathesis, or *vice versa*. For the cure of all those diseases which stand above the point of health, nothing more is required than withdrawing the stimuli of food, drink, heat, &c. or by evacuation, as bleeding, vomiting, and purging. For all those diseases which stand below the point of health, we use the natural stimuli of diet, beef tea, wine, heat, &c. or the less natural stimuli of the pharmacopœia, the chief of which are opium, ether, volatile alkali, musk, camphor, brandy, gin, &c. The cause of the one form of disease is the cure of the other; in the one we raise the excitement till it arrives at the point of health, in the other we depress it to the same point; having effected this by the powers of medicine, we keep it there by attention to regimen, and the great point in the Brunonian practice is to hit the point of health.

Scale of Excitability and Excitement;

Planned by D. John Brown, and first drawn up by D. Samuel Lynch of Antigua,

And prefixed to his inaugural Dissertation in 1786.

NB. Dr. Lynch's Causes & Cure are somewhat abridged.





health, neither to stop short of this point, nor to pass beyond it; for by either imprudence we may do much harm. By profusion of stimuli we may convert a disease of weakness into a disease of inflammation; by too severe an abstraction of stimuli, we may run into the opposite excess, converting into a disease of weakness what was originally a disease of violent inflammation. The use of stimuli in asthenic diseases is to be regulated by the cause. In all diseases of indirect weakness, where excitability has been exhausted, the strength must be raised by the immediate application of the most powerful stimuli, which are to be slowly reduced in quantity or strength, till moderate or ordinary stimuli suffice for supporting the excitement of health. In all cases of direct weakness, where excitability is accumulated, the immediate application of powerful stimuli would destroy. Weak stimuli must be first used, the superabundant excitability must be gradually wasted, and the doses very slowly increased, till we rise to the point of health.

(5.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, DANGER ARISING FROM THE. Dr Brown's frequent prescriptions of wine, spirits, and opium, to his patients in asthenic diseases, with his repeated recommendations of these stimuli in his lectures and writings, raised a very general prejudice against his system and practice, among those who knew nothing of either, but from vague report. They alledged, that, though he might cure the diseases of his patients, he would infallibly corrupt their morals, by habituating them to such dangerous medicines. From these charges, Dr Beddoes vindicates the doctrine, in the following words: (p. elix.) "The Brunonian system has been frequently charged with promoting intemperance; the objection is serious, but the view already given of its principles shews it to be groundless. No writer had insisted so much upon the dependence of life upon external causes, or so strongly stated the inevitable consequences of excess: And there are no means of promoting morality upon which we can rely, except the knowledge of the true relations between man and other beings or bodies. For by this knowledge we are directly led to shun what is hurtful, and pursue what is salutary.—It may be said that the author's life disproves the justness of this representation. His life, however, only shews the superior power of other causes, and of bad habits in particular; and I acknowledge the little efficacy of instruction when bad habits are formed. Its great use consists in preventing their formation, for which reason, popular instruction in medicine would contribute—to the happiness of the human species.—But though the principles of the system did not correct the propensities of its inventor, it does not follow that they tend to produce the same propensities in others." On the contrary, what stronger motive of temperance can philosophy itself inculcate, than the Brunonian doctrine does, when it teaches, that every act of intemperance and excess tends to exhaust the very principle of life?

(6.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, IMPERFECTIONS OF THE. Dr Beddoes, though he seems to be a decided Brunonian, has nevertheless, with great candour as well as judgment, pointed out a few of

the imperfections of the new doctrine. 1. He observes, that, as Dr Brown "assumes, that a certain portion of excitability is originally assigned to every living system, by his very assumption, he denies its continual production, subsequent diffusion and expenditure." Dr Beddoes thinks that the brain is destined to secrete a successive supply of this principle. 2. He next objects against the Dr's "uniformity of operation in stimulants."—"Heat and wine (he justly observes) can never act in the same manner, for no person is intoxicated by heat." He adds, "Had it been once allowed by Brown, that the different constituent parts of the body bear a different relation to the same agents, he must have admitted the operation of specific stimulants to an unlimited extent." On the subject of *Predisposition to Disease*, he observes, that "though facts have been noted, the principle lies involved in total obscurity. Brown does not purposely elude the difficulty, but his principles lead him beside it; and we may doubt, whether the term *predisposition* ought in strict propriety to have appeared in his Elements; for predisposition is with him a slight disease, differing only in degree from that into which the person predisposed falls." 4. "There are several other opinions, (he adds,) which, in a complete revival of the Brunonian system, would require particular examination, such as his doctrine concerning hereditary diseases," (which Brown denies the existence of,) "the peculiar state of sthenic inflammation, and the nature of the passions." 5. And in a note upon Brown's preface, he files the Dr's opinion, that 'nearly all the diseases of children depend on debility,'—"a gross and dangerous error," though he admits that "thousands of them are cut off at an early period of life, and tens of thousands kept languishing in misery by asthenic diseases, for want of the necessaries of life." This admission of Dr Beddoes might have superseded his criticism. Dr Brown did not say *all* diseases of children were asthenic. But if thousands and tens of thousands are, they may be surely said to be *nearly* all such. Neither Dr Brown nor any man in his senses would prescribe stimulants in group, peripneumony, or the first stage of hooping cough; though we have known the most speedy and effectual cures performed by opium in this last disease, after the sthenic diathesis was gone.

(7.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, OBJECTIONS TO THE. The following are among the principal objections that have been urged by the opponents of this doctrine. 1. Medicines and the other exciting powers do not act as mere stimuli *only*. If they did, they must have all one common nature and differ only in degree; whereas they differ widely in their effects: one produces hilarity, as wine, &c. another coma, as opium; one poison produces phrenzy, another palsy, a third convulsions, &c. If ipecacuanha operate on the stomach, jalap on the bowels, cream of tartar on the kidneys, and mercury on the salivary glands, they must have some peculiar or *specific* qualities superadded to their stimulant power, and the latter must be but a subordinate effect. If bark cure an intermittent fever, or mercury the venereal disease, which brandy, opium, and even æther cannot, then it is the duty of the physician to discover these secret, peculiar,

and inexplicable powers, and to operate by them, without regard to their stimulant effects. 2. In opposition to the Brunonian doctrine, that there is not a *direct sedative* in nature, it is argued, that fixed air, and the contagion of fever, dysentery, the plague, &c. are direct sedatives, which do not stimulate in the smallest degree. 3. It has been urged, that if the new doctrine be true, there ought to be no such thing as an *incurable* disease. All diseases, whether above or below the point of health ought to yield to the abstraction or application of the stimuli, as long as the excitability is not totally exhausted. 4. In short, it has been argued, that if the Brunonian system be true, there is no use for *Nosology* or *Physiology*; very little for *Chemistry* or *Botany*, as a few stimuli with an emetic and cathartic or two are sufficient to supply a Brunonian Laboratory; and not much even for *Anatomy* itself, that grand foundation of medical knowledge. But whatever deficiencies, imperfections, or inexplicable mysteries, may still adhere to this system, it is allowed, even by its opponents, to have contributed greatly to the improvement of medical practice; to have considerably diminished the former too frequent prescriptions of copious bleeding on almost every occasion; and to have lessened the number of evacuant doses, and increased that of corroborant medicines, in many diseases of weakness, where the opposite practice was manifestly injurious. And it is allowed on all hands to be the duty of every medical practitioner to examine it without prejudice or partiality.

(8.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, ORIGIN OF THE. Some have asserted that Dr Brown borrowed the first idea of his doctrine from some hints thrown out by his then intimate friend Dr Cullen; but Dr Beddoes, after quoting the passage from Cullen's Institutions, (parag. cxxx.) where *excitement* is mentioned, shews plainly that when Dr Cullen wrote it, "his thoughts were turned from the living body to an electrical machine," and that, "his idea of excitement has therefore nothing in common with that of Brown."—Others have affirmed, that Dr Brown only revived the old doctrine of the METHODIC SECT, and that Themison was the discoverer, and Theffalus and Soranus the improvers, of the doctrine now called *Brunonian*. But nothing can be more distant from the truth than this. The methodic doctrine of *stricture* and *relaxation* bears no analogy to Brown's definitions of *sthenic* and *asthenic* diseases; and the doctrine of SPASM itself is not more opposite to the Brunonian system, than Themison's notion of a *third class* of diseases, which partook of both stricture and relaxation. The truth is incontrovertible, that the discovery is wholly Brown's own. The cause which led to it is narrated by himself in the introduction to his *Elements of Medicine*. In his 36th year he had his first fit of the gout, and 6 years after, his second—both when he had been living more abstemiously than usual. This disease being "said to depend on plethora, and excessive vigour, vegetable aliment was enjoined; wine was forbidden, and the careful execution of that plan of cure was promised to be rewarded with exemption from the disease. A whole year passed in accordance to this regimen. During this year,

instead of exemption from the disease he had no less than four fits, exceedingly violent and painful, and of very long duration. In short the whole year, except 14 days, was divided between limping and excruciating pain." From this tedious and fruitless attempt to cure the disease, he began to reason thus: "If according to the theory, over-proportion of blood and excess of vigour were the cause of the disease, how were such distressing symptoms to be explained? Why had not the disease made its first appearance 12 or 15 years before, at a time when there was in reality more blood and vigour in the system? Why did it only come on after a reduction of diet, considerable both in degree and duration? Why had so great an interval, during which he had recurred to his usual full diet, intervened between the first fit and these recent ones? And why had the disease twice, almost instantaneously, come on, after the change of a full diet to a spare one?" From this he was led to consider the effects of food, drink, &c. upon the human body;—hence to conclude, that the gout was a disease of debility, and from thence to try the effect of an invigorating plan of regimen; which proved so effectual, as to reduce the disease within the two following years, in the proportion of 1 to 48. Thus from personal experience of the inefficacy of the former medical practice in the gout, he was led to review the whole old system of medicine, and having thus discovered the first principles of his new theory, to extend and apply them to the whole science."

(9.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, PROPAGATION OF THE. Of the rapid and extensive propagation of the New Doctrine, Dr Beddoes gives the following account: (p. clxiii.) "Three years ago, (says he,) I had occasion to observe, that the opinions of Brown had been so widely diffused by oral communication, as to affect the whole practice of medicine in Great Britain. In pamphlets recommending repeated doses of opium to support excitement, and in other publications, it would be easy to detect attempts to purloin his language and ideas; but it is unnecessary, for though literature has always been infested by a race of pilferers, original genius has seldom been injured by their dishonest practices. Brown cannot now be defrauded of his just reputation. His writings have lately been republished, and are gaining credit on the continent of Europe. In America his superiority to preceding systematic authors, appears to be acknowledged alike by students and professors." Among these he quotes in a note, Dr "Rush on the yellow fever, and several inaugural Dissertations lately published at Philadelphia:" after which he adds, "Since the preceding pages were printed, I have received further indubitable proofs of the ascendancy which the truths, promulgated by Brown, are gaining over men's minds in different parts of Europe. A translation of his "OBSERVATIONS," under the title of *Compendio della nuova dottrina medica di G. Brown*, was published at Pavia in 1792. It has been since republished at Venice, and so has Moscati's edition of the *Elementa*. The translation is by Dr Rasori, who has prefixed a sensible introduction, and added many judicious notes. In a letter, accompanying a copy of his translation,

Dr Rasori says, "In the University of Pavia, undoubtedly one of the first in Europe, there is hardly a student endowed with talents, who is not a Brunonian. The doctrine begins equally to spread in Germany. Many of the periodical publications of that country have noticed it, and the *Elementa* have lately been published there. A friend at Genoa assures me, that several surgeons to French men of war have informed him, that Brown is known and much admired in France. In the University of Pavia, Brown is in high esteem even with some of the most respectable professors; and in other parts of Italy, I can assert from my own knowledge, that old physicians have not refused their sanction to many of the Brunonian principles."

(10.) **BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, VALUE AND ADVANTAGES OF THE.** Having taken notice of the imperfections of the New Doctrine, (§ 6.) as well as of the principal objections to it, (§ 7.) we would not do justice either to it, or the reader, if we were to pass over its peculiar merits and advantages. "The distinguishing merit of Brown (says Beddoes,) is obvious: he avoided all false analogies, and confined himself within the proper sphere of observation for a physician. Hence if he has not always discovered the truth, he is seldom forsaken by the spirit of philosophy.—Before him investigations relative to medicine, had been carried on as rationally as if to discover the qualities of the horse, the naturalist were to direct his attention to the movements of a windmill."—"Informing an estimate" of the value of his system, the reader "should have before him, 1. The difficulty of emancipating the mind from inveterate and accredited error. 2. The much greater difficulty of giving a new form to a complicated and obscure science." He afterwards adds, "Whatever errors Brown may have committed in the application of his principles, and however short his doctrines may fall of a perfect system of medicine, I will venture to predict, that his credit on the continent will remain unshaken. The introduction of his opinions will have a most beneficial influence upon those by whom they are adopted, as well as upon those by whom they are rejected. Brunonians will not imitate the stupidity of the disciples of certain ancient philosophers, but exercise their reason in expunging, adding, and correcting, as experience shall dictate. With regard to Anti Brunonians a recent example will explain my meaning. When Lavoisier first announced his system, the chemists who were most scandalized by it, found themselves obliged to revise their whole stock of facts and deductions; the immediate consequence was an entire change in their opinions. Though they would not go over to Lavoisier, they could not adhere to Stahl, but reluctantly abandoned half their errors. The dissemination of the Brunonian doctrine will bring about the same thorough lustration of opinions in medicine, and the most pernicious among the prevailing prejudices will be relinquished without a contest. The reader may estimate what it is to have put so many nations into the right path of medical investigation." Nor is Dr Beddoes the only English physician who has expressed his approbation of the New Doctrine. Dr Dewell of Malmesbury,

in a small treatise upon Phlogiston, published about 1785, styles "the Brunonian system—a system founded on just principles, and scouted only by the interested and uninformed." And Dr Toulmin, in his Instruments of Medicine, after styling Brown "equal in his useful researches to the greatest character, that any age has yet produced,"—says of the system, "The world will profit by the light it in vain endeavoured to extinguish."

BRUNSBUTTLE, a sea-port town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and duchy of Holstein, seated at the mouth of the Elbe; it is 13 m. N. W. of Gluckstadt; and subject to Denmark. Lon. 9. 2. E. Lat. 54. 2. N.

BRUNSFELSIA, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants. The corolla is funnel-shaped, and very long; and the fruit an unilocular polyspermous berry. There is but one species, *viz.*

BRUNSFELSIA AMERICANA. It rises 6 or 8 feet high, has a woody branching rough stem, garnished with oblong entire leaves on footstalks, and large whitish flowers by threes or fours at the ends of the branches, succeeded by round saffron-coloured soft fruit. It may be raised from seeds sown in pots in the spring, and plunged in a bark bed. It may also be propagated by cuttings planted in pots in the same season, plunging them also in a bark bed or other hot-bed under glasses. The plants must always remain in the stove.

BRUNSLOW, a village in Shropshire, between Barlow and Lidbury.

BRUNSTED, in Norfolk, 2 m. S.E. of Ashford.

BRUNSTONE CASTLE, an ancient ruinous fort in the county of Mid-Lothian, and parish of Pennycuik.

(I.) **BRUNSWICK**, a city of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and capital of the duchy, N^o II. § 3. It is composed of 5 towns, *viz.* the Old Town, the New Town, the Hagen or Burg, the Old Wieck, and the Sack, which makes it a large place, but the houses are almost all built of wood. There are several churches, one of which is an ancient Gothic building, but the appearance of its antiquity is almost absorbed by the repairs it has undergone. Brunswick is a fortified place, and would require a numerous army to besiege, and not a few men to defend it. It is of a square form, divided in the middle by the river Ocker. It is about two miles in circumference, and is strongly fortified. On the ramparts is a mortar piece of brass, 10 feet 6 inches long, and 9 feet 2 inches in circumference. It weighs 1800 quintals, and has 93 quintals of iron in its carriages. It will carry a ball of 730 pounds weight to the distance of 33,000 paces, and throw a bomb of a thousand weight; but requires 52 pounds of powder for a charge. This city is the residence of the duke of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle. The inhabitants of the city and parts adjacent carry on a considerable trade with Bohemia. Brunswick is well known in England; a small fort of which is the common drink of the inhabitants of the city. The religion is the Lutheran, and the people observe it very strictly. The peasants are sober and laborious, but clownish and heavy; however, as they are robust and strong, they make good

good soldiers. The elector of Hanover is styled *duke of Brunswick*, though he has no property in, nor dominion over this city, which belongs to the duke of Brunswick Wolfenbottle. The number of inhabitants is about 24,000; and the whole income of the duke is estimated at 130,000 l. The academy of Brunswick, Dr Moore informs us, has been new-modelled, and the plan of education improved, by the attention, and under the patronage of the hereditary prince. Students now resort to this academy from many parts of Germany; and there are generally some young gentlemen from Britain sent to be educated here. Such of them as are intended for a military life, will not find so many advantages united at any other place on the continent, as at the Academy of Brunswick. They will here be under the protection of a family partial to the British nation;—every branch of science is taught by masters of known abilities;—the young students see garrison duty regularly performed, and may by the interest of the prince obtain liberty to attend the reviews of the Prussian troops at Magdeburg and Berlin. They will have few temptations to expence, in a town where they can see no examples of extravagance; few opportunities of dissipation, and none of gross debauchery. The fortifications at Brunswick were of great utility in the war before the last, and on one occasion they saved the town from being pillaged, and afforded prince Frederick an opportunity of performing an action, which it is imagined gave him more joy than 20 victories. This happened in 1761, soon after the battle of Kirch Denker, when duke Ferdinand protected Hanover, not by conducting his army into that country, and defending it directly, as the enemy seemed to expect, and probably wished; but by diversion, attacking with strong detachments, commanded by the hereditary prince, their magazines in Hesse, and thus drawing their attention from Hanover to that quarter. While the duke lay encamped at Willhemstall, watching the motions of Broglie's army, the marechal being greatly superior in numbers, sent a body of 20,000 men, under prince Xavier of Saxony, who took possession of Wolfenbottle, and soon after invested Brunswick. Prince Ferdinand, anxious to save his native city, ventured to detach 5000 of his army, small as it was, under his nephew Frederick, assisted by general Luckner, with orders to harass the enemy, and endeavour to raise the siege. The young prince while on his march, sent a soldier with a letter to the governor, which was wrapped round a bullet, and which the soldier was to swallow in case of his being taken by the enemy.—He had the good fortune to get safe into the town. The letter apprised the commander of the garrison of the prince's approach, and particularised the night and hour when he expected to be at a certain place near the town, requiring him to favour his entrance. In the middle of the night appointed, the prince fell suddenly on the enemy's cavalry, who, unsuspecting of his approach, were encamped carelessly within a mile of the town. They were immediately dispersed, and spread such an alarm among the infantry, that they also retreated with considerable loss. Early in the morning the young prince entered Brunswick, a-

midst the acclamations of his fellow citizens, whom he had relieved from the horrors of a siege. The hereditary prince having destroyed the French magazines in Hesse, had been recalled by his uncle, and ordered to attempt the relief of Brunswick. While he was advancing with all possible speed, and had got within a few leagues of the town, he received the news of the siege being raised. On his arrival at his father's palace, he found his brother Frederick at table, entertaining the French officers, who had been taken prisoners the preceding night. Brunswick is seated on the Ocker, 55 miles W. of Magdeburg, and 30 S. of Zell. Lon. 10. 42. E. Lat. 52. 25. N.

(II.) BRUNSWICK, a country of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, bounded on the N. by the duchy of Lunenburg, on the W. by the circle of Westphalia, on the S. by Hesse, and the territory of Piechfeld, and on the E. by Thuringia, with the principalities of Anhalt and Halberstadt, and the duchy of Magdeburg. The rivers are the Wefer, the Ocker, and the Lyne, and it is fertile both in corn and pastures. It is divided into 2 counties and 4 duchies; viz.

1. BRUNSWICK CALENBERG, and } belonging
2. BRUNSWICK GRUBENHAGEN, } to the elector of Hanover, and including the duchy of
Gottingen:

3. BRUNSWICK, PROPER, and } subject, &c.
4. BRUNSWICK WOLFENBUTTLE, } long with
the two counties of Rheinstein and Blankenberg,
to the D. of Wolfenbottle.

(III.) BRUNSWICK, a city of the United States, in New Jersey, incorporated in 1784. It is situated on the S. W. bank of Rariton river, 12 miles above Perth-Amboy. Its situation is low and unpleasant, being under a high hill, which rises at the back of the town. The ice, on the breaking up of the river in winter, frequently lodges on the shallow fording place, just opposite the town, and forms a temporary dam, which makes the water rise many feet above its usual height, and overflow the ground floors of the houses that are not guarded against this inconvenience by elevated foundations. The inhabitants are beginning to build on the pleasant hill above the town. They have a considerable inland trade, and many small vessels belonging to the port: with a flourishing college, called Queen's College. This city is 10 miles N. E. of Philadelphia, and 35 S. W. of New York. Lon. 75. 0. W. Lat. 40. 20. N.

(IV.) BRUNSWICK, a county of Virginia, containing 12,827 inhabitants, of whom 6,776 are slaves. It is bounded N. by Dinwiddie, E. and S. E. by Greenville, W. by Mecklenburg, and N. W. by Lunenburg. It is 38 miles in length, and 33 in breadth. A district court is held here the 29th of April and September, for the counties of Brunswick, Greenville, Lunenburg, and Mecklenburg; and a county court for Brunswick the 4th Monday in every month. It is well watered by Nottaway, and Meherrin rivers.

(V.) BRUNSWICK, a maritime county of Wilmington district, North Carolina, and the most southerly county in that state. It is bounded E. by Cape-Fear river, which separates it from New Hanover, N. by Bladen, S. W. by the State of South Carolina, and S. by the Atlantic ocean. It

contains 1,560 free inhabitants, and 1,511 slaves. In this county is the Wakkamaw, a beautiful lake about 7 miles in length, and 5 in breadth; and at the south of the lake, is Greenswamp, a large body of valuable rice land. The chief town is Smithville.

(VI.) **BRUNSWICK**, a small post-town of the United States, in Maine district; situated in Cumberland county. It is 155 miles from Boston, and 61 from Philadelphia.

(VII.) **BRUNSWICK**, a small town of North Carolina; situated in the above county, on the W. side of Cape Fear river, about 9 miles N. of Fort Johnson, and 17 S. W. of Wilmington. It was formerly the residence of some of the regal governors. Lon. 3. 13. W. Lat. 34. 6. N.

(VIII.) **BRUNSWICK**, a town of the United States, in Georgia, where the Turtle river enters St Simon's sound. It has a safe harbour, capable of containing a numerous fleet of men of war; and even the bar, at the entrance, has depth enough for the largest. The town is regularly laid out, but not yet completed. From its advantageous situation, and the fertility of the back country, it promises to be hereafter one of the first trading towns in Georgia. It is 70 miles S. W. by W. of Savannah. Lon. 81. 0. W. Lat. 31. 10. N.

(IX) **BRUNSWICK FAMILY**. The illustrious house of Brunswick owes its origin to Azo II. of the family of Este, son of Hugo III. marquis of Ferrara in Italy. Azo, who died in 1055, left by his wife Cunegonde, daughter and heiress to Guelf III. duke of Bavaria, a son, Guelf IV. who was great-grandfather to Henry the Lion. His son Guelf V. surnamed the Valiant, was created duke of Bavaria by the Emperor Henry II. His son, Guelf VI. married Matilda, the richest heiress in Europe; but having no issue, his brother Henry the Black succeeded to his dominions. He died in 1125, having married Wulfhild daughter of Magnus, last duke of Saxony, of the Bulling family, by whom he had Henry the Proud, who succeeded to Bavaria in 1137; and he having married a daughter of the emperor Lotharius, his father-in-law granted him investiture of Saxony, and meant him for his successor in the empire; but this last he was disappointed of. Dying in 1139, both Saxony and Bavaria devolved on his son Henry V. surnamed the Lion. He married Maude, eldest daughter of Henry II. of England, and is considered as the founder of the Brunswick family. It is remarkable, that our present sovereign should be descended from one of the best of the English monarchs, in whom were united the royal Anglo-Saxon and Norman blood. The dominions possessed by Henry the Lion were the most extensive of any prince of his time; but, having refused to assist the emperor Frederick Barbarossa, in a war against Pope Alexander III. all his former services were forgotten; and in the diet of Wurtzburg in 1190 or 1180, he was proscribed. The duchy of Bavaria was given to Otho count Wittlepatch, from whom is descended the present electoral family of Bavaria; the duchy of Saxony to Bernard Ascanius, founder of the house of Anhalt; and all his other territories to different persons. On this he retired to England; and by his father's intercession, Brunswick and Lunenburg were restored

to him. His wife Maude died in 1189, and he in 1195. He left three sons; but the two eldest not leaving any male issue, William, the third son, carried on the line of the family: and his son Otho was created duke of Brunswick and Lunenburg in 1235, by the emperor Ferdinand II. From him all the succeeding dukes of this family have descended. No family can boast of a line of princes who have more distinguished themselves, both by their political abilities and martial achievements; and they are allied to all the principal families in Europe. The house of Brunswick is divided into several branches. The present duke of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle is sprung from the eldest; the duke of Brunswick Zell was from the second; and from this last sprung the elector of Hanover.

(X.) **BRUNSWICK, NEW**, the N. W. division of Nova Scotia, which, in 1784, was divided into two provinces. New Brunswick is bounded on the W. of the river St Croix, by the said river to its source, and by a line drawn due N. thence to the S. boundary of Canada; to the N. by the same boundary as far as the W. extremity of the bay of Chaleurs; to the E. by the said bay to the gulf of St Lawrence to the bay called Bay Verte; to the S. by a line in the centre of the bay of Fundy, from the river St Croix to the mouth of the Musquat river, by the said river to its source, and thence by a due E. line across the isthmus into the Bay Verte to join the E. lot above described, including all islands within six leagues of the coast. Since the conclusion of the American war, the emigration of loyalists to this province, from the United States has been very great.

* **BRUNT**. *n. s.* [*brunſt*, Dutch.] 1. Shock; violence.—Erona chose rather to bide the *brunt* of war, than venture him. *Sidney*.—

God, who caus'd a fountain, at thy pray'r,
From the dry ground to spring, thy thirst t' allay
After the *brunt* of battle. *Milton*.
—Faithful ministers are to stand and endure the *brunt*: a common soldier may fly, when it is the duty of him that holds the standard to die upon the place. *South*, 2. Blow; stroke.—

A wicked ambush which lay hidden long
In the close covert of her guileful eyes,
Thence breaking forth, did thick about me throng,
Too feeble I t' abide the *brunt* so strong. *Spens*.
The friendly rug preserv'd the ground,
And headlong knight, from bruise or wound,
Like feather bed betwixt a wall
And heavy *brunt* of cannon-ball. *Hudibras*.

BRUNTHORP, a village in Lincolnshire, 2 m. S. E. of Alford.

BRUNTISLAND. See **BURNTISLAND**.

BRUNTON, a village in Northumberland, near Dunstaburg castle.

BRURY, a town of Ireland, in Limerick.

BRUSCHIUS, Gaspar, a Latin historian and poet, born at Egra in Bohemia, in 1518. He was devoted to books from his childhood, and especially to poetry, in which he gained so much reputation, that he attained to the poetical crown, to the dignity of poet laureat, and of count palatine. He wrote with prodigious facility; and his verses are easy, and natural. He published Latin poems on

on various subjects; the history of the bishops and bishoprics of Germany; of German monasteries; and many other works, of which a catalogue is given in Gefner's *Bibliothèque*. He was very poor, subsisting almost entirely by the benefactions of his poetical patrons, and by presents from the abbots whose monasteries he described. The liberality of some abbots at Basil enabled him to buy a new suit of clothes; but when he found that appearing well dressed in the streets procured him respect from the vulgar, he tore his new finery to pieces, "as slaves that had usurped their master's honours." Bruschius seems to have been too great a philosopher for the age he lived in. He was murdered in the forest of Scalingenbach, between Rottemberg and Wunsheim, by some gentlemen (it was supposed,) against whom he was about to write something.

BRUSCIA, } in writers of the middle age, a
BRUSCUS, } small thicket or coppice.

BRUSEBRIDGE, near Worsop, Nottingham.

(1.) * BRUSH. *n. f.* [*broffe*, from *bruscus*, Lat.]

1. An instrument to clean any thing, by rubbing off the dirt or soil. It is generally made of bristles set in wood. 2. It is used for the larger and stronger pencils used by painters.—Whence comes all this rage of wit? this arming all the pencils and *brushes* of the town against me? *Stillingfleet*.—With a small *brush* you must smear the glue well upon the joint of each piece. *Moxon*. 3. A rude assault; a shock; rough treatment; which, by the same metaphor, we call a *scouring*.—

Let grow thy sinews till their knots be strong,
And tempt not yet the *brushes* of the war.

Shakespeare.

—It could not be possible, that, upon so little a *brush* as Waller had sustained, he could not be able to follow and disturb the king. *Clarendon*.—

Else when we put it to the pith,

They had not giv'n us such a *brush*. *Hudibras*.

(2.) BRUSH, [from *bruscia*,] also denotes a small thicket or coppice.

(3.) BRUSH, in electricity, denotes the luminous appearance of the electric matter issuing in a parcel of diverging rays from a point. Beccaria ascribes this appearance to the force with which the electric fluid, going out of a point, divides the contiguous air, and passes through it to that which is more remote.

(4.) BRUSHES, METHOD OF MAKING. This is done by folding the hair or bristle in two; and bringing it by means of a packthread, which is engaged in the fold, through the holes with which the wood is pierced all over, being afterwards fastened therein with glue. When the holes are thus filled, the ends of the hair are cut to make the surface even.

(5.) BRUSH OF A FOX, among sportsmen, signifies his drag or tail.

(6.) BRUSH, PAINTERS. See § 1. *def.* 2. The Chinese painters brush consists of the stalk of a plant; whose fibres being fretted at both ends, and tied again, serve for a brush.

(7.) BRUSH, SHEARMENS, is made of wild boar's bristles; and serves to lay the wool or nap of cloth, after shearing it for the last time.

(8.) BRUSH, WIRE, is made of brass or iron wires instead of hair. These are used by silver-smiths

and gilders, for scrubbing silver, copper, or brass pieces, previous to the gilding of them.

(1.) * To BRUSH. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To sweep or rub with a brush.—If he be not in love with some woman, there is no believing old fish, he *brushes* his hat o' morning; what should that bode? *Shakespeare*. 2. To strike with quickness, as in brushing.—

The wrathful beast about him turned light,
And him so rudely passing by, did *brush*
With his long tail, that horse and man to ground
did rush. *Spenser's Fairy Queen*.

Has Somnus *brush'd* thy eyelids with his roe?
Dryden.

His son Cupavo *brush'd* the briny flood,
Upon his stern a brawny centaur stood. *Dryden*.

High o'er the billows flew the massy load,
And near the ship came thund'ring on the flood
It almost *brush'd* the helm. *Pope*.

3. To paint with a brush.—You have commissioned me to paint your shop, and I have done my best to *brush* you up like your neighbours. *Pope*. 4. To carry away, by an act like that of brushing, to sweep.—

And from the boughs *brush* of the evil dew,
And heal the harms of thwarting thunder blue.

Milton.

—The receptacle of waters, into which the mouth of all rivers must empty themselves, ought to have so spacious a surface, that as much water may be continually *brushed* off by the winds, and exhale by the sun, as, besides what falls again, is brought into it by all the rivers. *Bentley*. 5. To move with the brush.—

A thousand nights have *brush'd* their bairn
wings

Over these eyes. *Dryden*.

(2.) * To BRUSH. *v. n.* 1. To move with haste a ludicrous word, applied to men.—

Nor wept his fate, nor cast a pitying eye,
Nor took him down, but *brush'd* regardless by.

Dryden.

The French had gather'd all their force,
And William met them in their way;

Yet off they *brush'd*, both foot and horse. *Pope*.

2. To fly over; to skim lightly.—

Nor love is always of a vicious kind,
But oft to virtuous acts inflames the mind,
Awakes the sleepy vigour of the soul,
And, *brushing* o'er, adds motion to the pool.

Dryden.

* BRUSHER. *n. f.* [from *brush*.] He that uses a brush.—Sir Henry Wotton used to say, that critics were like *brushers* of noblemen's cloaths. *Bacon*.

BRUSHFORD, a village in Devonshire, S. of Winkley.

BRUSHING GALLOP, among jockies, denotes a brisk one: a horse should have his brushing gallop in a morning before watering.

BRUSHMENT, *n. f.* in old records, under-wood.

* BRUSHWOOD. *n. f.* [from *brush* and *wood*.] I know not whether it may not be corrupted from *browsewood*.] Rough, low, close, shrubby thickets; small wood fit for fire.—

It smokes, and then with trembling breath she
blows,

Till in a cheerful blaze the flames arose.
With *brushwood*, and with chips, she strengthens these,
And adds at last the boughs of rotten trees.

Dryden.

* **BRUSHY.** *adj.* [from *brush*.] Rough or shaggy, like a brush.—I suspected, that it might have proceeded from some small unheeded drop of oil, wiped off by the *brushy* substance of the rive, from the knife wherewith it was cut.

BRUSIARD, a village in Suffolk, 4 m. N. E. Framlingham.

BRUSK. *adj.* in heraldry, tawny.

BRUSKETH, a river in Cumberland, which runs into the Eden, near Carlisle.

BRUSSELS, a city of France, in the ci-devant Austrian Netherlands, now the capital of the new department of Dyle. Under the Austrian government, it was the capital of Brabant, and generally seat of the governor. The small river Senne flows through it. It is a rich and handsome city; and among the public structures, the palace, the town-house, and the arsenal, are most superb.—This city in Europe, except Naples and Genoa, makes a finer appearance at a distance: but, like them, it is all up and down hill. It is encompassed with a double brick wall, and has 7 gates; the being 7 miles in compass, is too large to hold out a long siege. In Brussels are 7 fine squares and market places; that of the great market is one of the most beautiful in the world. The town-house takes up one quarter of it; and has a very high steeple, on the top of which is a brazen statue of St Michael, 15 feet high. In 3 of the rooms there is the history of the resignation of Charles V. wrought in tapestry; which is so well done, that it may be mistaken for painting. In the other parts of this square are the halls of the different orders, and several ancient palaces. The opera-house is built after the Italian manner, with rows of boxes, in which are chimneys. One is covered with looking glass, so that company can sit by the fire, drink a bottle, and see what is doing.—There are 20 public fountains, adorned with statues, at the corners of the most public streets; and in the middle of the town house is one with Neptune, the tritons, and the horses spouting water from their nostrils. In the lower part of the city, there are several canals for the shipping.—One in particular was cut from the Scheldt, 15 miles from the city, and cost 1,800,000 dollars. By this canal vessels can pass between Brussels and Antwerp. The hospitals are well endowed; some of them are for the maintenance of strangers for days. There is also a foundling hospital, and one for penitent courtezans. Among the churches, that of St Gudula is very magnificent. It stands on the top of a hill, near the gate of Louvain, and is surrounded with iron ballustrades.—This is an old Gothic structure, with two large temples at the east end, and is finely adorned within. The Jesuits had a fine church as well as library. In 1695, Brussels was bombarded by Marshal Villeroy, who demolished 4000 houses, the Radthouze, and several churches. In 1708, it was besieged by the elector of Bavaria; but the Duke of Marlborough obliged him to raise the siege.

VOL. IV. PART II.

with precipitation. Marshal Saxe, the French general, took it in 1746; but it was restored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. It was taken by the French republican army in 1792; retaken by the Austrians, in March 1793; but recovered soon after by the French, of whose republic it is now a constituent part. Brussels has long been celebrated for its manufactures of laces, camblets, and tapestry. It is 21 miles S. of Antwerp, 26 S. E. of Ghent, and 148 N. by E. of Paris. Lon. 4. 28. E. Lat. 50. 51. N.

(2.) **BRUSSELS**, a ci-devant district of the Austrian Netherlands, was one of the 4 quarters of the duchy of Brabant. It was bounded on the E. by that of Louvain; on the N. by Antwerp; on the W. by that of Flanders; and on the S. by Hainault. It is now annexed to France.

BRUSTIN, *adj. obs.* Burst; broken. *Chaucer.*

* **To BRUSTLE.** *v. n.* [*brustban*, Saxon.] To crackle; to make a small noise. *Skinner.*

* **BRUTAL.** *adj.* [*brutal*, French; from *brute*.] 1. That which belongs to a brute; that which we have in common with brutes.—There is no opposing *brutal* force to the stratagems of human reason: *L'Esrange.* 2. Savage; cruel; inhuman.

The *brutal* business of the war

Is manag'd by thy dreadful servants care.

Dryden.

* **BRUTALITY.** *n. f.* [*brutalité*, Fr.] Savageness; churlishness; inhumanity.—Courage, in an ill bred man, has the air, and escapes not the opinion of *brutality*. *Locke.*

(1.) * **To BRUTALIZE.** *v. a.* To make brutal or savage.

(2.) * **To BRUTALIZE.** *v. n.* [*brutaliser*, Fr.] To grow brutal or savage.—Upon being carried to the Cape of Good Hope, he mixed, in a kind of transport, with his countrymen, *brutalized* with them in their habit and manners, and would never again return to his foreign acquaintance. *Ad-dijon.*

* **BRUTALLY.** *adv.* [from *brutal*.] Churlishly; inhumanly; cruelly.—Mrs Bull aimed a knife at John, though John threw a bottle at her head, very *brutally* indeed. *Arbuthnot.*

(1.) * **BRUTE.** *adj.* [*brutus*, Latin.] 1. Senseless; unconscious.—Nor yet are we so low and base as their atheism would depress us; not walking statues of clay, not the sons of *brute* earth, whose final inheritance is death and corruption. *Bentley.* 2. Savage; irrational; ferine.—Even *brute* animals make use of this artificial way of making divers motions, to have several significations to call, warn, chide, cherish, threaten. *Holder.*—In the promulgation of the Mosaic law, if so much as a *brute* beast touched the mountain, it was to be struck through with a dart. *South.* 3. Bestial; in common with beasts.—

Then to subdue, and quell, through all the earth,

Brute violence, and proud tyrannick power.

Milton.

4. Rough; ferocious; uncivilized.—

The *brute* philosopher, who ne'er has prov'd
The joy of loving, or of being lov'd. *Pope.*

(2.) * **BRUTE.** *n. f.* [from the adjective.] An irrational creature; a creature without reason; a savage.—

111

What

What may this mean? Language of man pronounced

By tongue of *brute*, and human sense express'd!

Milton.

—To those three present impulses, of sense, memory and instinct, most, if not all, the sagacities of *brutes* may be reduced. *Hale*.—*Brutes* may be considered as either aerial, terrestrial, aquatick, or amphibious. I call those aerial, which have wings, wherewith they can support themselves in the air; terrestrial are those whose only place of rest is upon the earth; aquatick are those, whose constant abode is upon the water. *Locke*.—

Heav'n from all creatures hides the book of fate,

All but the page prescrib'd this present state;
From *brutes* what men, from men what spirits know;

Or who could suffer being here below? *Pope*.

(3.) BRUTE is a general name for all animals except mankind. Among brutes, the monkey kind bear the nearest resemblance to man; both in the external shape and internal structure, but more in the former than in the latter. In the monkey kind, the nearest approach to the likeness of man is the Oran Outang, or *Homo Sylvestris*. See SIMIA. The structure and economy of brutes make the objects of what is called COMPARATIVE ANATOMY. See that article.

(4.) BRUTES, DIFFERENT OPINIONS CONCERNING. Philosophers have been much puzzled about the essential characteristics of brutes, by which they may be distinguished from man. Some define a brute to be an *animal not risible*, or a *living creature incapable of laughter*; others call them *mute animals*. The peripateticks allowed them a sensitive power, but denied them a rational one. The Platonists allowed them reason and understanding, though in a degree less pure and refined than that of men. Lactantius allows every thing to brutes which men have except a sense of religion; and even this has been ascribed to them by some sceptics. Des Cartes maintained, that brutes are mere inanimate machines, absolutely destitute not only of reason but of all thought and perception, and that all their actions are only consequences of the exquisite mechanism of their bodies. This system, however, is much older than Des Cartes; it was borrowed by him from Gomez Pereira, a Spanish physician, who employed 30 years in composing a treatise which he intitled *Antoniana Margarita*, from the Christian names of his father and mother. It was published in 1554: but his opinion had not the honour of gaining partizans, or even of being refuted; so that it died with him. Even Pereira seems not to have been the inventor of this notion; something like it having been held by some of the ancients, as we find from Plutarch and St Augustin. Others, who rejected the Cartesian hypothesis, have maintained that brutes are endowed with a soul essentially inferior to that of men; and to this soul some have allowed immortality, others not. And, lastly, in a treatise published by Bougeant, a Jesuit, intitled, *A philosophical amusement on the language of beasts*, he affirms that they are animated by evil spirits or devils. In proof of this, he urges many ingenious metaphysical arguments; but

the reply to them all may be made in very few words. Though some beasts are remarkably mischievous, the generality are not so; they are in many instances capable of gratitude and love, which devils cannot possibly be. The very same passions that are in the brutes exist in the human nature; and if we chose to argue from the existence of those passions, and the ascendancy they have over mankind at some times, we may say, with as great or greater justice, that the souls of men are *devils*, as that the souls of brutes are.—All that can be reasonably inferred, from the greater prevalency of the malignant passions among the brutes than among men, is, that the former have less rationality than men: and accordingly it is found, that among savages, who exercise their reason less than other men, every species of barbarity is practised, without being deemed a crime.

(5.) BRUTES, HYPOTHESIS OF M. DES CARTES RESPECTING. The opinion of Des Cartes (3.) was probably adopted by him, to defeat two great objections; one against the immortality of the souls of brutes, if they were allowed to have any; the other against the goodness of God, in suffering creatures who have never sinned, to be subjected to so many miseries. The arguments in favour may be thus stated: 1. It is certain that many human actions are merely mechanical; because they are done imperceptibly to the agent, and without any direction from the will; which are to be ascribed to the impression of objects and the primordial disposition of the machine, where in the influence of the soul has no share; of which number are all habits of the body acquired from the reiteration of certain actions. In all such circumstances, human beings are no better than automata. 2. There are some natural movements so involuntary, that we cannot restrain them; for example, that admirable mechanism ever on the watch to preserve an equilibrium, when we stoop, bend, or incline our bodies, and when we walk upon a narrow plank, or are in danger of falling. 3. The natural liking for, and antipathy against certain objects, which in children precede the power of knowing and discriminating them, and which sometimes in grown persons triumph over all the efforts of reason; are all phenomena to be accounted for from the wonderful mechanism of the body, and are so many cogent proofs of that irresistible influence which objects have on the human frame. 4. Every one knows how much our passions depend on the degree of motion into which the blood is put, and the reciprocal impressions caused by the animal spirits between the heart and brain, that are so closely connected by their nerves; and if such effects may be produced by such simple mechanical means as the mere increase of motion in the blood, without any direction of the will, we are not to wonder at the actions of brutes being the effects only of a refined mechanism, without thought or perception. 5. A farther proof will arise from the consideration of many wonderful effects which even the ingenuity of men has contrived to bring out by mechanical means; the androides, for instance, of Mr Kempelen, which plays at chess. See ANDROIDES, § 3. and AUTOMATON, § 2. Now, it is not to be questioned, but that the mechanism of the bo-

of the meanest animal infinitely surpasses that of Mr Kempelen's machine; and therefore the actions of that animal must be proportionally more surprising than those of the wooden chess-player.

(6.) BRUTES, M. DES CARTES'S NOTIONS OF, REFUTED. The above (§ 5.) is a short abstract of all the arguments that are brought in favour of the Cartesian system: but they are evidently very far from being conclusive. They are deficient, first, because, though we allow them in the utmost extent the Cartesians can desire, they prove only the possibility of brutes being inanimate, and that the power of God actually could produce such and such actions from inanimate machines; but that he actually hath done so, they have not the least tendency to prove. 2. The Cartesian argument is insufficient, because it hath no limits, and knows not where to stop; for by the same method of arguing, every man might prove his neighbour to be an inanimate machine: for though every individual be conscious of his own thoughts, he is not so of others; and it no more exceeds the power of God to cause an inanimate machine perform the actions of a man, than those of a beast. Neither are the two objections which the hypothesis is calculated to answer, to be at all admitted as arguments in its favour. They are, 1. That if we allow brutes to have souls, they must be immaterial, and consequently immortal; and, 2. It seems a contradiction to the goodness of God, that he should subject innocent creatures to such a multitude of evils as we see the brutes endure in this world. The first of these is productive of no bad consequence to us, though it should be granted: and if it is supposed that the brute creatures are really immortal, the second objection vanishes; because, in the enjoyment of endless felicity, all temporary afflictions, how severe soever, must be swallowed up as though they had never been. As to a positive proof on the other side, viz. that brutes are really endowed with sensation and consciousness, there is undoubtedly the same evidence for the sensibility of brutes, that there is for that of mankind. We see brutes avoid pain as much as we do; and seek for pleasure, and express their happiness in the enjoyment of certain things, by signs not at all equivocal. Therefore, though we grant the possibility of all this being the effect of mere mechanism; yet, as we are conscious that in ourselves similar effects are produced by a sentient principle, we have every reason to conclude, that in brutes they are derived from a similar principle; especially as we know no kind of mechanism in any other part of nature that produces any thing like the effects just mentioned; and until we see a mechanism of this kind in some part of nature, we have no right to suppose it in any. As to those actions of the human body in which it seems to move spontaneously, like an automaton, without the direction of the mind or will, it is certain, that they were not performed in this manner originally, but required very great exertions of the will and intellectual faculty, before the body could be brought to perform them easily; so that from this nothing can be inferred. Add to this, that divine revelation sets forth to us in many places the brute creation as objects of mercy; which could not be done without the

highest absurdity, if they were not really capable of feeling and pain as well as we. Thus it is past a doubt, that brutes are endowed with a principle of sensation as well as we; though of an inferior nature to ours. But great disputes have arisen on this subject; some maintaining, that the souls of brutes are merely sensitive, and that they are altogether destitute of reflection and understanding; others, that they not only reason, but make a better use of it than men do. That the brutes are endowed only with sensation, and totally destitute of all power of reflection, or even reasoning, is what can by no means be maintained: neither can it be asserted that they act entirely from instinct, or a blind propensity, without knowing why. In numberless instances, which will readily occur to every reader, it is evident, that education will get the better of many of the natural instincts of brutes; which could never be the case were they absolutely incapable of reasoning. On the other hand, it is equally certain, that they are by no means capable of education in the same degree that men are; neither are their rational exertions at all to be compared even with those of the meanest savages. One remarkable instance of this is in the use of fire. The most savage nations have known how to make this element subservient to their purposes; or if some have been found entirely ignorant of its existence, they have quickly learned its uses on seeing it made use of by others: but though many of the brute creatures are delighted with warmth, and have opportunities every-day of seeing how fire is supplied with fuel, and by that means preserved, it never was known that one of them attempted to preserve a fire by this means. This shows a strange defect of rationality, unaccountable upon any other supposition, than that the soul or sentient principle of brutes is some how or other inferior in its nature to that of man; but still it is a sentient principle, capable of preceptions as quick, and in many instances much more so than our own.

(7.) BRUTES, PROF. BERGMAN'S RESEARCHES INTO THE NATURE OF. There is a very ingenious treatise in German, published by the late professor Bergman, entitled "Researches designed to show what the Brute Animals certainly are not, and also what they probably are." That they are not machines, he proves with more detail than seems necessary for refuting a hypothesis which would equally tend to make us all machines. It is certain, that the *half-reasoning* elephant cannot be deemed a machine by us, from any other consideration, than that *he* goes upon four feet, while *we* go upon two; and he might as well take us for mere machines because *we* go upon two feet, while *he* goes upon four. But if animals are not mere machines, what are they? Manifestly sensitive beings, with an immaterial principle; and thinking or reasoning beings, to a certain degree. In certain classes of animals this appears evident to Sir T. Bergman, who seems to have observed with great sagacity and attention their various operations, their ways and means, &c. He thinks it impossible to deduce this variety of action, in any animals, (if we except those of the lowest classes in the gradation of intelligence,) from a general and uniform instinct. For they accommodate their operations to times and

circumstances. They combine; they choose their favourable moment; and receive instruction by experience. Many of their operations announce reflection: the bird repairs a shattered nest, instead of constructing instinctively a new one: the hen, who has been robbed of her eggs, changes her place in order to lay the remainder with more security: the cat discovers both care and artifice in concealing her kittens. Again, it is evident, that, on many occasions, animals know their faults and mistakes, and correct them; they sometimes contrive the most ingenious methods of obtaining their ends, and when one method fails have recourse to another; and they have, without doubt, a kind of language for the mutual communication of their ideas. How is all this to be accounted for, (says Bergman,) unless we suppose them endowed with the powers of perceiving, thinking, remembering, comparing, and judging? They have these powers, indeed, in a degree inferior to that in which they are possessed by the human species, and form classes below them in the scale of intelligent beings. But still it seems unreasonable to exclude them from the place which the principles of sound philosophy, and facts ascertained by constant observation, assign to them in the great and diversified sphere of life, sensation, and intelligence. He does not, however, consider them as beings whose actions are directed to *moral* ends, nor consequently as accountable and proper subjects for *reward* or *punishment* in a future world. That brutes possess reflection and sentiment, and are susceptible of the kindly as well as the irascible passions, independently of sexual attachment and natural affection, is evident from the numerous instances of gratitude daily observable in different animals particularly the dog. Of those and other sentiments, such as pride, and even a sense of glory, the elephant exhibits proofs equally surprising and indubitable, as the reader may see under the article ELEPHAS.

(8.) BRUTES, REMARKABLE STRENGTH OF AFFECTION IN. Mr White, in his *Natural History, &c. of Selborne*, speaking of the natural affection of brutes, says "the more I reflect on it the more I am astonished at its effects. Nor is the violence of this affection more wonderful than the shortness of its duration. Thus every hen is in her turn the virago of the yard, in proportion to the helplessness of her brood; and will fly in the face of a dog or a sow in defence of those chickens, which in a few weeks she will drive before her with relentless cruelty. This affection sublimates the passions, quickens the invention, and sharpens the sagacity of the brute creation. Thus an hen, just become a mother, is no longer that placid bird she used to be, but with feather standing on end, wings hovering, and clucking note, she runs about like one possessed. Dams will throw themselves in the way of the greatest danger in order to avert it from their progeny. Thus a partridge will tumble along before a sportsman, in order to draw away the dogs from her helpless covey. In the time of nidification the most feeble birds will assault the most rapacious. All the hirundines of a village are up in arms at the sight of a hawk, whom they will persecute till he leaves that district. A very exact observer has often re-

marked, that a pair of ravens nestling in the of Gibraltar would suffer no vulture or eagle to rest near their station, but would drive them from the hill with an amazing fury: even the thrush at the season of breeding would drive the tit from the clefts of the rocks, to chase away the lark or the sparrow hawk. If you stand near the nest of a bird that has young, she will not be induced to betray them by an inadvertent look, but will wait about at a distance with her beak open for an hour together. The flycatcher builds every year in the vines that grow on the walls of my house. A pair of these little birds had one year inadvertently placed their nest on a naked bough, perhaps in a shady time, not aware of the inconvenience that followed: a hot sunny season coming on before the brood was half fledged, the reflection of the wall became insupportable, and must inevitably have destroyed the tender young, had not affection suggested an expedient, and prompted the parent bird to hover over the nest all the hotter hours, with wings expanded and mouths gaping, so that by their breath they screened off the heat for their young offspring. A farther instance I once observed in a willow wren, which I built in a bank in my fields. This bird and myself had observed as she sat in her nest, and were particularly careful not to disturb her, till we saw she eyed us with some degree of jealousy. Some days after, as we passed that way, we were desirous of remarking how this brood went on, but no nest could be found, till I happened to take up a large bundle of long green moss, which were carelessly thrown over the nest, in order to dodge the eye of any impertinent intruder."

(9.) BRUTES, SURPRISING INSTANCES OF SOCIALITY IN. A wonderful spirit of sociality in the brute creation, independent of sexual attachment, has been frequently remarked. Many birds though quiet with company, will not stay one minute in a field by themselves; the strongest cannot restrain them. A horse has been known to leap out at a stable window, through which dung was thrown, after company; and yet in other respects was remarkably quiet. Oxen and cows will not fatten by themselves; but will neglect the finest pasture that is not recommended by society. It would be needless to instance sheep, which constantly flock together. But this propensity seems not to be confined to animals of the same species. Mr White mentions "a doe that was brought up from a little fawn with a dairy of cows. With them it goes a-field, and with them it returns to the yard. The dogs of the house take no notice of this doe, being used to her; but if strange dogs come by, a challenge is given; while the master smiles to see his favourite securely leading her pursuers over hedge, or gate, or stile, till she returns to the cows, who with their fierce lowings and menacing horns drive the assailants quite out of the pasture." Even the disparity of kind and size does not always prevent social advances and mutual fellowship. Of the following remarkable instance is given by the same author. "A very intelligent and observant person has assured me, that in the former part of his life, keeping but one horse, he happened at

time to have but one solitary hen. These incongruous animals spent much of their time together, in a lonely orchard, where they saw no one but each other. By degrees an apparent friendship began to take place between these two feathered individuals. The fowl would approach the quadruped with notes of complacency, rub herself gently against his legs; while the horse would look down with satisfaction, and move with the greatest caution and circumspection, lest he should trample on his diminutive companion. By mutual good offices each seemed to contribute to the vacant hours of the other." In the *Gen. Mag.* for March 1788, we have the following anecdotes of a raven, communicated by a correspondent who does not sign his name, saying it is at the service of the doubtful. The bird alluded to "lives, or did live 3 years since, a red lion at Hungerford; his name, I think, was Rafe. You must know then, that coming into my chaise run over or bruised the leg of a Newfoundland dog; and while we were examining the injury done the dog's foot, Rafe was constantly a concerned spectator; for the minute the dog was tied up under the manger with my horse, he not only visited him, but fetched him bones, attended upon him with particular and repeated marks of kindness. The bird's notice of the dog was so marked, that I observed it to the hostler; for I had not heard a word before of the ploy of this benevolent creature. John then told me, that he had been bred from his pin-feathers in intimacy with a dog; that the affection between them was mutual; and that all the neighbourhood had often been witnesses of the innumerable acts of kindness they had conferred upon each other. Rafe's poor dog, after a while, unfortunately broke his leg; and during the long time he was confined, Rafe waited upon him constantly, carried him provisions daily, and never scarce left him alone! One night by accident the hostler had shut the stable door, and Rafe was deprived of the company of his friend the whole night; but the hostler found in the morning the bottom of the door so pecked away, that had it not been opened, Rafe would in another hour have made his own entrance port. I then enquired of my landlady (a sensible woman,) and heard what I have related confirmed by her, with several other singular traits of the kindnesses this bird shows to all dogs in general, but particularly to maimed or wounded ones. I hope and believe, however, the bird is still living; and the traveller will find I have not over-rated this wonderful bird's merit." To these instances of attachment between incongruous animals from a spirit of sociality or the feelings of sympathy, may be added the following instance of fondness from a different motive, recounted by Mr White in the work already so often quoted. "My friend had a little helpless leveret brought to him, which the servants fed with milk in a spoon; and about the same time his cat kittenened, and the young were dispatched and buried. The hare was soon lost, and supposed to be gone the way of most foundlings, or to be killed by some dog or cat. However, in about a fortnight, as the master was sitting in his garden in the dusk of the evening, he observed his cat,

with tail erect, trotting towards him, and calling with little short inward notes of complacency, such as they use towards their kittens, and something gambling after, which proved to be the leveret which the cat had supported with her milk, and continued to support with great affection. Thus, was a graminivorous animal nurtured by a carnivorous and predaceous one! why so cruel and sanguinary a beast as a cat, of the ferocious genus of *Felis*, the *murium leo*, (the lion of the mice,) as Linnaeus calls it, should be affected with any tenderness towards an animal which is its natural prey, is not so easy to determine. The strange affection probably was occasioned by that desiderium, those tender maternal feelings, which the loss of her kittens had awakened in her breast; and by the complacency and ease she derived to herself from the procuring her teats to be drawn, which were too much distended with milk, till from habit she became as much delighted with this foundling, as if it had been her real offspring. This incident is no bad solution of that strange circumstance which grave historians as well the poets assert, of exposed children being sometimes nurtured by female wild beasts that probably had lost their young. For it is not one whit more marvellous that Romulus and Remus, in their infant state, should be nursed by a she wolf, than that a poor little sucking leveret should be fostered and cherished by a bloody grimalkin."

(10.) BRUTES, UNACCOUNTABLE FACULTIES POSSESSED BY SOME. Besides the different qualities enumerated, (§ 9.) besides reflection and sagacity often in an astonishing degree, and besides the sentiments and actions prompted by social or natural attachments, brutes seem on many occasions inspired with a superior faculty, a kind of presentiment or second sight as it were, with regard to events and designs altogether unforeseen by the rational beings whom they concern. Of the faculty alluded to, various instances will probably consist with the knowledge or recollection of most of our readers: We shall therefore only recite the following on account of its unquestionable authenticity. At the seat of the late earl of Lichfield, 3 miles from Blenheim, there is a portrait in the dining-room of Sir Henry Lee, by Johnston, with that of a mastiff dog which saved his life. A servant had formed the design of assassinating his master and robbing the house; but the night he had fixed on, the dog, which had never been much noticed by Sir Henry, for the first time followed him up stairs, got under his bed, and could not be got from thence by either master or man: in the dead of night, the same servant entered the room to execute his horrid design; but was instantly seized by the dog, and being secured confessed his intentions. Upon what hypothesis can we account for a degree of foresight and penetration such as this? Will it be suggested, as a solution of the difficulty, that a dog may possibly become capable in great measure of understanding human discourse, and of reasoning and acting accordingly; and that, in the present instance, the villain had either uttered his design in soliloquy, or imparted it to an accomplice, in the hearing of the animal? It has been disputed whether the brutes have any language

Whereby they can express their minds to each other; or whether all the noise they make consists only of cries inarticulate, and unintelligible even to themselves. We are, however, too little acquainted with the intellectual faculties of these creatures to be able to determine the point. Certain it is, that their passions, when excited, are generally productive of some peculiar cry, but whether this be designed as an expression of the passion to others, or only a mechanical motion of the muscles of the larynx occasioned by the passion, is what we have no means of knowing. We may indeed, from analogy, conclude, with great reason, that some of the cries of beasts are really expressions of their sentiments; but whether one beast is capable of forming a design, and communicating that design by any kind of language to others, is what we submit to the judgment of the readers, after giving the following instance, which among others is brought as a proof of it by father Bougeant. "A sparrow, finding a nest that a martin had just built, standing very conveniently for him, possessed himself of it. The martin, seeing the usurper in her house, called for help to expel him. A thousand martins came full speed, and attacked the sparrow; but the latter being covered on every side, and presenting only his large beak at the entrance of the nest, was invulnerable, and made the boldest of them who durst approach him repent of their temerity. After a quarter of an hour's combat, all the martins disappeared. The sparrow thought he had got the better, and the spectators judged that the martins had abandoned the undertaking. Not in the least. Immediately they returned to the charge; and each of them having procured a little of that tempered earth with which they make their nests, they all at once fell upon the sparrow, and inclosed him in the nest to perish there, though they could not drive him thence. Can it be imagined that the martins could have been able to hatch and concert this design all of them together, without speaking to each other, or without some medium of communication equivalent to language?"

* *To BRUTE. v. a.* [written ill for *bruit*.] To report.—This, once *bruted* through the army, filled them all with heaviness. *Knolles*.

* *BRUTENESS. n. f.* [from *brute*.] Brutality: a word not now used.—

Thou dotard vile,
That with thy *bruteness* shend'st thy comely age.

Spenser.

(1.) *BRUTIA*, in ancient geography, a country in the extremity of Italy, from whence the pitch so named (N. a.) was denominated and originally obtained. *Plin. lib. xv. cap. 7.*

(2.) *BRUTIA*, in the medical writings of the ancients, the fattest and most resinous kind of pitch, such as was properest for making the oil of pitch, called *oleum picinum*.

* *To BRUTIFY. v. n.* [from *brute*.] To make a man a brute.—O thou fallacious woman! am I then *brutified*? Ay; feel it here; I sprout, I bud, I am ripe horn mad. *Congreve*.

BRUTII. See *BRUTII*.

BRUTILNESS, n. f. obs. brittleness. *Chauc.*

* *BRUTISH. adj.* [from *brute*.] 1. Bestial; resembling a beast.—

Osiris, Isis, Orus, and their train;
With monstrous shapes and sorceries abus'd
Fanatick Egypt, and her priests, to seek
Their wand'ring gods disguis'd in *brutish* forms.

Milton.

2. Having the qualities of a brute; rough; savage; ferocious.—Brutes, and *brutish* men, are commonly more able to bear pain than others. *Greav.* 3. Gross; carnal.—

For thou thyself hast been a libertine,
As sensual as the *brutish* sting itself. *Shaksp.*
—After he has slept himself into some use of himself, by much ado he staggers to his table again, and there acts over the same *brutish* scene. *Sout.*
4. Ignorant; untaught; uncivilized.—They were not so *brutish*, that they could be ignorant to call upon the name of God. *Hooker.*

* *BRUTISHLY. adv.* [from *brutish*.] In the manner of a brute, savagely; irrationally; grossly.—I am so diffident of myself, as *brutishly* to submit to any man's dictates. *King Charles*.—For a man to found a confident practice upon a disputable principle, is *brutishly* to outrun his reason. *South.*

* *BRUTISHNESS. n. f.* [from *brutish*.] Brutality; savageness.—All other courage, besides that, is not true valour, but *brutishness*. *Spratt.*

BRUTON: See *BRUTON*.

(1.) *BRUTII*, in ancient geography, one of the two peninsulas of Italy, the ancient Calabria being the other; stretching S. towards Sicily; bounded by the sea on every side except by the isthmus, between the river Laus and the Thurii, where it is terminated by Lucania; inhabited by the Bruttii, for whose country the ancient Romans had no peculiar name, calling both the people and the country indiscriminately *Bruttia*: though Mr Chambers styles the country *BAUTIA*, for which he quotes Pliny. This and a part of Lucania formed the ancient Italia. It was called *Ἰδρία*, which in Greek signifies *pitch*, from the great quantity of it produced there. It is divided into two coasts by the Apennine; that on the Tuscan and that on the Ionian Sea; and is now called *Calabria Ultra*. It now differs from the ancient Calabria or Messapia, on the east on the Adriatic sea, which formed the other peninsula or heel of the leg, now called *Calabria Citra*, the Bruttii forming the foot.

(2.) *BRUTII*, the people of *BRUTII*. N. 1. *BRUTTLE, n. f. obs.* under-wood.

BRUTTON, a town of Somersetshire, situated on the river Brue; and well inhabited. It is adorned with a very beautiful church; has a free school, founded by Edward I. and the almshouse or hospital is so elegant, that it has the appearance of a college. It is famous for malt and for a woollen manufactory of cloth and serges. It is 12 miles S. E. of Wells, and 109 W. of London. Lon. 2. 30. W. Lat. 51. 15. N.

(1.) *BRUTUS*, Lucius Junius, the avenger of the rape of Lucretia, and founder of the Roman republic, flourished about A. A. C. 509. See *ROME, HISTORY OF*.

(2.) *BRUTUS*, Marcus, the passionate lover of his country, and chief conspirator against Cæsar, slew himself on losing the battle of Philippi, A. C. 42. See *ROME, HISTORY OF*.

(3.) *BRU-*

(3.) **BRUTUS**, or **BRUTE**, according to the ancient fabulous history of this island, by Geoffroy of Monmouth, was the first king of Britain. He is said to have been the son of Sylvius, and grandson of Ascanius the son of Æneas, and born in Italy. Having accidentally killed his father, he fled into Greece, where he took king Pandrusus prisoner, who kept the Trojans in slavery, whom he released on condition of providing ships, &c. for the Trojans to emigrate with him. Being advised by the oracle to sail west beyond Gaul, he, after some adventures, landed at Totness in Devonshire. Albion was then inhabited by a remnant of giants, whom Brutus destroyed; and called the island, after his own name, **BRITAIN**. He built a city called *Troja Nova*, or *Troynovant*, now London; and having reigned 24 years, at his death divided the island among his 3 sons: Loqrine had the middle, called *Loegria*, now England; Camber had *Cambria*, now Wales; and Albanact *Albania*, now Scotland.

(4.) **BRUTUS**, Decimus Junius, one of the conspirators against Cæsar. He was slain by Marc Antony.

(5.) **BRUTUS**, John Michael, a man of learning, in the 16th century. He was born in Venice; and, having studied at Padua, spent great part of his life in travelling, and became historiographer to the Emperor. He wrote, 1. A history of Hungary. 2. A history of Florence. 3. Notes on Horace, Cæsar, Cicero, &c. and other works.

(6.) **BRUTUS**, Stephen Junius, the disguised author of a political work intitled *Vindiciæ contra tyrannos*. See **LANGUET**.

BRUYERE, John DE LA, a celebrated French author, born at Dourdan, in 1664. He wrote *Characters*, describing the manners of his age, in imitation of Theophrastus. These were not always imaginary, but descriptive, as was well known, of persons of considerable rank. In 1693, he was chosen a member of the French Academy, and died in 1696.—“The Characters of Bruyere (says Voltaire) may justly be ranked among the extraordinary productions of this age. Antiquity furnishes no example of such a work. A style rapid, concise, and nervous; expressions animated and picturesque; an use of language altogether new, without offending against its established rules, struck the public at first; and the allusions, which are crowded in almost every page, completed its success.” La Bruyere showed his work in M. S. to Malefieux, who told him, that the book would have many readers, and its author many enemies. It contains many things applicable to all times and places.

BRUYIERS, a town of France, in the department of Vosges, and ci-devant province of Lorraine; 22 m. S. by E. of Luneville, Lon. 6. 50. E. Lat. 48. 18. N.

BRUYN. See **BRUN**, N. 1.

BRY, **BREW**, or **BRUE**, a river in Somersetsh. which falls into the Bristol channel, in Bridge-water bay.

BRYANS-BRIDGE, a town in Ireland, in the county of Clare and province of Connaught, seated on the river Shannon, 8 miles N. of Limeric. Lon. 8. 30. W. Lat. 52. 31. N.

BRYANSTON, a village near Dublin.

BRYANT, Sir Francis, a soldier, statesman, and a poet, was born of a genteel family, educated at Oxford, and afterwards spent some time in travelling. In 1522, the 14th of Henry VIII. he attended the earl of Surrey to the coast of Brittany; and commanded the troops in the attack of Morlaix, which he took and burnt. For this service he was knighted on the spot by the earl. In 1529, he was sent ambassador to France; and, in 1530, to Rome on account of the king's divorce. He was gentleman of the privy chamber to Henry VIII. and to Edward VI. in the beginning of whose reign he marched with the protector against the Scots; and after the battle of Musselburgh, was made banneret. In 1548, he was appointed chief governor of Ireland, where he married the countess of Ormond. He died soon after, and was buried at Waterford. He wrote, 1. Songs and Sonnets; some of which were printed with those of the earl of Surrey and Sir Thomas Wyatt. Lond. 1565. 2. Letters written from Rome concerning the king's divorce; M. S. 3. Various letters of state. 4. A dispraise of the life of a courtier, &c. Lond. 1548, 8vo, from the French of Alaygri, who translated it from the Castilian language, in which it was originally written by Guevara.

BRYCHEIN, [*Βρυχεῖν*], a word used by Hippocrates for chattering of the teeth.

BRYDE, ST, an ancient parish in Peebles-shire, now united with that of Traquair.

BRYE, John Theodore DE, an excellent engraver, a native of Liege, who resided chiefly at Frankfort. He seldom used the point. He acquired a neat, free style of engraving, excellently adapted to small subjects, with many figures; as funeral parades, processions, &c. He also drew very correctly. His heads in general are spirited, and his back grounds are touched with a masterly hand. He died in 1598. The two first parts of Boissard's collection of portraits were engraved by him, assisted by his sons, who afterwards continued it.

(1.) **BRYENNIUS**, Manuel, a Greek writer on music, is supposed to have flourished under the elder Paleologus, about the year of Christ 1120. He wrote 3 books on Harmonics; the first is a kind of commentary on Euclid; the 2d and 3d on Ptolemy. He professes to have studied perspicuity for the sake of young men. Meibomius had given the public expectations of a translation of this work; but not living to complete it, Dr Wallis undertook it; and it now makes a part of the 3d volume of his works, published at Oxford, in three volumes folio, 1699.

(2.) **BRYENNIUS**, Nicephorus, a prince distinguished by his courage, probity, and learning, was born at Orestia in Macedonia; where his father by rebellion provoked the emperor to send his general Alexis Comnenus against him, who ordered his eyes to be put out; but being charmed with his son Nicephorus, he married him to his own daughter Anna Comnena, so famous by her writings. When Alexis came to the throne, he gave Bryennius the title of *Cæsar*; but would not declare him his successor, though solicited by the empress Irene; and was therefore succeeded by his son John Comnenus, to whom Bryennius behaved

behaved with the utmost fidelity. Being sent, about A. D. 1137, to besiege Antioch, he fell sick; and returning, died at Constantinople. This prince wrote the *History of Alexis Comnenus*, which he composed at the request of his mother-in-law, Irene.

BRYGMOS, or } among physicians, a grating
BRYGMUS, } noise made by the gnashing
of the teeth.

BRYKEIN. See BRYCHEIN.

BRYN, a village in Lancashire, near Wigan.

BRYNING, 5 m. S. W. of Kirkham, Lancash.

BRYNTON, in Staffordshire, N. of Blimhill.

BRYON, in the botanical writings of the ancient Greeks, an abbreviation of BRYONIA.

(I.) BRYONIA, BRYONY, a genus of the syngenesia order, and monœcia class of plants; in the natural method ranking under the 34th order, cucurbitaceæ. The calyx of the male is five-toothed, with a quinquefid corolla, and three filaments. In the female the calyx is dentated, the corolla quinquefid, the style trifid, with a roundish many-seeded berry. There are 6 species, viz.

1. BRYONIA AFRICANA, African tuberous-rooted bryony.

2. BRYONIA ALBA, rough or white bryony with red flowers, a native of dry banks under hedges in many parts of Britain. The roots of this plant have by impostors been brought into a human shape, and shown for mandrakes. Their method was to find a young thriving plant of bryony; then they open the earth all round, being careful not to disturb the lower fibres; and being provided with such a mould as is used for making plaster figures, they fix the mould close to the root, fastening it with wire to keep it in its proper situation; then they filled the earth about the root, leaving it to grow to the shape of the mould; which in one summer it will do; so that if done in March, by September it will have the shape. The leaves of the plant are also imposed on people for mandrake leaves; although there is no resemblance between them, nor any agreement in quality. The roots of this species are used in medicine. These are very large, sometimes as thick as a man's thigh; their smell, when fresh is strong and disagreeable; the taste nauseously bitter, acrid, and biting; the juice is so sharp, as in little time to excoriate the skin; in drying, they lose great part of their acrimony, and almost their whole scent. Bryony root is a strong irritating cathartic; and as such has sometimes been successfully exhibited in maniacal cases, in some kinds of dropsies, and in several chronical disorders, where a quick solution of viscid juices and a sudden stimulus on the solids were required. An extract prepared by water acts more mildly, and with greater safety, than the root in substance: given from half a dram to a dram, it is said to prove a gentle purgative, and likewise to operate powerfully by urine. Bryony root, applied externally, is said to be a powerful discutient.

3. BRYONIA BONARIENSIS, bryony with hairy palmated leaves, divided into 5 parts, and obtuse segments. It is a native of warm countries; but merits cultivation on account of the pretty appearance it makes when full of fruit.

4. BRYONIA

ed bryony of Crete.

5. BRYONIA RACEMOSA, bryony with a red olive-shaped fruit. It is a native of warm climates, and perennial; but the branches decay every winter. They flower in July, and in warm summers will perfect their seeds in Britain.

6. BRYONIA VARIEGATA, the American bryony with variegated fruit.

(II.) BRYONIAE, CULTURE OF THE. The 1st and 5th sorts should be planted in pots filled with fresh light earth; and in winter must be placed in the green house to protect them from frosts and rains, which would destroy them. In summer they may be exposed to the open air, and must be frequently refreshed with water in dry weather. The 3d, 4th, and 6th sorts are annual: they must be raised on a hot-bed early in the spring; and when about 3 inches high, they should be each transplanted into a small pot, and plunged into a hot-bed of tanner's bark. When grown so large as to ramble about on the surface of the bed, and to entangle with other plants, they should be shifted into larger pots, and placed in the bark-store; where their branches may be trained to the wall, against an espalier, that they may have sun and air, which is absolutely necessary for their producing fruit.

BRYONIOIDES, a name given by some botanists to the single seeded cucumber. See SICOR.

(1.) * BRYONY. *n. f.* [*bryonia*, Lat.] A plant.

(2.) BRYONY, BLACK. See TAMUS.

BRYTIA, among ancient naturalists, the must of grapes, which remains after expressing the juice.

BRYUM, in botany, a genus of the 36th natural order, viz. *Musci*, belonging to the cryptogamia class of plants. The anthera is operculated or covered with a lid, the calyptra polished; and there is a filament arising from the terminal tubercle. There are 41 species, most of them natives of Britain.

BRZEST, a town in Silesia.

BRZEZY. See BERZEZY.

BUA, an island of the gulph of Venice, on the coast of Dalmatia, near Trau; called also the PARTRIDGE ISLAND, because frequented by those birds. It is called BUBUS by Pliny. During the decline of the empire it was called Boas; and several illustrious men who fell under disgrace at court were banished to it, particularly Florentius, master of the offices under Julian, Immentius de Valenti, and the heretic Jovinian. The emperors of Constantinople either were not acquainted with it, or were willing to treat the banished with great clemency. The climate is exceedingly mild; the air good; the oil, grapes, and fruit excellent; the sea around it abounds in fish, and the port is large and secure. It is ten miles in length, and 25 m circuit; but rather high and mountainous.

BUANES, a town of France, in the department of Gers, and ci-devant province of Gascony, seated on the river Bahus. Lon. 6. 5. E. Lat. 43. 47. N.

BUARCOS, a town of Portugal, in Beira, on the Mondego. Most of its buildings were destroyed by the earthquake in 1752. Lon. 8. 5. W. Lat. 40. 3. N.

* BUB. *n. f.* [a capt word.] Strong malt liquor.—

Or if it be his fate to meet

With folks who have more wealth than wit,

He loves cheap port, and double *bub*,

And settles in the humdrum club. *Prior.*

BUBALINUS. See ANACANDAYA.

HUBALUS, in zoology, the trivial name of the buffalo. See Bos, No. IV. § v. 1—4.

(1.) BUBASTIS, a name of Isis, or the moon.

The Egyptians bestowed different names on the sun and moon, to characterize their effects and relations with respect to the earth. Chæremon, a sacred writer of Egypt, leaves no doubt on this subject. "Every thing which is published of Osiris and Isis, all the sacerdotal fables, allude only to the phases of the moon, and the course of the sun." Theology, having personified Bubastis, formed a divinity, of whom a cat was the symbol. The priests fed it with sacred food; and when it died, they embalmed its body, and carried it in pomp to the tomb prepared for it. The ancients have explained this worship variously. The Greeks pretend, that when Typhon declared war against the gods, Apollo transformed himself into a vulture, Mercury into an ibis, and Bubastis into a cat, and that the veneration of the people for cats took rise from that fable; but they ascribe their own ideas to the Egyptians, who thought very differently. However that may be, the cat was greatly honoured in Egypt, and a Roman soldier having imprudently killed one, was immediately put to death by the populace. The Greeks who worshipped the moon by the name of DIANA, bestowed it also on this Egyptian divinity. The Egyptians attributed to her the virtue of assisting pregnant women, as the Greeks and Latins did to Diana. The philosopher will seek for the origin of this ancient worship in the laws imposed by nature on women, and which in some measure follow the lunar revolutions. The natural philosophers and the poets buried it under allegories intelligible to the people. A perfect resemblance, however, does not exist between the two deities. The Greeks constituted Diana goddess of the chase, an attribute the Egyptians did not acknowledge in Bubastis. Diana was the daughter of Jupiter and Latona, but Bubastis of Osiris and Isis. A question naturally arises here: How could Bubastis be called the daughter of Isis, since she also was a symbol of the moon? The Egyptian theology easily explains this. Isis was the general appellation of the moon; Bubastis a particular attribute. The sun, in conjunction with the star of the night, formed the celestial marriage of Osiris and Isis; the crescent, which appears 3 days after, was allegorically called their daughter. Accordingly, in the city of *Iliubya*, where Bubastis was adored under that title, the 3d day of the lunar month was consecrated by a particular worship; because 3 days after the conjunction, the moon disengaged from the rays of the sun, appears as a crescent, and is visible. The Egyptians celebrated therefore a solemnity in honour of Bubastis, which in their tongue signified *new moon*.

(2.) BUBASTIS, in ancient geography, a city of Egypt, built in honour of the goddess, (No. 1.) and where, according to Herodotus, the people annually assembled from all parts of Egypt, to celebrate her festival.

VOL. IV. PART II.

(1.) * BUBBLE. *n. f.* [*bobbel*, Dutch.] 1. A small bladder of water; a film of water filled with wind. —Bubbles are in the form of a hemisphere; air within, and a little skin of water without: and it seemeth somewhat strange, that the air should rise so swiftly, while it is in the water, and when it cometh to the top, should be stayed by so weak a cover as that of the bubble is. *Bacon*.—The colours of bubbles, with which children play, are various, and change their situation variously, without any respect to confine or shadow. *Newton*. 2. Any thing which wants solidity and firmness; any thing that is more specious than real.—The earl of Lincoln was induced to participate, not lightly upon the strength of the proceedings there, which was but a bubble, but upon letters from the lady Margaret. *Bacon*.—

Then a soldier,

Seeking the bubble reputation,

Even in the cannon's mouth. *Shakespeare.*

War, he sung, is toil and trouble,

Honour but an empty bubble,

Fighting still, and still destroying. *Dryden.*

3. A cheat; a false show.—

The nation then too late will find,

Directors promises but wind.

South-Sea at best a mighty bubble. *Swift.*

4. The person cheated.—

Cease, dearest mother, cease to chide;

Gany's a cheat, and I'm a bubble;

Yet why this great excess of trouble? *Prior.*

—He has been my bubble these twenty years, and, to my certain knowledge, understands no more of his own affairs, than a child in swaddling clothes. *Arbutnot.*

(2.) BUBBLE, in commerce, a cant term given to a project for raising money on imaginary grounds, too much practised in France and England, in 1719, 1720, and 1721. The pretence of those schemes was the raising a capital for retrieving, setting on foot, or carrying on, some promising and useful branch of trade, manufacture, machinery, or the like. To this end proposals were made out, showing the advantages to be derived from the undertaking, and inviting persons to be engaged in it. The sum necessary to manage the affair, together with the profits expected from it, were divided into shares or subscriptions, to be purchased by any disposed to adventure therein. Bubbles by which the public have been tricked, are of two kinds, viz. 1. Those which we may properly enough term *trading bubbles*; 2. Stock or fund bubbles. The former have been of various kinds; and the latter at different times, as in 1719 and 1720.

(3.) BUBBLE, in natural philosophy, a small drop or vesicle of any fluid filled with air; and formed either on its surface by an addition of more of the fluid, as is raining, &c.; or in its substance by an intestine motion of its component particles. Bubbles are dilatible or compressible, *i. e.* they take up more or less room as the included air is more or less heated, or more or less pressed from without; and are round, because the included air acts equally from within all around.

(1.) * To BUBBLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cheat: a cant word.—He tells me, with great passion, that she has bubbled him out of his youth; and has drilled him on to five and fifty. *Addison.*

K k k

—Charles

—Charles Mather could not *bubble* a young beau better with a toy. *Arbutnot.*

(2.) * *To BUBBLE. v. n.* 1. To rise in bubbles.—

Alas ! a crimson river of warm blood,
Like to a *bubbling* fountain stirr'd with wind.
Doth rise and fall. *Shakespeare.*

Adder's fork, and blind worm's sting,
Lizard's leg, and owlet's wing :
For a charm of pow'rful trouble,
Like a hellbroth boil and *bubble.* *Shakespeare.*
Still *bubble* on, and pour forth blood and tears. *Dryden.*

—The same spring suffers at sometimes a very manifest remission of its heat : at others, as manifest an increase of it ; yea, sometimes to that excess, as to make it boil and *bubble* with extreme heat. *Woodward.* 2. To run with a gentle noise.—

For thee the *bubbling* springs appear'd to mourn,
And whispering pines made vows for thy return. *Dryden.*

Not *bubbling* fountains to the thirsty swain,
Not show'rs to larks, or sunshine to the bee,
Are half so charming as thy sight to me. *Pope.*

* *BUBBLER. n. f.* [from *bubble.*] A cheat.—What words can suffice to express, how infinitely I esteem you, above all the great ones in this part of the world ; above all the Jews, jobbers, and *bubblers* ! *Digby to Pope.*

* *BUBBY. n. f.* A woman's breasts.—Foh ! say they, to see a handsome, brisk, genteel young fellow, so much governed by a doating old woman ; why don't you go and suck the *bubby* ? *Arbutnot.*

BUBNALL, the name of two villages, viz. 1. in Peak of Derby : 2. in Warwickshire, W. of Dunsmore Heath.

(1.) * *BUBO. n. f.* [Lat. from *βουβων*, the groin.] That part of the groin from the bending of the thigh to the scrotum ; and therefore all tumours in that part are called *buboes*. *Quincy.*—I suppurated it after the manner of a *bubo*, opened it, and endeavoured detersion. *Wiseman.*

(2.) *BUBO*, in ornithology, the trivial name of a species of strix. See *STRIX*.

(3.) *BUBO*, or } in surgery, a tumor which arises, with inflammation, in the arm-pits and the groin. See *MEDICINE, Index.*

BUBON; *MACEDONIAN PARSLEY* : a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants ; and in the natural method ranking under the 46th order, Umbellatæ. The fruit is ovated, striated and villous. There are 4 species which are propagated by seeds, and require the common culture of other exotic vegetables ; viz.

1. *BUBON GALBANUM* or African ferula, rises with an upright stalk to the height of 8 or 10 feet, which at bottom is woody, having a purplish bark covered with a whitish powder that comes off when handled. The upper part of the stalk is garnished with leaves at every joint, the foot-stalks half embracing them at their base, and are set with leaves like those of the lovage, but smaller, and of a grey colour : the top of the stalk is terminated by an umbel of yellow flowers ; which are succeeded by oblong channelled seeds, which have a thin membrane or wing on their borders.

When any part of the plant is broken, there issues out a little thin milk of a cream colour, which hath a strong scent of galbanum.

2. *BUBON GUMMIFERUM*, with a mock chervil leaf, rises with a ligneous stalk about the same height ; and is garnished with leaves at each joint, which branch out like the former ; but the small leaves or lobes are narrow and indented like those of bastard hemlock. The stalk is terminated by an umbel of small yellow flowers, which are succeeded by seeds like those of the former sort.—The galbanum of the shops is supposed to be procured from these two species.

3. *BUBON MACEDONICUM* sends out many leaves from the root ; the lowest grow almost horizontally, spreading near the surface of the ground : the foot-stalk of each leaf divides into several smaller ; which are garnished with smooth rhomb-shaped leaves, which are of a bright pale-green colour, and sawed on their edges. In the centre of the plant arises the flower-stem, which is little more than a foot high, dividing into many branches, each terminated by an umbel of white flowers, which are succeeded by oblong hairy seeds. This plant, in warm countries, is biennial ; the plants, which rise from seeds, one year produce flowers, and seeds the next, and then perish : but in Britain they seldom flower till the 3d or 4th ; but whenever the plant flowers, it always dies.

4. *BUBON RIGIDUM*, hard or rigid ferula, is a native of Sicily. It is a low perennial plant, having short, stiff, and very narrow leaves : the flower-stalk rises a foot high, which is terminated by an umbel of small white flowers ; which are succeeded by small, oblong, channelled seeds. It is a plant of little beauty or use, so is only cultivated for the sake of variety.

BUBONA, in ancient mythology, the tutelary goddess of the larger cattle.

(1.) *BUBONIUM*, in botany, a synonyme of the *INULA*.

(2.) *BUBONIUM* is also a name given by some botanists to the *ASTER ATTICUS*, or golden starwort.

BUBONIUS LAPIS, a figured stone, in shape resembling an owl's head, of a flinty substance, black within, and cineritious without ; thus denominated by Dr Plott. *Hist. Oxford.* ch. v. p. 45.

(1.) * *BUBONOCELE. n. f.* [Lat. from *βουβων*, the groin, and *κελη*, a rupture.] a particular kind of rupture, when the intestines break down into the groin. *Quincy.*—When the intestine, or omentum, falls through the rings of the abdominal muscles into the groin, it is called *hernia inguinalis*, or if into the scrotum, *scrotalis* : these two, though the first only is properly so called, are known by the name of *bubonocèle*. *Sharp.*

(2.) *BUBONOCELE*. See *SURGERY*.

BUBTON, a village in Derbyshire, in Apple-tree hundred.

* *BUBUKLE. n. f.* a red pimple.—His face is all *bubukles*, and Whelks, and knobs, and flames of fire. *Shakespeare.*

BUBULCA, in ichthyology, a small fresh-water fish, called by some *BOUVIERA* and *PETENSI*. It is small, flat, and very short, approaching to a

round rather than a long shape, and of a fine silvery whiteness, seldom above 2 inches in length.

BUBULCUS. } Names of the constellation
BUBULUS. } BOOTES.

BUBUS. See BUA.

BUBWITH, in Yorkshire, W. of Wighton.

BUC, George, a learned English antiquarian, who flourished in the beginning of the 17th century. In the reign of king James I. he was made one of the gentlemen of the privy chamber, knighted; and constituted master of the revels. He wrote, 1. The history of the reign of Richard III. in which he takes great pains to wipe off the bloody stains that have blotted his character, and represents the person and actions of that prince in a much less odious light, than other historians have done: 2. A treatise of the art of revels; and 3. A work intitled the Third universitie of England.

BUCA, in natural history, a name given by some authors to the BUCCINUM.

BUCAN. See BUCCAN.

To BUCAN. See To BUCCAN.

BUCANER, or } See BUCCANIER, § I.
(1.) BUCANIER. }

(2.) * BUCANIERS. *n. s.* a cant word for the privateers, or pirates, of America.

BUCANNING. See BUCCANING.

BUCAO, in natural history, a name given by the people of the Philippine islands to a species of kerech owl, of the size of a peacock, common in those islands. It is very beautiful, but makes a hideous noise in the night.

BUCARDIA, or } in natural history, a name
BUCARDITES, } given by many authors to a stone, in some degree resembling the figure of an ox's heart. It is usually of the substance of the coarser stones, and is no other than a quantity of the matter of such stone, received while moist into the cavity of a large cockle, and thence assuming the figure of the inside of that shell, the depression of the head of the cockle, where the *cardo* or hinge of this shell is, makes a long and large dent in the formed mass, which gives it a heart-like shape. Plott mentions a *bucardites*, which he found at Stretford in Staffordshire, which weighed 20lb. though broken half away, curiously reticulated, with a white-spar coloured stone.

BUCARDIUM, in natural history, a name given by authors to a kind of heart shell, resembling an ox's heart in shape; it is of the genus of the cordiformes, or heart-shells, and differs from the other kinds, in being of a more globular figure.

BUCCA, in anatomy, the cheek.

BUCCÆ MUSCULUS, in anatomy, a name given by some to the muscle more usually called the BUCCINATOR, and *contrabens labiorum*.

BUCCA FERREA, in botany, a name given by Micheli to a genus of plants, called since by Linnaeus *ruppia*.

BUCCAL, *adj.* belonging to the cheek.

BUCCALES GLANDULÆ are small glands dispersed over the inner side of the cheeks and lips, which separate a spittle useful in mastication and digestion. Steno, and some other writers, confound the buccal with the maxillary glands.

BUCCAN, *n. s.* the place where the Buccaniers smoke and dry their meat. The name is also ap-

plied to the grate or hurdle, made of Brasil wood, upon which the meat is hung above the fire.

To BUCCAN, or BUCAN, *v. a.* To smoke and dry flesh, or fish. See BUCCANIERS, § 2.

(1.) BUCCANIER, or BUCANIER, one who dries and smokes flesh or fish after the manner of the Indians. The name was particularly given to the first French settlers on the island of St Domingo, whose sole employment consisted in hunting wild bulls or boars, in order to sell their hides and flesh. See § 2. It has also been applied to those famous piratical adventurers, chiefly English and French, who joined together to make depredations on the Spaniards of America. See § 5—7.

(2.) BUCCANIERS OF ST DOMINGO. The Spaniards had not been long in possession of the West Indies and the continent of America, when other nations, especially the English and French, began to follow them. But though the Spaniards were unable to people such extensive countries themselves, they were resolved that no others should do it for them; and therefore made a most cruel war on all those of any other nation who attempted to settle in any of the Antilles or Caribbee islands. The French, however, were at last lucky enough to acquire some footing in the island of St Christopher's; but by the time they began to form a regular government, the Spaniards found means to dislodge them. Upon this the wretched fugitives, considering at how great a distance they were from their mother country, and how near to the island of Hispaniola or St Domingo, the northern parts of which were then uninhabited and full of swine and black cattle, immediately resolved to take possession of that country, in conjunction with other adventurers of their own and the English nation. And the Dutch promised to supply them plentifully with all kinds of necessities they might require, in exchange for the hides and tallow they should procure by hunting. These new settlers obtained the name of *buccaniers*, from their custom of buccaning their beef and pork to preserve it for consumption or sale. But some of them soon grew tired of this new way of life, and took to planting; while many more chose to turn pirates, trusting to find among those who remained on shore a quick sale for all the plunder they could make at sea. This new body of adventurers were called *free-booters*, from their making free booty of whatever came in their way.—The colony now began to thrive fast by the riches acquired by these free-booters, and the profusion with which they distributed them among their old companions, the buccaniers and planters, for the meere trifles. This brought numbers of settlers from France, in quality of indented servants, tho' they toiled rather like slaves during the 3 years for which they generally bound themselves. One of these men presuming to represent to his master, who always fixed upon a Sunday for sending him with skins to the port, that God had forbidden such a practice, when he had declared, "Six days shalt thou labour, and on the 7th day shalt thou rest:" "And I (replied the brutal buccanier) say to thee, Six days shalt thou kill bulls, and strip them of their skins, and on the seventh day shalt thou carry their hides to the sea-shore." This command, followed by blows.

soon enforced obedience. Thus the colony consisted of 4 classes: buccaniers; freebooters; planters; and indented servants; who now began to call themselves the *body of adventurers*. They lived together in perfect harmony under a kind of democracy; every freeman had a despotic authority over his own family; and every captain was sovereign in his own ship, though liable to be discarded at the discretion of the crew. The planters settled chiefly in the little island of Tortuga on the northern coast of Hispaniola: but it was not long before some of them going to the great island to hunt with the buccaniers, the rest were surprised by the Spaniards; and all, even those who had surrendered at discretion, were put to the sword or hanged. The Spaniards now resolving to rid the great island of the buccaniers, assembled a body of 500 lance men, who, by their seldom going fewer than 50 in a company, obtained the name of *the Fifties* from their enemies.

(3.) **BUCCANIER OF ST DOMINGO, CUSTOMS, &c. OF THE.** The buccaniers had hitherto lived in little huts built on some spots of cleared ground, just large enough to dry their skins on, and contain their buccaning houses. These spots they called *Boucans*, and the huts they dwelt in *Ajoupas*, a word which they borrowed from the Spaniards, and the Spaniards from the natives.— Though these ajoupas lay open on all sides, they were very agreeable to the hardy inhabitants, in a climate where wind and air are so very desirable. As the buccaniers had neither wives nor children, they associated by pairs, and mutually rendered each other all the services a master could reasonably expect from a servant, living together in so perfect a community, that the survivor always succeeded his deceased partner. This kind of union or fellowship they called *s'emateleter*, infailoring, and each other *matelot*, or sailor, whence is derived the custom of giving, at least in some parts of the French Antilles, the name *mateutage*, sailorage, to any kind of society formed by private persons for their mutual advantage. They behaved to each other with the greatest justice and openness of heart; it would have been a crime to keep any thing under lock and key; but on the other hand, the least pilfering was unpardonable, and punished with expulsion from the community.— And indeed there could be no great temptation to steal, when it was reckoned a point of honour never to refuse a neighbour what he wanted; and where there was so little property, it was impossible there should be many disputes. If any happened, the common friends of the parties at variance interposed, and soon put an end to the difference. As to laws, the buccaniers acknowledged none but some rules drawn up in conventions among themselves. They silenced all objections from strangers, by coolly answering, that it was not the custom of the coast; and grounded their right of acting in this manner, on their baptism under the tropic, which freed them, in their opinion, from all obligations antecedent to that marine ceremony. The governor of Tortuga, when that island was again settled, though appointed by the French court, had very little authority over them; they contented themselves with rendering him from time to time some slight homage.

They had in a manner entirely shaken off religion, and thought they did a great deal in not wholly forgetting the God of their fathers. We need not be surprised to meet with nations, among whom it is difficult to discover any trace of religious worship: for it is certain, that had the buccaniers of St Domingo been perpetuated on the same footing they subsisted at this time, the 3d or 4th generation of them would have as little religion as the Caffres and Hottentots of Africa, or the Topinambous and Cannibals of America. They even laid aside their surnames, and assumed nicknames, or martial names, most of which have continued in their families to this day. Many, however, on their marrying, which seldom happened till they turned planters, took care to have their surnames inserted in the marriage contract; and this practice gave occasion to a proverb still current in the French Antilles, *a man is not to be known till he takes a wife*. Their dress consisted of a filthy greasy shirt, dyed with the blood of the animals they killed; a pair of trousers still more nasty: a thong of leather by way of belt, to which they hung a case containing some Dutch knives, and a kind of very short sabre called *Manchette*; a hat without any brim except a little flap on the front, and shoes of hog skins all of a piece. Their guns were 2½ feet in the barrel, and of a bore to carry balls of an ounce. Every man had his contract servants, more or fewer according to his abilities; besides a pack of 20 or 30 dogs, among which there was also a couple of beagles. Their chief employment at first was ox-hunting; and if at any time they chased a wild hog, it was rather for pastime, or to make provision for a feast, than for any other advantage. But in process of time, some of them betook themselves entirely to hunting of hogs, whose flesh they buccaned in the following manner: First, they cut the flesh into very long pieces, an inch and an half thick, and sprinkled them with salt, which they rubbed off after 24 hours. Then they dried these pieces in stoves over the fire made of the skin and bones of the beast till they grew as hard as a board, and assumed a deep brown colour. Pork prepared in this manner will keep in casks above a year; and when steeped but a little while in lukewarm water, become plump and rosy, and yield moreover a most grateful smell, either broiled or boiled, or otherwise dressed, enough to tempt the most languid appetite, and please the most delicate palate. Those who hunt the wild boar have of late been called simply *hunters*. In hunting, they set out at day break, preceded by the beagles, and followed by their servants with the rest of the dogs; and as they made it a point never to balk their beagles, they were often led by them over the most frightful precipices, and through places which any other mortal would have deemed absolutely impassable. As soon as the beagles had routed the game, the rest of the dogs struck up and surrounded the beast, stopping it, and keeping a constant barking till the buccanier could get near enough to shoot it; in doing this, he commonly aimed at the pit of the breast; when the beast fell, he hamstringed it to prevent its rising again. But it has sometimes happened that the creature, not wounded enough to tumble to the ground, has run turn-

ously at his pursuer, and ripped him up. But, in general, the buccanier seldom missed his aim; and when he did, was nimble enough to get up the tree, behind which he had the precaution to place himself. Some of them have even been seen to overtake the beast in chace, and hamstringing it without any further ceremony. As soon as the prey was half skinned, the master cut out a large bone, and sucked the marrow for breakfast. The rest he left to his servants, one of whom always remained behind to finish the skinning, and bring the skin with a choice piece of meat for the hunters dinner. They then continued the chace till they had killed as many beasts as there were heads in the company. The master was the last to return to the boucan, loaded like the rest with a skin and a piece of meat. Here the buccaniers found their tables ready: for every one had his separate table; which was the first thing, any way fit for the purpose, that came in their way, a stone, the trunk of a tree, and the like. No tablecloth, no napkin, no bread or wine graced their board; not even potatoes or bananas, unless they found them ready to their hands. When this did not happen, the fat and lean of the game, taken alternately, served to supply the place. A little pimento, and the squeeze of an orange, their only sauce; contentment, peace of mind, a good appetite, and abundance of mirth, made every thing agreeable. Thus they lived till they had completed the number of hides, for which they had agreed with the merchants; when they carried them to Tortuga, or some port of the great island. As the buccaniers used much exercise, and fed only on flesh, they generally enjoyed a good state of health. They were indeed subject to fevers, but either such as lasted only a day, and left no sensible impression the day following; or slight slow fevers, which did not hinder them from action, and were of course so little regarded, that it was usual with the patient, when asked how he did, to answer, "Very well; nothing ails me but the fever." It was impossible, however, they should not suffer considerably by such fatigues under a hot climate, to which few of them had been early inured. Hence the most considerate among them, after they had got money enough for that purpose, turned planters. The rest soon spent the fruits of their labour in taverns and tippling houses; and many had so habituated themselves to this kind of life, as to become incapable of any other. Nay, there have been instances of young men, who having early embarked through necessity in this painful and dangerous profession, persisted in it afterwards, merely through habit, rather than return to France and take possession of the most plentiful fortunes. Such were the buccaniers of St Domingo, and such their situation, when the Spaniards undertook to extirpate them. And at first they met with great success; for as the buccaniers hunted separately, every one attended by his servants, they were easily surprised. Hence the Spaniards killed numbers, and took many more, whom they condemned to a most cruel slavery. But whenever the buccaniers had time to put themselves into a state of defence, they fought like lions, to avoid falling into the hands of a nation from whom they were sure to

receive no quarter; by which means they often escaped: nay, there are many instances of single men fighting their way through numbers. These dangers, however, and the success of the Spaniards in discovering their boucans, where they used to surprise and cut the throats of them and their servants in their sleep, engaged them to cohabit in great numbers, and even to act offensively, in hopes that by so doing they might at last induce the Spaniards to let them live in peace. But the fury with which they behaved whenever they met any Spaniards, served only to make their enemies more intent on their destruction; and assistance coming to both parties, the whole island was turned into a slaughter house, and so much blood spilt on both sides, that many places, on account of the carnage of which they had been the theatres, were intitled, *of the massacre*; such as *the hill of the massacre*; *the plain of the massacre*; *the valley of the massacre*; names which they still retain. At length the Spaniards had recourse to their old method of surprise, which against enemies of more courage than vigilance was likely to succeed better. This put the buccaniers under a necessity of never hunting but in large parties, and fixing their boucans in the little islands on the coast, where they retired every evening. This expedient succeeded; and the boucans, by being more fixed soon acquired the air of little towns. When the buccaniers had once fixed themselves, each boucan ordered scouts every morning to the highest part of the island, in order to reconnoitre the coast, and see if any Spanish parties were abroad. If no enemy appeared, they appointed a place and hour of rendezvous in the evening, and were never absent if not killed or prisoners. When therefore any one of the company was missing, it was not lawful for the rest to hunt again till they had got intelligence of him if taken, or avenged his death if killed. Things continued long in this situation till the Spaniards made a general hunt over the whole island; and, by destroying their game, put the buccaniers under a necessity of betaking themselves to another course of life. Some of them turned planters; and thereby increased some of the French settlements on the coast, and formed others. The rest, not relishing so confined and regular a life, entered among the free-booters, who thereby became a powerful body. France, who had hitherto disclaimed for her subjects these ruffians whose successes were only temporary, acknowledged them, as soon as they formed themselves into settlements; and took measures for their government and defence. See DOMINGO, ST.

(4.) BUCCANIER'S OF ST DOMINGO, TRADE OF THE. The hunting both of the bull and boar is still carried on, and proves of considerable importance. That of the former furnishes France with the finest hides brought from America. The buccaniers put the hides in packs which they call loads, mixing together hides of full grown bulls, of young bullocks, and of cows. Each of these loads is composed of two bull hides, or of an equivalent; i. e. either of two bull hides, or of one bull hide and two cow hides, or of 4 cow hides, or 3 bullocks hides. Each load is commonly sold for six Spanish dollars. The boar meat buccaned is sold by the bundle or pack, weighing commonly

by 60 pounds, at the rate of 6 dollars per pack. The palmetto leaves serve to pack it up; but their weight is deducted, so that there must be in each pack 60 lib. of flesh. These buccaniers have also a great trade of the lard of boars, which they melt, and gather in large pots called *potiches*. This lard, which is called *mantegua*, is also sold for about 8 dollars per pot. There is a great trade, and a great consumption of each of these merchandises in the French settlements of St Domingo, and Tortuga: besides which, they used to send great quantities to the Antilles, and even into the continent of French America. There is also a great deal of it sold for the support of the crews of the ships that come from France for trading, or which the privateers of Tortuga fit out for cruizing against the Spaniards. The Spaniards, who have large settlements in St Domingo, have also their buccaniers, whom they call *matadores* or *monteros*. Their chase has something in it, which favours of the Spanish pride: the huntsman being on horseback, uses the lance to strike the bull, thinking it beneath his courage to shoot him at a distance. When the servants, who are on foot, have discovered the beast, and with their dogs have driven it into some meadow, in which the master waits for them on horseback, armed with two lances, the matadore hamstring it with the first lance, the head of which is made like a crescent or half moon, and extremely sharp, and kills it afterwards with the other lance, which is a common one. This chase is very pompous; the huntsman commonly making, to attack the bull, the same turns and ceremonies which are practised in those barbarous festivals so famous in Spain, wherein the greatest lords expose themselves, make the people admire their dexterity and intrepidity in attacking those furious animals; although it is a very dangerous sport; the bulls, in their fury, often running directly against the huntsman, who may think himself very happy if he comes off with only the loss of his horse. The Spaniards dress their hides like the French, and the hides being carried to the Havannah, are part of the trade of that celebrated town. The flota and the galleons scarce ever fail touching there, on their return from Vera Cruz and Porto Bello, and carry the hides into Spain, where they are sold, and are the most esteemed of any that are brought from America into Europe.

(5.) BUCCANIERS, PIRATICAL. Before the English had made any settlement at Jamaica, and the French at St Domingo, some pirates of both nations, who have since been peculiarly distinguished by the name of *Buccaniers*, had driven the Spaniards out of the small island of Tortuga; and, fortifying themselves there, had with amazing intrepidity made excursions against the common enemy. They formed themselves into small companies, consisting of 50, 100, or 150 men each. A boat, of a greater or smaller size, was their only armament. Here they were exposed night and day to all the inclemencies of the weather, having scarce room enough to lie down. A love of absolute independence, the greatest blessing to those who are not proprietors of land, rendered them averse from those mutual restraints which the members of

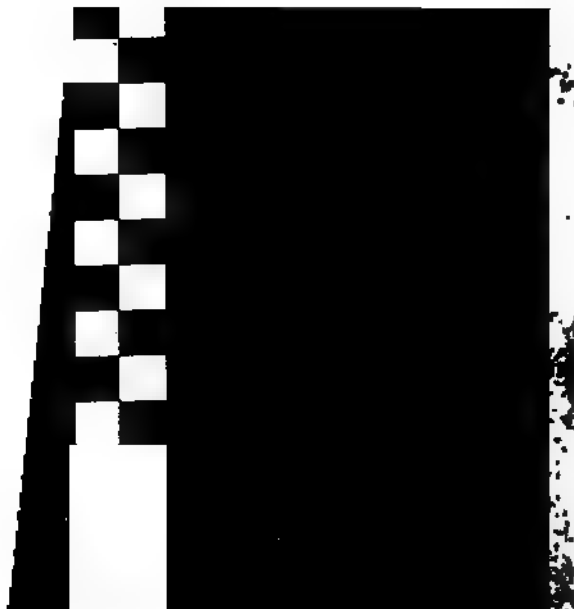
use upon themselves for

the common good. As the authority they had conferred on their captain, was confined to his giving orders in battle, they lived in the greatest confusion. Like the savages, having no apprehension of want, nor any anxiety to preserve the necessaries of life, they were constantly exposed to the severest extremities of hunger and thirst. But deriving, even from their very distresses, a courage superior to every danger, the sight of a ship transported them to a degree of frenzy. They never deliberated on the attack, but it was their custom to board the ship as quickly as possible. The smallness of their vessels, and the skill they showed in the management of them, screened them from the fire of the greater ships; and they presented only the fore part of our little vessels filled with fusileers; who fired at the port holes with so much exactness, that it entirely confounded the most experienced gunners. As soon as they threw out the grappling, the largest vessels seldom escaped them. In cases of extreme necessity, they attacked the people of every nation, but fell upon the Spaniards at all times. They thought that the cruelties the latter had exercised on the inhabitants of the new world justified the implacable aversion they had sworn against them. But this was heightened by a personal pique, from the mortification they felt in seeing themselves debarred from the privilege of hunting and fishing, which they considered as natural rights. Such were their principles of justice and religion, that, whenever they embarked on any expedition, they used to pray to heaven for the success of it; and they never came back from the plunder, but they constantly returned thanks to God for their victory! The ships that sailed from Europe to America seldom tempted their avidity. The merchandise they contained would not easily have been sold, nor been very profitable in those early times. The buccaniers waited for their return, when they were laden with gold, silver, jewels, and the most valuable productions of the new world. If they met a single ship, they were sure to attack her. They followed the fleets till they sailed out of the gulph of Bahama; and as soon as any one of the vessels was separated by accident from the rest, it was taken. The Spaniards, who trembled at the approach of the buccaniers, whom they called *devils*, immediately surrendered. Quarter was granted, if the cargo proved to be a rich one; if not, and the prisoners were thrown into the sea. The buccaniers, when they had got a considerable booty, at first held their rendezvous at the island of Tortuga, to divide the spoil; but afterwards the French went to St Domingo, and the English to Jamaica. Each person, holding up his hand, solemnly protested, that he had secreted nothing of what he had taken. If any one was convicted of perjury, a case that seldom happened, he was kept, as soon as an opportunity offered, upon some desert island, as a traitor unworthy to live in society. Such brave men as had been maimed in any of their expeditions, were first provided for. If they had lost a hand, an arm, a leg, or a foot, they received 26 l. An eye, finger, or toe, lost in fight, was valued only at half the sum. The wounded were allowed 2s. 6d. a day for two months, to enable them to have their wounds taken care of.

If they had not money enough to answer these several demands, the whole company engaged in some fresh expedition, and continued it till they had acquired a sufficient stock to enable them to satisfy such honourable contracts. After these acts of justice and humanity, the remainder of the booty was divided into as many shares as there were buccaniers. The commander could only claim a single share, but they complimented him with two or three, in proportion as he had acquitted himself to their satisfaction. Favour never had any influence in the division of the booty; for every share was determined by lot. Instances of such rigid justice as this are not often met with; and they extended even to the dead. Their share was given to the man who was known to be their companion when alive, and therefore their heir. If the person who had been killed had no intimate, his part was sent to his relations when they were known. If there were no friends or relations, it was distributed in charity to the poor and to churches, to obtain prayers for the person in whose name these benefactions were given! When these duties had been complied with, they indulged themselves in gaming, wine, women, and every kind of debauchery; which was carried to the utmost pitch of excess, and was stopt only by the want which such profusions brought on. Those men who were enriched with several millions, were soon after totally ruined, and destitute of clothes and provisions. They returned to sea; and the new supplies they acquired were quickly lavished in the same manner. The Spanish colonies, reduced almost to despair in finding themselves a perpetual prey to these ruffians, grew weary of navigation. They gave up all the power, conveniences, and fortune, which their connections procured them, and formed themselves into many distinct and separate states. They were sensible of the inconveniences arising from such conduct, but the dread of falling into the hands of these rapacious monsters, had greater influence over them than the dictates of honour, interest, and policy; and gave rise to that spirit of inactivity which still continues. Their despondency increased the boldness of the buccaniers. As yet they had only appeared in the Spanish settlements, to carry off some provisions when they were in want of them. They no sooner found their captures begin to diminish, than they determined to recover by land what they lost at sea. The richest and most populous countries of the continent were plundered and laid waste. The culture of lands was equally neglected with navigation; and the Spaniards dared neither appear in their public roads, nor sail in the latitudes which belonged to them.

(6.) **BUCCANIER, PIRATICAL, HISTORY OF THE MOST CELEBRATED.** Among those who signalized themselves in this new species of excursions, **MONTBAR**, a gentleman of Languedoc, particularly distinguished himself. Having, in his infancy, met with a circumstantial account of the cruelties practised by the Spaniards, in the conquest of the new world, he conceived an aversion which he carried to a degree of frenzy against that nation which had committed such enormities. The enthusiasm this spirit of humanity worked him up

to, was turned into a rage more cruel than even that of religious fanaticism; thus literally fulfilling the text, *the tender mercies of the wicked are cruelty*. The names of these unhappy sufferers seemed to rouse him, and call upon him for vengeance. He had heard that the buccaniers were the most inveterate enemies to the Spanish name: he therefore embarked on board a ship, to join them. In the passage, they met with a Spanish vessel; attacked it; and, as usual, immediately boarded it. Montbar, with a sabre in his hand, fell upon the enemy; broke through them; and, hurrying twice from one end of the ship to the other, levelled every thing that opposed him. When he had compelled them to surrender, leaving to his companions the dividing of so rich a booty, he contented himself with the savage pleasure of contemplating the dead bodies of the Spaniards, lying in heaps together, against whom he had sworn a constant and deadly hatred. Fresh opportunities soon occurred, that enabled him to glut this spirit of revenge. The ship he was in arrived at the coast of St Domingo; where the buccaniers on land immediately applied to barter some provisions for brandy. As the articles they offered were of little value, they alledged in excuse, that their enemies had over-run the country, laid waste their settlements, and carried off all they could. "Why (replied Montbar) do you tamely suffer such insults?"—"Neither do we; (answered they in the same tone) the Spaniards have experienced what kind of men we are, and have therefore taken advantage of the time when we were engaged in hunting. But we are going to join some of our companions, who have been still more ill treated than we; and then we shall have warm work."—"If you approve of it, (answered Montbar) I will head you, not as your commander, but as the foremost to expose myself to danger." The buccaniers, perceiving that he was such a man as they wanted, cheerfully accepted his offer. The same day they overtook the enemy, and Montbar attacked them with an impetuosity that astonished the bravest. Scarce one Spaniard escaped the effects of his fury. The remaining part of his life was equally distinguished. The Spaniards suffered so much from him, both by land and at sea, that he acquired the name of the *Exterminator*. The savage dispositions of the buccaniers, having obliged the Spaniards to confine themselves within their settlements, these free-booters resolved to attack them there. This new method of carrying on the war required superior forces; and their associations in consequence became more numerous. The first that was considerable was formed by **LOLONIS**, who, from the abject state of a bondsmen, had gradually raised himself to the command of two canoes, with 22 men. With these he took a Spanish frigate on the coast of Cuba. He then repaired to Port-au-Prince, in which were 4 ships, fitted out purposely to pursue him. He took them, and threw all the crews into the sea except one man, whom he saved, in order to send him with a letter to the governor of the Havannah, acquainting him with what he had done, and assuring him that he would treat in the same manner all the Spaniards that should fall into his hands, not excepting the governor himself, if he should be so fortunate as to



of
t
h
s
an
all
in
s a
ugh
ree
from
e di
rtial
on i
nanci
s Eu
necar
ated
tion fi
sub th
ity,
solidly fi
, which
nd were
eaten.
aped so
been led
een freig
handic
A year
an Mexic
of plunde
that both
rticular a
jected th
communi
g in conce
were emp
an came l
of Magellan
or withes
s had been
r, they wor
ans of this
ter was an i
, for they al
distinct bodie
as ten or two
ated, as cap
ward, and La
officers among
, Wilner, and
ueb of those at
h Sea by the fi
first vessels they
tucates, who l
re not much b
se they were,
from that were
there were an n
e deficient upon the coast for
y land to plunder those cities
s secured. They successfully
schis Nuevo, Leon, Realajo,
juita, Lofparfu, Granada, Vil
nerva, Mucimiguna, Chioteca,
2.

even on the minds of those who violate all the
rights of society. The conquerors of Campeche
spent two months in searching all the environs of
the city, from 12 to 15 leagues, carrying off every
thing that the inhabitants, in their flight, thought
they had preserved. When all the treasure they
had

had collected from every quarter was deposited in the ships, a proposal was made to the governor of the province, who still kept the field with 900 men, to ransom his capital city. His refusal determined them to burn it, and demolish the citadel. The French buccaniers, on the festival of St Louis, celebrated the anniversary of their king; and in the transports of their patriotism, intoxication, and national loyalty, they burnt to the value of a million of logwood; a part, and a very considerable one, of the spoil they had made. After this singular and extravagant instance of folly, they returned to St Domingo. In 1697, 1200 buccaniers were induced to join a squadron of 7 ships that sailed from Europe under the command of POINTIS, to attack the famous city of Carthagera. This was the most difficult enterprise that could be attempted in the new world. The situation of the port, the strength of the place, the badness of the climate, were so many obstacles that seemed insurmountable to any but buccaniers. But every obstacle yielded to their valour: the city was taken, and booty gained to the amount of 1,750,000 l. Their rapacious commander, however, deprived them of the advantages resulting from this success. He scrupled not, as soon as they set sail, to offer 5250 l. for the share of those who had been the chief instruments in procuring him so considerable spoil. The buccaniers, exasperated at this treatment, resolved immediately to board the vessel, called the *Sceptre*, where Pointis himself was, and which at that time was too far distant from the rest of the ships to expect to be assisted by them. This avaricious commander was upon the point of being massacred, when one of the malecontents cried out: "Brethren, why should we attack this rascal? he has carried off nothing that belongs to us. He has left our share at Carthagera, and there we must go to recover it." This proposal was received with general applause. A savage joy at once succeeded that gloomy melancholy which had seized them; and without further deliberation all their ships sailed towards the city. As soon as they entered the city without resistance, they shut up all the men in the great church; and exacted payment of 218,750 l. the amount of their share of booty which they had been defrauded of; promising to retreat immediately upon their compliance, but threatening the most dreadful vengeance if they refused. Upon this, the most venerable priest in the city mounted the pulpit, and made use of the influence his character, his authority, and his eloquence gave him, to persuade his hearers to yield up without reserve all the gold, silver, and jewels they had. The collection, which was made after the sermon, not furnishing the sum required, the city was ordered to be plundered. At length, after amassing all they could, these adventurers set sail; when they met with a fleet of Dutch and English ships, both which nations were then in alliance with Spain. Several of the pirates were either taken or sunk, with all the cargo they had on board their ships; the rest escaped to St Domingo. Such was the last memorable event in the history of the buccaniers. The separation of the English and French, when

the war, on account of the prince of Orange, divided the two nations: the successful means they both made use of to promote the cultivation of land among their colonies, by the assistance of these enterprising men; and the prudence they showed in fixing upon the most distinguished among them, and entrusting them with civil and military employments: the protection they were both under a necessity of affording to the Spanish settlements, which till then had been a general object of plunder: all these circumstances, and various others, besides the impossibility there was of supplying the place of these remarkable men, who were continually dropping off, concurred to put an end to a society as extraordinary as ever existed. Without any regular system, without laws, without subordination, and even without any fixed revenue, they became the astonishment of the age in which they lived.

BUCCEA, or } in medicine, a term used by
BUCCELLA, } some to express a fragment of
any thing; others use it for a polypus of the liver.

(1.) BUCCELLARI, an order of soldiers under the Greek emperors, appointed to guard and distribute the ammunition bread. Authors differ, however, as to their office and quality. Some give the denomination to parasites in the courts of princes, some make them the body guards of emperors, and some fancy they were only such as emperors employed in putting persons to death privately.

(2.) BUCCELLARI, was a general name among the Visigoths for vassals who lived at the expense of their lords.

(3.) BUCCELLATIO, in ancient physic, a medicine, in which scammony was the chief ingredient.

(4.) BUCCELLATIO, in surgery, is used by some for stopping the bleeding of an artery or vein, by lint.

* BUCCELLATION. *n. s.* [*buccella*, a mouthful, Lat.] In some chymical authors, signifies a dividing into large pieces. *Harris.*

BUCCELLATUM, in ancient military affairs, camp bread, or biscuit baked hard and dry, for lightness and keeping. Soldiers always carried with them enough for a fortnight, and sometimes much longer, during the time that military discipline was kept up. See BAGGAGE, § 2.

(1.) BUCCINA, an ancient musical and military instrument, usually taken for a kind of trumpet. Festus defines it a crooked horn, played as like a trumpet. Vegetius observes, that the buccina bent in a semicircle, in which respect it differed from the TUBA or trumpet. It is hard to distinguish it from the CORNU, or horn, unless it was something less, and not quite so crooked. It certainly was different, as we never read of the cornu used by the watch. Besides, the sound of the buccina was sharper, and to be heard much farther than either the cornu or the tuba. In scripture, the like instrument, used both in war and in the temple, was called KIREN-JOBEL, or horn, and *sopheroth bagijohelim*. It was used among the Jews to proclaim their feast-days, new moons, jubilees, sabbatic years, and the like. At Lacedemon, notice was given by the buccina when

when it was supper time; and the like was done at Rome, where the grandees had a buccina blown both before and after they sat down to table.

(2.) **BUCCINA AURIS**, in middle age writers, the drum of the ear.

(1.) **BUCCINATOR**, in anatomy, a muscle on each side of the face common to the lips and cheeks; making the inner substance of the latter. See **ANATOMY**, § 197.

(2.) **BUCCINATOR**, in antiquity, he that sounded the **BUCCINA**.

(3.) **BUCCINATOR NOMINUM**, a slave, among the ancient Romans, who attended the public orator.

(1.) **BUCCINUM**, in botany, a name given by some to the lark-spur.

(2.) **BUCCINUM**, in ichthyology, the **WHELK**, a genus of shell fish belonging to the order of *vermes testaceæ*. This animal is one of the snail kind. The shell is univalve, spiral, and gibbous. The aperture is oval, ending in a small strait canal. Linnaeus enumerates about 60 species, most of which are found in the southern seas. The six following are found in the British seas.

1. **BUCCINUM LAPILLUS**, or massy whelk, with about 5 spires; the side of the mouth slightly toothed; and a very strong thick shell, of a whitish colour. A variety yellow, or fasciated with yellow, on a white ground; or fulcated spirally, and sometimes reticulated. It is near an inch and an half long, and inhabits, in vast abundance, rocks near low-water mark. This is one of the British shells that produce the purple dye analogous to the **PURPURA** of the ancients. See **MUREX**. The process of obtaining the English purpura is thus described by Mr William Cole of Bristol, in 1684: "The shells, being harder than most other kinds, are to be broken with a smart stroke of a hammer, on a plate of iron or firm piece of timber, (with their mouth downwards,) so as not to crush the body of the fish within. The broken pieces being picked off, there will appear a white vein lying transversely in a little furrow or cleft next to the head of the fish, which must be dugged out with the stiff point of a horse-hair pencil, being made short and tapering. The letters, figures, or what else shall be made on the inside, (and perhaps silk too,) will presently appear of a pleasant light green colour; and if placed in the sun, will change into the following colours; (i. e. if in winter, about noon; if in summer, an hour or two after sun rising, and so much before setting; for in the heat of the day in summer, the colours will come on so fast, that the succession of each colour will scarcely be distinguished.) Next to the light green, it will appear of deep green; and in a few minutes, change into a sea-green; after which, in a few minutes more, it will alter to a watchet-blue; from that, in a little time more, it will be of a purple-red; after which (supposing the sun still shining,) it will be of a very deep purple red, beyond which the sun can do no more. But then, the last and most beautiful colour, after washing in scalding water and soap, will (the matter being again put into the wind or sun to dry) be of a fair bright crimson, or near to the prince's colour; which afterwards, notwithstanding there is

no use of any styptic to bind the colour, will continue the same if well ordered; as I have found in handkerchiefs, that have been washed more than 40 times; only it will be somewhat allayed from what it was after the first washing. While the cloth so writ upon lies in the sun, it will yield a very strong and fetid smell, as if garlic and assa-fœtida were mixed together." *Phil. Trans. Abr.* II. 826.

2. **BUCCINUM MINUTUM**, or small whelk, with 5 spires, striated spirally, ribbed transversely; is less than a pea, and is found in Norway.

3. **BUCCINUM PULLUS**, or brown whelk, with 5 spires, striated, waved, and tuberculated; aperture wrinkled; upper part replicated; and in length $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch.

4. **BUCCINUM RETICULATUM**, with spires scarcely raised, and strongly reticulated, is of a deep brown colour, and of an oblong form, and of the size of a hazel nut. The aperture is white, glossy, and denticulated.

5. **BUCCINUM STRIATUM** has 8 spires, with elevated striæ, undulated near the apex. It is near 4 inches long.

6. **BUCCINUM UNDATUM**, the waved whelk, with 7 spires, spirally striated and deeply and transversely undulated. It is 3 inches long, and inhabits deep water.

BUCCINUS, the sound of the **Buccina**.

BUCCLEUGH, a village of Scotland, in the county of Selkirk, from which the noble family of Scott have the title of Duke.

(1.) **BUCCO**, in anatomy, a name given by Ridolani, and others to the muscle called **BUCCINATOR**.

(2.) **BUCCO**, the **BARBET**, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of *picæ*. The beak is cultrated, turned inwards, compressed on the sides, and emarginated on each side at the apex; and there is a long slit below the eyes. The nostrils are covered with feathers. The feet have 4 toes, 2 before and 2 behind. Ornithologists enumerate several species, either as such, or as individuals, differing only in age or sex, all found in Asia, Africa, or the southern parts of America.—But Linnaeus mentions only one, viz.

BUCCO CAPENSIS, the bull-faced barbet. See *Plate XLII. Fig. 17.*

(1.) **BUCCULA**, in anatomy, the fleshy part under the chin.

(2.) **BUCCULA**, in antiquity, the umbo or prominent part in the middle of a shield; thus called because usually made in the form of a mouth or face.

BUCCULENT, *adj. obf.* wide-mouthed. *A/b.*

(1.) **BUCCENTAUR**, a galeas, or large galley of the *ci-devant* doge of Venice, adorned with fine pillars on both sides, and gilt over from the prow to the stern. This vessel is covered over head with a kind of tent made of purple silk. In it the doge received the great lords and persons of quality that went to Venice, accompanied with the ambassadors, counsellors of state, and all the senators seated on benches by him. It served also in the magnificent ceremony of ascension day, on which the doge threw a ring into the sea to espouse it, and to denote his dominion over the gulph of Venice.

Venice. Some ascribe the name to its being ornamented with the figure of a centaur; and trace its origin to the year 1177.

(2.) BUCENTAUR is also the name of a ship, as great and magnificent as that of the Venetians, built by order of the elector of Bavaria, and launched on a lake six leagues in length.

BUCEPHALA, or BUCEPHALOS, in ancient geography, a town, built by Alexander, on the W. side of the Hydaspis, a river of the Hither India, in memory of his horse.

BUCEPHALON, in botany. See TROPHIS.

BUCEPHALUS, the horse of Alexander the Great, which was killed in the action with Porus, after crossing that river. Others say, this horse died of age, 30 years old; and not in the battle, but some time after. Hesychius says, his being marked on the buttock with the head of an ox, gave rise to his name. This animal who had so long shared the toils and dangers of his master, had formerly received signal marks of royal regard. Having disappeared in the country of Uxii, Alexander issued a proclamation, commanding his horse to be restored, otherwise he would ravage the whole country with fire and sword. This command was immediately obeyed. "So dear" says Arrian, "was Bucephalus to Alexander, and so terrible was Alexander to the Barbarians!"

BUCER, Martin, one of the first reformers at Strasburg, was born in 1491, in Alsace; and took the religious habit of St Dominic, at 7 years of age: but meeting with the writings of Martin Luther, and comparing them with the Scriptures, he began to doubt of several things in the Romish religion. After some conferences with Luther at Heidelberg in 1521, he adopted most of his sentiments; but, in 1532, he gave the preference to those of Zuinglius. He assisted in many conferences concerning religion; and, in 1548, was sent for to Augsburg to sign the agreement between the Papists and Protestants, called the *interim*. His warm opposition to this project exposed him to many difficulties and hardships; the news of which reaching England, where his fame had already arrived, Cranmer, Abp. of Canterbury, gave him an invitation to come over, which he readily accepted. In 1549, an handsome apartment was assigned him in the university of Cambridge, and a salary to teach theology. K. Edward VI. had the greatest regard for him. Being told that he was very sensible of the cold of the climate, and suffered much for want of a German stove, he sent him 100 crowns to purchase one. He died in 1551; and was buried at Cambridge with great funeral pomp. In the reign of Mary, 5 years after, he was buried, his body was dug up and publicly burnt, and his tomb demolished; but it was afterwards re-built by order of queen Elizabeth. He composed many works, among which are commentaries on the evangelists and gospels.

BUCERAS, in botany, fenugreek. See TRIGONELLA.

BUCERISM, the tenets of Bucer.

BUCEROS, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of picæ. The beak is convex, cultrated, very large, directed outwards: the forehead is naked, gibbosity. The

nostrils are behind the base of the beak. The tongue is sharp and short. The feet are of the gressarii kind, i. e. the toes are distinct from each other. There are 4 species, viz.

(1.) BUCEROS, BICORNIS, with a flat bony fore-head, and two horns before. The body is black, and about the size of a hen; but the breast, belly, and thighs are white. There is a white spot on the wing; the tail is long, with ten black prime feathers, and the 4 outermost on each are white. The feet are greenish with 3 toes before, and one behind. It is a native of China, and called CALAO by Willoughby and other authors. The PIED HORN-BILL, described by Mr Latham (*Synops.* Vol. I. p. 349.) from a living specimen which came from the E. Indies, the author supposes to be the same species, differing merely in sex or age. In size it was a trifle bigger than a crow. The manners of this bird were peculiar: it would leap forwards or sideways with both legs at once like a magpie or jay, never walking: when at rest it folded its head back between the wings: the general air and appearance was rather stupid and dull, though it would sometimes put on a fierce look when surprised: it would eat lettuce, after bruising it with its bill, and swallow raw flesh; as well as devour rats, mice, and small birds, given to him: it had different tones of voice on different occasions; sometimes a hoarse sound in the throat, most like *ouck, ouck*; at other times very hoarse and weak, not unlike the clucking of a Turkey hen. This bird used to display its wings and enjoy itself in a warm sun, but shivered in the cold; and, as the winter approached, died, unable to bear the severity of the climate, so different to its nature. See *Plate XII. Fig. 1.* Another variety, the calao (*Phil. Transf.* vol. xxiii. p. 194.) is about the size of a hen. It inhabits the Philippine islands, and has a cry more like that of a hog or a calf than of a bird. The Gentoos rank it among their gods, and worship it. It lives altogether in woods, feeding on fruits, such as the Indian fig, pistachios, &c. which it swallows whole; and after the external parts have been digested, it brings up the nuts again whole, with the kernels fit for vegetation.

2. BUCEROS HYDROCORAX, the Indian crow of Ray, has a plain bony fore-head without any horns. The body is yellowish, and blackish below. It inhabits the Molucca isles. Willoughby observes, that it resembles our raven in the bill, but is red on the temples like some kinds of turkies; has wide nostrils and ill-favoured eyes; and that it feeds chiefly on nutmegs, whence its flesh has a fine aromatic relish. In its native place it is frequently tamed, and is useful in destroying rats and mice in houses.

3. BUCEROS NASUTUS, has a smooth fore-head, is about the size of a magpye, and is a native of Senegal. These birds are very common at Senegal, and other warm parts of the old continent, where they are called *tock*. They are very tame while young; inasmuch as to suffer themselves to be taken by the hand; but having learned experience with age, they become rather shy. When taken young they immediately become familiar; but are so stupid, as not to feed of themselves, though food be offered to them. In their wild

state they feed on fruits, but when domesticated eat bread, and almost any thing that is offered to them.

4. **BUCEROS RHINOCEROS** has a crooked horn in the forehead joined to the upper mandible. It is a native of India. It is said to feed on flesh and carrion; and to follow the hunters for the purpose of feeding on the entrails of the beasts which they kill. They chase rats and mice, and after pressing them flat with the bill in a peculiar manner and tossing them up into the air, swallow them whole immediately on their descent.

BUCHAM, a village in Norfolkshire, near Havergate, W. of Yarmouth.

(1.) **BUCHAN**, a territory of Scotland, lying partly in the county of Aberdeen and partly in that of Banff. The latter district extends northwards from the Ugie to the sea, and westward as far as Deveron, comprehending a tract of 20 miles in length and 9 in breadth, is more free from hills and mountains than any other county of the same extent in Scotland. That part which lies in Aberdeenshire, extends S. to the river Ythan. It is inhabited chiefly by Lowlanders, and gives the title of *earl* to the family of Erskine; of which family, however, Erskine of Mar is the chief.

(2.) **BUCHAN, BULLERS OF.** See **BULLERS BUCHAN**.

(1.) **BUCHANAN**, a parish of Scotland, in Stirlingshire, anciently called **INCH-CAILLOCH**, about 27 m. long and 9 broad. A long tract of it lies on the N. side of Lochlomond, and the Grampian hills stretch through it, from S. W. to N. E. The climate is healthy, but rather moist. Some of the natives have reached to 98 and 99 years of age. The soil is various, and produces oats, barley, sown grass, and potatoes, upon which last the people live half the year. The population, about 1790, was 1111, and had decreased 598, since 1755, according to Mr M'Gibbon's statement to Sir J. Sinclair.

(2.) **BUCHANAN**, George, the best Latin poet of his time, was born in February 1506. This accomplished scholar and distinguished wit was not descended of a family remarkable for its rank. He had no occasion for the splendor of ancestry. He wanted not a reflected greatness, the equivocal, and too often the only ornament of the rich and noble. A small farm called the Moss, 2 miles from the village of Killearn, in Stirlingshire, was the place of his nativity, and the property of his father. George, however, might have been confined to toil at the lowest employments of life, if the generosity of his uncle, George Heriot, had not assisted him in his education, and enabled him to pursue for two years his studies at Paris, after his father's death. But that short space was scarcely elapsed, when the death of his benefactor obliged him to return to his own country, and forsake, for a time the paths of science. He was yet under his 20th year, and in this extremity, he enlisted as a common soldier under John duke of Albany, who commanded the troops which France had sent, to assist Scotland in the war against England. But he was disgusted with the fatigues of one campaign; and, fortunately, John Major, then professor of philosophy at St Andrew's, hearing of his necessity and his merit, afforded him a

temporary relief. He now became the pupil of John Maiz, a celebrated teacher in that university under whom he studied logic: and contracting an attachment to his master, he followed him to Paris, where he was invited to teach grammar in the college of St Barbe. In this slavish occupation, he was found by the earl of Cassilis; with whom having remained 5 years at Paris, he returned to Scotland. He next acted as a preceptor to the famous earl of Murray, the natural son of James V. But while he was forming this nobleman for foreign affairs, he found that his life was in danger, from enemies, whose vindictive rage could suffer no abatement, and who would not scruple the most dishonourable means of gratifying it. The scandalous lives of the clergy had excited his indignation; and, more than reasoning or argument, had estranged him from the errors of Popery. The Franciscan monks, enraged at the beautiful but poignant satires he had written against them, branded him with the appellation of *atheist*; a term which bigots of all denominations are too apt indiscriminately to lavish upon those who differ from them. Not satisfied with the outrage of abuse and calumny, they conspired his destruction. Cardinal Beaton gave order to apprehend him, and bribed king James V. with a very considerable sum to permit his execution. He was seized accordingly; and the first genius of the age was about to perish by the halter, or by fire, to satisfy a few bloody priests, when escaping the vigilance of his guards, he fled into England. Henry VIII. at all times the slave of caprice and passion, was then burning at the same stake, the Lutheran and the Papist. His court did not suit a philosopher or a satyrst. After a short stay, Buchanan crossed the sea to France; and to his extreme disappointment, found, at Paris, cardinal Beaton, as ambassador from Scotland. He retired privately to Bourdeaux, dreading new misfortunes, and concerned that he could not prosecute his studies in obscurity and in silence. Here he met with Andrew Govea, a Portuguese of great learning and worth, with whom he had formerly been acquainted during his travels, and who was employed in teaching a public school. He disdained not to act as the assistant of his friend; and during the 3 years he resided at this place, he composed the tragedies which do him so much honour. It was here, also, that he wrote some of the most pleasant of those poems, in which he rallied the Muses, and threatened to forsake them, as not being able to maintain their votary. About this time, too, he presented a copy of verses to the emperor Charles V. who happened to pass through Bourdeaux. His enemies, mean time, were not inactive. Cardinal Beaton wrote about him to the archbishop of Bourdeaux; and by every motive which a cunning and wicked heart can invent, he invited him to punish the most pestilential of all heretics. The archbishop, however, on enquiry, was convinced that the poet had committed a very small impropriety. Meantime Govea being called by the K. of Portugal, to establish an academy at Coimbra, intreated Buchanan to accompany him. He consented, but had not been a year in Portugal, when Govea died, and left him exposed to the malice of his inveterate enemies the monks. They loudly

ly objected to him, that he was a Lutheran; that he had written poems against the Franciscans; and that he had been guilty of the abominable crime of eating flesh in lent. He was confined to a monastery till he should learn what these men fancied to be religion; and they enjoined him to translate the Psalms into Latin verse; a task which every man of taste knows with what admirable skill and genius he performed. On obtaining his liberty, he had the promise of a speedy promotion from the king of Portugal; the issue of which, his aversion to the clergy did not allow him to wait. He hastened to England; but the perturbed state of affairs during the minority of Edward VI. not giving him the prospect of any lasting security, he set out for France. There he had not been long, when he published his *Jephthes*, which he dedicated to the marshal de Brissac. This patron did not want generosity, and could judge of merit. He sent him to Piedmont, as preceptor to his son Timoleon de Cossé. In this employment he continued several years; and during the leisure it afforded him, he fully examined the controversies which now agitated Europe; and put the last hand to many of the most admired of his smaller poems. After this, he returned to Scotland, and made an open profession of the reformed faith. But he soon quitted his native country for France; which appears to have been more agreeable to his taste. Q. Mary, however, having determined that he should have the charge of educating her son, recalled him; and till the prince should arrive at a proper age, he was nominated to the principality of St Andrew's. His success as James's preceptor is well known.—When it was reproached to him, that he had made his majesty a pedant: “It is a wonder (replied he) that I have made so much of him.” Mackenzie relates a story concerning his tutelage of his pedantic majesty, which is strongly expressive of Buchanan's character as a man of humour, and at the same time shows the degree of his veneration for royalty. The young king being one day at play with his fellow pupil, the master of Erskine, Buchanan, who was then reading, desired them to make less noise. Finding that they disregarded his admonition, he told his majesty, if he did not hold his tongue, he would certainly whip his breech. The king replied, he would be glad to see who would *bell the cat*, alluding to the fable. Buchanan, in a passion, threw the book from him, and gave his majesty a sound flogging. The old countess of Mar, who was then in the next apartment, rushed into the room, and taking the king in her arms, asked how he dared to lay his hand on *the Lord's anointed*? “Madam, says Buchanan, I have whipped his a—; you may kiss it, if you please.” During the misfortunes that befel the amiable but imprudent Mary, he joined the party of the Earl of Murray; and at his earnest desire, he was prevailed upon to write his *Detection*, a work which his greatest admirers have read with regret. Having been sent with other commissioners to England, against his mistress, he was, on his return, rewarded with the abbacy of Cross Reguel; made director to the chancery; and some time after lord of privy council and privy

seal. He was likewise rewarded by Q. Elizabeth with a pension of L. 100 a-year. The last 12 years of his life he employed in composing the history of Scotland. After having vied with the most eminent of the Latin poets, he contested with Livy and Sallust the palm of eloquence and political sagacity. But like the former of these historians, he was not always careful to preserve himself from the charge of partiality. He expired at Edinburgh, in 1582, aged 76. Authors speak of him in very different language, according to their religious and political principles. As a Latin writer, however, in prose as well as poetry, he has hardly been equalled since the reign of Augustus; nor is he less deserving of remembrance as a friend to the natural liberties of mankind, in opposition to usurpation and tyranny. “The happy genius of Buchanan, (says Doctor Robertson,) equally formed to excel in prose and in verse, more various, more original, and more elegant, than that of almost any other modern who writes in Latin, reflects, with regard to this particular, the greatest lustre on his country.” And the Earl of Buchan, in his *Introduct.* to his *Life of Fletcher*, (p. xxi.) says, “Buchanan arose in Scotland like the morning star, to announce the approach of philosophical day. He was the father of *Whiggery* as a *philosophe* in Britain, if not in Europe; the Lord Bacon or Newton of political science; by far the greatest man of his age, as Napier was of his country, in invention; in as much as political science is above all others in real importance. Buchanan and Fletcher alone were elevated above the ages in which they lived; and shed a lustre towards those that were to succeed, which will continue to shine more and more unto the perfect day.” The following is a list of his works, 1. *Rerum Scoticarum Historia*, &c. 2. *Psalmorum Davidis paraphrasis poetica*. 3. *De jure regni apud Scotos Dialogus*. 4. *Psalmus civ. cum judicio Barclaii*, &c. 5. *Psalmus cxx. cum analysi organica Beuzeri*. 6. *Baptistes, sive Calumnia*. 7. *Jephthes, sive exilis, tragedia*. 8. *Euripidis Medea et Alceste, tragedia*. 9. *De Caleto recepto carmen*. 10. *Franciscanus Fratres*. 11. *Elegia, Silva*, &c. 12. *De fortuna*. 13. *Poemata miscellanea*. 14. *Satyræ in cardinalis Lotbaringium*. 15. *Rudimenta grammatices, Thoma Linacri ex Anglico sermone in Latinum versæ*. 16. An admonition to the true lords. 17. *De prosodia*. 18. *Chameleon*, 1572. 19. *Ad viros sancti culi epistola*. 20. *Litteræ reginæ Scoticæ ad com. Bothwelliæ*. 21. A detection of the doings of Mary queen of Scots, and of James earl of Bothwell, against Henry lord Darnly. 22. *Hendecasyllabi et Jambi*. 23. *Fratres Fraterrimi*. 24. *Epigrammata*. 25. *Vita ab ipso scripta biennio ante mortem*. 26. Life of Mary queen of Scots. These have been severally printed often, and in various countries. An edition of his whole works was printed at Edinburgh, in 1704, in 2 vols folio. An elegant monument was erected to his memory, in 1788, at Killearn; which is thus described by the rev. Mr Ure: “It is a well proportioned obelisk, 19 feet square at the basis, and reaching to the height of 103 feet. In the middle is a cavity of 6 feet square at the bottom, gradually diminishing until it reaches the height of 54 feet; where it becomes

so narrow as to receive the end of a Norway pole, which is continued to the top of the obelisk. The foundation stone was laid in June, 1788, by the Rev. J. Graham. In it was deposited a crystal bottle hermetically sealed, containing a silver medal; on which was engraved the following inscription:

IN MEMORIAM

GEORGI BUCHANANI,

POETÆ & HISTORICI CELEBERRIMI:

ACCOLIS HUIUS LOCI ULTRA CONFERENTIBUS,
HÆC COLUMNA POSITA EST, 1788.

JACOBUS CRAIG, ARCHITECT. EDINBURGEN."

(3.) BUCHANAN HOUSE, an ancient mansion in the above parish, (No. 1.) which belonged for near 700 years to the Buchanans of that ilk, but is now the seat of the D. of Montrose.

(4.) BUCHANAN'S SOCIETY, a charitable institution in Glasgow, founded in 1725, for the relief of persons of the name of Buchanan.

BUCHANITES, a sect of enthusiasts, who sprung up in the west of Scotland, about 1783, and took their name from a Mrs Buchan of Glasgow, who gave herself out to be the woman spoken of in the Revelations, and that all who believed in her should be taken up into Heaven without tasting death, as the end of the world was near. Mr White minister of the Relief Church at Irvine, (whom she stiled the man-child brought forth by the woman,) with the town clerk and some others, were among the principal people, who were so infatuated as to listen to her ravings, and join her followers. From the folly of some bigots, the Buchanites had their share of persecution. At Irvine, the house in which they met was assaulted, and the furniture and windows broken; and in Dec. 1784, similar outrages were committed against them at Cloveburn, in Dumfries-shire; in consequence whereof 21 of the rioters were fined by the sheriff. Their party, however, never increased much, and the death of their leader within a year or two afterwards, occasioned their dispersion by putting an end to their hopes of reaching the New Jerusalem without death. See *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* VII. 181; and *Scots Mag.*

BUCHAN-NESS, a promontory of Scotland, of which it is the farthest point, and the most eastern of all Scotland. It is near Peterhead. Lon. 1. 15. E. Lat. 57. 28. N.

BUCHANTY, a place in Perthshire, where there is a bridge over the Almon.

BUCHARS, a people of Great Tartary, who inhabit ABLAI, and are subject to Russia.

BUCHAU, or } a free and imperial town of
(1.) BUCHAW, } Germany in Suabia, seated on the Tedersee, 22 miles S. W. of Ulm. It has a monastery, whose abbess has a voice in the diets of the empire. Lon. 9. 40. E. Lat. 48. 5. N.

(2.) BUCHAW, a small territory of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, which comprehends the district of Flud.

BUCHNERA, in botany, a genus of the angiospermia order, in the didynamia class of plants; ranking, in the natural method, under the 40th order, Personatæ. The characters are these: the perianthium is tubular, consisting of one leaf, di-

vided into 5 segments at the edge, and remaining after the flower is fallen. The flower consists of one petal, which forms a very long and capillary arched tube; its verge is plain and short, and is divided lightly into 3 segments, which are small at the base, and broader, and figured like a heart at the top. The stamina are 4 very short filaments; the antheræ are oblong and obtuse; the germen of the pistil is oblong and oval; the style is very slender, and of the length of the tube; and the stigma is obtuse. The fruit is capsule of an oblong oval figure, pointed at the end, containing two cells, and opening at the top into two parts. The seeds are numerous, and of an angular figure. There are 4 species.

BUCHOREST, a pretty large town of Turkey in Europe, seated in the middle of Walachia, and the ordinary residence of a hospodar. The houses are mean and very ill built, except a few that belong to the principal persons. In 1716, a party of Germans from Transylvania entered this town, and took the prince prisoner with all his court, and carried them off. The prince to regain his liberty, gave up that part of Walachia, which lies between the river Aluth and Transylvania, to the emperor, in 1718. But after the fatal battle of Crotzka, in 1737, the emperor was obliged to restore this part of Walachia to the hospodar by the treaty of Belgrade. Lon. 26. 30. E. Lat. 44. 30. N.

BUCHORN, a small, free, and imperial town of Suabia in Germany, seated on the lake, 14 m. E. from the town of Constance. Lon. 9. 20. E. Lat. 47. 40. N.

BUCIDA, in botany, a genus of the order monogynia, in the decandria class of plants; ranked, in the natural method, under the 12th order, Holeraceæ. The calyx is indented in 5 segments; it has no corolla; and the fruit is a single seeded berry. There is only one species.

BUCINAM, in botany, the comfrey. See SYMPHYTUM.

BUCIOCHE, in commerce, a sort of woollen cloth manufactured in France, chiefly in the departments of Var, Lower Alps and the Mouths of the Rhone, which the French export to Alexandria and Cairo.

(1.) * BUCK. *n. f.* [*bauche*, Germ. suds, or lye.] 1. The liquor in which clothes are washed.—*Buck!* I would I could wash myself of the *buck*; I warrant you, buck, and of the season too it shall appear. *Shakefp.* 2. The clothes washed in the liquor.—Of late, not able to travel with her furred pack, she washes *bucks* here at home. *Shakefp.*

(2.) * BUCK. *n. f.* [*buech*, Welch; *bock*, Dutch; *bouc*, Fr.] The male of the fallow deer; the male of rabbits, and other animals.—*Bucks*, goats, and the like are said to be tripping or saliant, that is, going or leaping. *Peacham.*

(3.) BUCK, in geography, a mountain of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, which is 2377 feet above the level of the sea, and is seen at the distance of 30 miles from land, though situated above 30 m. from the nearest sea.

(4.) BUCK, in zoology and hunting. See CERVUS, LEPUS, and HUNTING.

(1.) * To BUCK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To wash clothes.

clothes.—Here is a basket; he may creep in here, and throw foul linen upon him, as if it were going to *bucking*. *Shakespeare*.

(2.) * *To BUCK*. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To copulate as bucks and does.—The chief time of setting traps, is in their *bucking* time. *Mortimer*.

BUCK-A-BANK, a village in Cumberland.

* BUCKBASKET. *n. f.* The basket in which clothes are carried to the wash.—They conveyed me into a *buckbasket*; rammed me in with foul shirts, foul stockings, and greasy napkins. *Shakesf.*

(1.) * BUCKBEAN. *n. f.* [*bockboonen*, Dutch.] A plant; a sort of *trefoil*.—The bitter nauseous plants, as centaury, *buckbane*, gentian, of which teas may be made, or wines, by infusion. *Floyer*.

(2.) BUCK-BEAN, in botany. See MENYANTHES.

BUCKBY, LONG, a village in Northamptonsh. 3 miles N. E. of Daventry.

BUCKDEN, or BUGDEN. See BUGDEN.

BUCKDON, near Bishopdale, Yorkshire.

BUCKELLY, 4 miles S. W. of Camelford, Cornwall.

BUCKEN-HALL, in Essex, N. of Bocking.

(1.) BUCKENHAM, a town in Norfolkshire, 12 miles from Thetford, and 90 from London.

(2.) BUCKENHAM FERRY, a village in Norfolkshire, over the Yare, 5 miles E. of Norwich.

(3.) BUCKENHAM HOUSE, 4 m. N. of Thetford.

(4.) BUCKENHAM, NEW, a town of Norfolk, which formerly had a strong castle. It is seated on the river Wavency, between Ipswich and Norwich, 96 miles from London. Lon. 1. 10. E. Lat. 52. 30. N.

(5.) BUCKENHAM, OLD, N. W. of New Buckenham.

BUCKERALL, 3 miles W. of Honiton, Devonshire.

BUCKEREST. See BUCHOREST.

BUCKERN, 3 miles N. of Bodnin, Cornwall.

(1.) * BUCKET. *n. f.* [*baquet*, Fr.] 1. The vessel in which water is drawn out of a well.—

Now is this golden crown like a deep well,
That owes two *buckets*, filling one another;
The emptier ever dancing in the air,
The other down unseen, and full of water.

Shakespeare.

—Is the sea ever likely to be evaporated by the sun, or to be emptied with *buckets*? *Bentley*.

2. The vessels in which water is carried, particularly to quench a fire.—

Now streets grow throng'd, and, busy as by day,

Some run for *buckets* to the hallow'd quire;
Some cut the pipes, and some the engines play;
And some, more bold, mount ladders to the fire.

Dryden.

The porringers, that in a row
Hung high, and made a glitt'ring show,
To a less noble substance chang'd,
Were now but leathern *buckets* rang'd. *Swift*.

(2.) BUCKETS (§ 1. *def.* 2.) are often made of leather for lightness and easy use in cases of fire.

BUCKFASTLEIGH, a village in Devonshire, 3 miles from Ashburnham.

BUCKHAM, in Surry, near Egham.

BUCKHAMPTON, near Lamborn, Berkshire.

BUCKHAVEN, a village on the coast of Fife-

shire, in the parish of Wemyss, inhabited chiefly by fishermen, who generally marry young, and all of them fishermen's daughters. Its first inhabitants were Dutchmen, whose vessel being stranded on this coast, in the reign of Philip II. they proposed to settle on it, which the family of Wemyss agreed to. By the rev. Mr Gibb's report to Sir J. Sinclair, it contained, in 1791, 163 families, consisting of 601 inhabitants, of sober, honest, and industrious characters. Above 40 years ago, haddocks were so plentiful on this coast that they would have caught 25,000 in one day, which sold at from 6d. to 10d. per 100.

BUCKHOLE, 2 miles S. E. of Hoo, Suffex.

BUCKHOLE FOREST, in Hampshire, near Witley.

BUCKHORN WESTON, in Dorsetshire.

BUCK-HUNTING. See HUNTING.

BUCKHURST, in Suffex, near Ashdown.

(1.) BUCKIE, a fishing town on the coast of Banffshire, in the parish of Rathven, seated at the mouth of the rivulet. (N° 2.) By the rev. Mr Donaldson's report to Sir J. Sinclair, in 1793, it contained 165 houses, and 503 inhabitants; and employed 6 sloops, 14 boats, and 1 yawl.

(2.) BUCKIE, a rivulet in Banffshire.

BUCKING. See BLEACHING, *Index*.

(1.) BUCKINGHAM, a county of the United States, in Virginia, bounded on the N. by James river, which separates it from Fluvanna; on the S. E. by Cumberland; on the S. W. by Campbell; and on the S. by the Appamattox, which divides it from Prince-Edward County. It is 65 miles long and 30 broad; and in 1795, contained 5,611 free inhabitants, and 4,168 slaves.

(2.) BUCKINGHAM, BUCKS, or BUCKINGHAMSHIRE, an inland county of England. Before the landing of the Romans it was included in the division of Catieuchlani; and after their conquest it was included in their 3d province of Flavia Crispinensis. During the heptarchy it belonged to the kingdom of Mercia; and it is now included in the Norfolk circuit, the diocese of Lincoln, and the province of Canterbury. It is bounded on the N. by Northamptonshire; S. by Berkshire; E. by Bedfordshire, Hertfordshire, and Middlesex; and W. by Oxfordshire. It is of an oblong form, and its greatest extent is from N. to S. It contains 441,000 acres, has above 111,400 inhabitants, 185 parishes, 73 vicarages, is 39 miles long, 18 broad, and 100 in circumference. It has 15 market towns, viz. Buckingham and Aylesbury the county towns; Marlow, Newport-Pagnel, Winslow, Wendover, Beaconsfield, Wiccomb, Chessham, Amersham, Stony Stratford, Colnbrook, Ivingho, Oulby, and Risborough; besides the considerable villages of Eaton and Fenny Stratford, and 613 others inferior. It is divided into 8 hundreds, provides 1000 men for the militia, sends 14 members to parliament, and pays 12 parts of the land tax. Its rivers are the Thames, Ouse, Coln, Wicham, Amersham, Iffa, Tame, and Loddon. Its chief trade consists in bone-lace, paper, corn, fine wool, and breeding rams. The most noted places are the Chiltren Hills, Vale of Aylesbury, Bernwood Forest, Wooburn Heath, and 15 parks. The air is generally good, and the soil mostly chalk or marl.

(3.) BUCKINGHAM, the chief town of the above county, (N° 2.) stands in a low ground, on the river

ver Ouse, by which it is almost surrounded, and over which there are 3 handsome stone bridges. It is large and populous, and sends two members to parliament. At the conquest, according to Doomday-book, it paid only for one hide, and had but 26 burghesses. Edward the elder fortified it in 918, against the incursions of the Danes, with a rampart and turrets. It also had formerly a castle in the middle of the town, of which no vestiges now remain. The shrine of St Rumbald, the patron of fishermen, preserved in the church, was held in great veneration. The county gaol stands in this town, and the assizes are sometimes held in it. It was formerly a staple for wool. It is governed by 1 bailiff and 12 burghesses, who are the sole electors of the members. In its neighbourhood are many paper mills upon the Ouse. It is 15 miles N. E. of Oxford, and 57 N. W. of London. Lon. 0. 58. W. Lat. 51. 56. N.

(4.) BUCKINGHAM, a village in Suffex, N. of Shoreham.

(5, 6.) BUCKINGHAM, dukes of. See SHEPHERD, and VILLIERS.

BUCKINGTON, a town in Wilts, between Devizes and Trowbridge.

BUCKLAND, the name of 15 English villages; viz. 1. in Berkshire, near Farrington: 2. in Bucks, N. E. of Wendover: 3. EAST, and 4. WEST, in Devonsh. near S. Moulton: 5. NORTH, in ditto, near Bear-Alston: 6. in Gloucestershire, 5 miles W. of Campden: 7. in Hertfordshire, 34 miles from London: 8, 9, & 10. in Kent, near Dover, Faversham, and Maidstone: 11. in Lincolnshire, between Tattershall and Horncastle: 12. in Somersetshire, 2 miles N. E. of Frome; 13. in ditto, 5 miles from Taunton; 14. in ditto, near Wellington: and 15. in Surry, near Ryegate.

BUCKLAND-ABBAS, or NEWTON, in Dorsetsh. 4 miles E. of Cerne-Abbas.

BUCKLAND-ABBOTS, near Calne, Wilts.

BUCKLAND-BRUER, in Devonshire, N. W. of Torrington.

BUCKLAND BURN, a rivulet of Scotland, in Kirkcudbrightshire.

BUCKLAND-PEE, a village in Somersetshire, near N. Petherton.

BUCKLAND-FILLY, in Devonshire, N. W. of Steep-wath.

BUCKLAND HOUSE, New Forest, Hampshire.

BUCKLAND-MARY, in Somersetshire, 4 miles S. W. of Ilminster. It has a fair September 18.

BUCKLAND MONACHORUM, [*i. e.* OF THE MONKS,] in Devonshire, near Tavistock. It has a fair on Whit. Tuesday and November 2.

BUCKLAND-RIFERS, in Dorsetshire, S. W. of Blandford.

BUCKLAND'S PLACE, in Gloucestershire, near Badgeworth.

BUCKLAND-TOWNSEND, in Devonshire, near Dartmouth.

(1.) * BUCKLE. *n. f.* [*bawcel*, Welch, and the same in the Armorick; *boucle*, Fr.] 1. A link of metal, with a tongue or catch made to fasten one ring to another.—

Fair lined slippers for the cold,
With *buckles* of the purest gold. *Shakespeare.*

—The chlamys was a sort of short cloak tied with a *buckle*, commonly to the right shoulder. *Arbutb.*

VOL. IV. PART II.

Three seal rings; which after, melted down,
Form'd a vast *buckle* for his widow's gown. *Pope.*

2. The state of the hair crisped and curled; by being kept long in the same state.—The greatest beau was dressed in a flaxen periwig; the wearer of it goes in his own hair at home, and lets his wig lie in *buckle* for a whole half year. *Spektat.*—

That live-long wig, which Gorgon's self might own,

Eternal *buckle* takes in Parian stone. *Pope.*

(2.) BUCKLE, in heraldry, is considered as a token of the surety, faith, and service of the bearer.

(3.) BUCKLES, (*q. d.* *def. 1.*) are made of various metals, as gold, silver, steel, brass, &c.

(1.) * To BUCKLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To fasten with a buckle.—

Like sapphire, pearl, in rich embroidery,
Buckled below fair knighthood's bending knee. *Shakespeare.*

France, whose armour conscience *buckl'd* on,
Whom zeal and charity brought to the field. *Shakespeare.*

Thus, ever, when I *buckle* on my helmet,
Thy fears afflict thee. *Philips.*

—When you carry your master's riding coat, wrap your own in it, and *buckle* them up close with a strap. *Swift.* 2. To prepare to do any thing: the metaphor is taken from *buckling* on the armour.—

The Saracen, this hearing, rose again,
And catching up in haste his three-square shield,
And shining helmet, soon him *buckled* to the field. *Spenser.*

3. To join in battle.—The lord Gray, captain of the men at arms, was forbidden to charge, until the foot of the avantguard were *buckled* with them in front. *Hayward.* 4. To confine.—

How brief the life of man
Runs his erring pilgrimage!
That the stretching of a span
Buckles in his sum of age. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) * To BUCKLE. *v. n.* [*bucken*, Germ.] 1. To bend; to bow.—

The wretch, whose fever-weaken'd joints,
Like strengthless hinges, *buckle* under life
Impatient of his fit, breaks like a fire
Out of his keeper's arms. *Shakespeare.*

2. To *buckle to*. To apply to to attend. See the *active*, 2d sense.—

Now a covetous old crafty knave,
At dead of night, shall rail his son, and cry,
Turn out, you rogue; how like a beast you lie;
Go *buckle* to the law. *Dryden.*

—This is to be done in children, by trying them, when they are by laziness unbent, or by avocation bent another way, and endeavouring to make them *buckle* to the thing proposed. *Locke.* 3. To *buckle with*. To engage with; to encounter; to join in a close fight, like men locked or buckled together.—

For single combat, thou shalt *buckle with* me. *Shakespeare.*

Yet thou, they say, for marriage dost provide;
Is this an age to *buckle with* a bride? *Dryden.*

BUCKLEBURY, a town N. E. of Newbury, Berkshire.

(1.) * BUCKLER. *n. f.* [*bawcelled*, Welch; *bouclier*, Fr.]

lier, Fr.] A shield; a defensive weapon buckled on the arm.—

He took my arms, and while I forc'd my way,
Thro' troops of foes, which did our passage stay;
My *buckler* o'er my aged father cast,

Still fighting, still defending as I past. *Dryden*.
—This medal compliments the emperor, as the Romans did dictator Fabius, when they called him the *buckler* of Rome. *Addison*.

(2.) **BUCKLERS** were composed of wickers woven together, or wood of the lightest sort, covered with hides, and fortified with plates of brass or other metal. The figure was sometimes round, sometimes oval, and sometimes almost square. Most bucklers were adorned with figures of birds, beasts, gods, celestial bodies, &c. &c. a custom derived from the heroic times, and from them communicated to the Grecians, Romans, and Barbarians. See § 3.

(3.) **BUCKLERS, ROMAN.** The **SCUTUM**, or Roman buckler, was of wood, the parts being joined together with little plates of iron, and the whole covered with a bull's hide. An iron plate encompassed it without, to keep off blows; and another within, to prevent damage by lying on the ground. In the middle was an iron boss (*umbo*) jutting out, to glance off stones and darts; and sometimes to press violently upon the enemy, and drive all before them. The **CLYPEI**, were less, and quite round, belonging more properly to other nations, though for some time used by the Romans. The *scuta* were of two kinds; the **O-VATA**, of a plain oval figure; and the **IMBRICATA**, oblong, and bending inward like half a cylinder. Polybius makes the *scuta* 4 feet long, and Plutarch calls them *σάκκισ*, reaching down to the feet. And it is probable that they covered almost the whole body, for in Livy, we find that soldiers on guard sometimes slept with their head on their shield, having fixed the other part of it in the earth.

(4.) **BUCKLERS, VOTIVE**, were those consecrated to the gods, and hung up in their temples, either in commemoration of some hero, or as a thanksgiving for a victory obtained over an enemy; whose bucklers, taken in war, were offered as a trophy.

* **To BUCKLER**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To support; to defend.—

Fear not, sweet wench, they shall not touch thee, Kate;

I'll *buckler* thee against a million. *Shakespeare*.

Can Oxford, that did ever fence the right,
Now *buckler* falsehood with a pedigree? *Shakesf.*

BUCKLER-MUSTARD. See **BISCUTELLA**.

* **BUCKLER-THORN.** *n. f.* Christ's thorn.

BUCKLESHAM, a village in Suffolk, between Ipswich and Bawdsey.

BUCKLESTOWN, a small town of Virginia, 8 miles from Martinsburg, and 250 from Philadelphia.

BUCKLEY, two villages; viz. 1. in Cheshire, W. of lake Combermere: 2. in Cornwall, 3 miles N. W. of Camelford.

BUCKLEY-FEKEY, in Northamptonshire, near Daventry.

* **BUCKMAST.** *n. f.* The fruit or mast of the beech tree.

BUCKMINSTER, two villages; viz. 1. in Leicestershire, near Rutlandshire: 2. in Wiltshire, 4 miles N. of Ambresbury.

BUCKNALL, 5 miles W. of Horncastle, Lincolnshire.

BUCKNELL, 4 villages: viz. 1. in Oxfordsh. near Bicester: 2. in Shropshire, near Herefordsh. 3. in Somersetshire, near Staple-Fitz-Pain: and, 4. in Staffordshire, 3 miles N. of Stone.

BUCKNESS, W. of Stapleton, Cumberland.

BUCKNOL, 1 mile S. W. of Corfe-Castle, Dorsetshire.

BUCKNY, a rivulet of Perthshire, which rises from Lochnachat, and running S. E. between the mountains Ben-achally and Deuchara, forms the lake called **DOO-LOCH**; thence thunders down a deep narrow rocky den, covered with wood, called **Richip**, and after separating the parishes of Caputh and Clunie, falls into the river Lunan.

(1) **BUCKOR**, a province of Asia, subject to the Great Mogul. It is seated on the Indus, on the banks of which there are corn and cattle; but the W. part is a desert. It is bounded on the N. by the province of Multan; on the S. by Tattan, and on the W. by Sagestan in Persia. The inhabitants are strong, robust, and apt to mutiny; for which reason the mogul has a garrison at the capital. (Nº 2.) They are all Mahometans, and drive a great trade in cotton cloth, and other Indian commodities.

(2.) **BUCKOR**, the capital of the above province, Nº 1. Lon. 70. 5. E. Lat. 28. 20. N.

(1.) * **BUCKRAM.** *n. f.* [*bougran*, Fr.] A sort of strong linen cloth, stiffened with gum, used by tailors and staymakers.—I have peppered two of them; two, I am sure, I have paid, two regals in *buckram* suits. *Shakespeare*.

(2.) **BUCKRAM** is more generally, if not always, stiffened with glue, and used in the making of garments to keep them in the form intended. It is also used in the bodies of women's gowns; and often to make wrappers to cover cloths, serges, and such other merchandises, to preserve them, and keep them from the dust, and their colours from fading. Buckrams are sold wholesale by the dozen of small pieces or remnants, each about 4 ells long, and broad according to the piece from which they are cut. Sometimes new pieces of linen cloth are used to make buckrams, but most commonly old sheets and old pieces of sails.

* **BUCKRAMS.** *n. f.* The same with *quilt garlick*.

(1.) **BUCKS**, a populous and well cultivated county of the United States in Pennsylvania; bounded on the N. E., E. and S. E. by the Delaware; which separates it from Hunterdon county; on the S. W. by Philadelphia and Montgomery counties, and on the N. W. by Northampton. Its greatest length is 41 miles, and breadth 21. It contains 411,900 acres; and is divided into 27 townships. Its population, in 1795, was 25,140 free citizens, and 261 slaves. On the S. it is fertile, but the land on the N. is rather poor: But it abounds in lime stone. Lead and iron ores have also been discovered in it. Newton is the chief town.

(2.) **BUCKS.** See **BUCKINGHAM**, Nº 2.

BUCKSEED, a village near Haynham, Suffex.

(1.) * **BUCKS**

(1.) * BUCKSHORN PLANTAIN. *n. f.* [*coronop.*, Lat. from the form of the leaf.] A plant. *Miller.*

(2.) BUCKS-HORN PLANTAIN. See PLANTAGO.

(3.) BUCKS-HORN, WARTED. See COCHLEARIA.

BUCK-SKIN, *adj.* made of leather; prepared from the skin of a buck. *Ash.*

BUCK-STALL, a toil to take deer, which must not be kept by any person, who has not a park of his own, under penalties.

BUCKSTEAD, a town of Sussex, near Ashdown Forest, where the first pieces of cast iron ever made in England were run. It has a fair, July 31.

1. * BUCKTHORN. *n. f.* [*rhamnus*, Lat. supposed to be so called from *bucc*, Saxon, the belly.] A tree that bears a purging berry.

(2.) BUCK-THORN, in botany. See RHAMNUS.

(3.) BUCK-THORN, SEA. See HIPPOPHAE.

BUCKTHORP, a town 4 m. S. of Gloucester.

BUCKTON, the name of 4 villages; viz. 1. in Herefordsh. near Brampton-Bryan: 2. in Northamptonshire, near Fenwick: 3. in ditto, W. of Moulton; and, 4. in Yorksh. N. of Bridlington.

BUCKWARE, in Essex, W. of Roding-Abbots.

BUCKWELL, in Kent, between Canterbury and Whitstable.

* (1.) BUCKWHEAT. *n. f.* [*buckweitz*, Germ. *farro*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*

(2.) BUCK-WHEAT, in botany. See POLYGONUM.

BUCKWORTH, two villages; 1. near Leighton, Huntingdonsh. 2. near Newcastle on Tyne.

BUCOLICA, a term used by some authors for the art of managing cattle.

(1.) * BUCOLICK. *adj.* [*βουκολικα*, from *βουκολο*, a cowherd.] Pastoral.

(2.) BUCOLICS, in ancient poetry, a kind of poems relating to shepherds and country affairs, which, according to the most generally received opinion, originated in Sicily. Bucolics, says *Vossius*, have some conformity with comedy. Like it, they are pictures and imitations of ordinary life; with this difference, that comedy represents the manners of the inhabitants of cities, and bucolics the occupations of country people. Sometimes, this last poem is in form of a monologue, and sometimes of a dialogue. Sometimes there is action in it, and sometimes only narration; and sometimes it is composed both of action and narration. The hexameter verse is the most proper for bucolics in the Greek and Latin tongues. *Mosschus*, *Bion*, *Theocritus*, and *Virgil*, are the most renowned of the ancient bucolic poets.

BUCTION, in anatomy, a word used by *Severinus* and others for the Hymen.

* (1.) BUD. *n. f.* [*bouton*, Fr.] The first shoot of a plant; a gem.—

Be as thou wast wont to be,

See as thou wast wont to see:

Dian's bud o'er Cupid's flower

Hath such force and blessed power. *Shakefp.*

Writers say, as the most forward bud

Is eaten by the canker ere it blow,

Even so by love the young and tender wit

Is turn'd to folly, blasting in the bud,

Losing his verdure even in the prime. *Shakefp.*

When you the flow'rs for *Chloe* twine,

Why do you to her garland join

The meanest bud that falls from mine? *Prior.*

—Insects wound the tender buds, with a long hollow trunk, and deposit an egg in the hole, with a sharp corroding liquour, that causeth a swelling in the leaf, and closeth the orifice. *Bentley.*

(2.) BUD. See GEMMA, and BOTANY, *Index.*

(1.) * To BUD. *v. a.* To inoculate; to graff by inserting a bud into the rind of another tree.—Of apricocks, the largest is much improved by budding upon a peach stock. *Temple.*

(2.) * To BUD. *v. n.* [from the noun] 1. To put forth young shoots, or gems.—*Bud* forth as a rose growing by the brook of the field. *Ecclef.* 2. To rise as a gem from the stalk.—There the fruit, that was to be gathered from such a conflux, quickly budded out. *Clarendon.*—

Heav'n gave him all at once, then snatch'd away,

Ere mortals all his beauties could survey;

Just like that flower that buds and withers in a day. *Dryden.*

Tho' lab'ring yokes on their own necks they fear'd,

And felt for budding horns on their smooth foreheads rear'd. *Dryden's Silenus.*

3. To be in the bloom, or growing.—

Young budding virgin, fair and fresh and sweet,
Whither away, or where is thy abode? *Shakefp.*

(1.) BUDA, the capital of Lower Hungary, called OSEN by the inhabitants, and BUDEN by the Turks. It is large and well fortified; and has a castle that is almost impregnable. The houses are mostly built with square stones. The Turks had it in their possession 135 years, and suffered the finest buildings to decay. The lower city, or Jews town, extends like suburbs from the upper city to the Danube. The upper town occupies the declivity of a mountain; and is fortified with good walls, which have towers at certain distances. The castle, which is at the extremity of the hill, on the E. side, and commands the greatest part of it, is surrounded with a very deep ditch, and defended by an old-fashioned tower, with new fortifications. The suburbs are inclosed with hedges. The most sumptuous structures are the caravanseras, the mosques, bridges, and baths; which last are the finest in Europe, for the magnificence of the buildings, and plenty of water. Some of the springs are used for bathing and drinking; and others are so hot, that they cannot be used without a mixture of cold water. The Danube is about $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile in breadth; and there is a bridge of boats between this city and Pest, consisting of 63 large pontoons. The Jews have a synagogue near the castle gardens. Buda was the residence of the Hungarian monarchs, till the Turks took it in 1526. Ferdinand, archduke of Austria, recovered it in 1527; but in 1529, the Turks took it again. In 1684, the Christians laid siege to it, but were obliged to raise it soon after, though they had an army of 80,000 men. In 1686, however, they took it by assault, in the fight of a very numerous army. The booty that they found in it was almost incredible, the rich Turks having lodged their treasures in it as a place of safety. After this they augmented its fortifications, to which the pope contributed 100,000 crowns, Buda being considered as the key of Christendom. It is seated on the Danube, 105

miles S. E. of Vienna, 163 N. by E. of Belgrade, and 563 N. W. of Constantinople. Lon. 19. 22. E. Lat. 47. 26. N.

(2.) BUDA, THE BEGLERBEGLIC OF, was one of the chief governments of the Turks in Europe. It included all the countries of Upper Hungary between the rivers Teisse and Danube, and between Agria and Novogrod; all Lower Hungary, from Gran and Canica, the eastern part of Sclavonia, and almost all Servia: but great part of this government now belongs to Hungary.

BUDÆUS, William, the most learned man in France in the 15th century, was born at Paris in 1467. He was placed young under masters, but spent his whole time in idleness, till his parents sent him to the university of Orleans to study law; where he passed 3 years without adding to his knowledge. His parents sending for him back to Paris, found his ignorance not diminished, and his reluctance to study, and love to gaming, &c. much increased. They talked no more to him of learning, but, as he was heir to a large fortune, left him to follow his own inclinations. He was passionately fond of hunting, and took great pleasure in horses, dogs, and hawks. But the fire of youth beginning to cool, he was at length seized with an irresistible passion for study. He immediately disposed of his hunting equipage, and even abstracted himself from all business, to apply wholly to study; in which he made, without any assistance, a very rapid and amazing progress, particularly in the Latin and Greek languages. The work which gained him greatest reputation was his treatise *de Affe*. His erudition and high birth were not his only advantages; he had an uncommon share of piety, modesty, gentleness, and good breeding. The French king, Francis I. often sent for him; and at his persuasion, and that of Du Bellay, founded the royal college of France, for teaching the languages and sciences. The king sent him to Rome, as his ambassador, to Leo X. and in 1522 made him master of requests. The same year he was chosen provost of the merchants. He died at Paris in 1540. His works, in 4 vols. folio, were printed at Basil in 1557.

BUDBRÖOK, a village, 2 miles W. of Warwick.

BUDBY, near Towerbridge, Nottinghamsh.

BUDDÆUS, John Francis, a celebrated Lutheran divine, and one of the most learned men Germany has produced, was born in 1667, at Anclam, in Pomerania. He was at first professor of Greek and Latin at Colburg; afterwards of morality and politics in the university of Hall; and at length, in 1705, of divinity at Jena; where he died, with a very great reputation. His principal works are, 1. A large historical German dictionary. 2. *Historia ecclesiastica Veteris Testamenti*, 2 vols. 4to. 3. *Elementa philosophiæ practiciæ, instrumentalis, et theoreticæ*, 3 vols 8vo. In most of the universities of Germany the professors take this work for their text book. 4. *Scala juris naturæ et gentium*. 5. *Miscellanea sacra*, 3 vols 4to. 6. *Uragoge historico-theologica ad theologiam universalem, singulasque ejus partes*, 2 vols 4to. 7. A treatise on atheism and superstition.

BUDESDALE, or BOTTESDALE, a town of Suffolk, on the borders of Norfolk, seated in a

valley. Its street takes in a good part of Rickington, which makes up the town, for of itself it is but a hamlet. It has a small chapel, and an endowed grammar-school, to which belong certain scholarships, assigned to Bennet or Corpus Christi-college in Cambridge, being the gift of Sir Nicholas Bacon, lord keeper of the great seal. It is 15 miles N. E. of Bury, on the Yarmouth road, and 81 from London. Lon. 1. 8. E. Lat. 52. 25. N.

BUDDING, in gardening. See ENGRAFTING.

BUDDLE, in mineralogy, a large square frame of boards, used in washing the tin-ore.

To BUDDLE, *v. a.* To wash ore. *Ash.*

BUDDLEIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, in the tetrandria class of plants. The calyx and corolla are quadrifid; the stamina placed at the incisures of the corolla. The capsule is bifurcated, bilocular, and polyspermous. There are two species, viz.

1. BUDDLEIA AMERICANA, a native of Jamaica and most of the other American islands. It rises to the height of 10 or 12 feet, with a thick woody stem covered with grey bark; and sends out many branches towards the top, which come out: opposite at the ends of the branches the flowers are produced in long close spikes branching out in clusters, which are yellow, consisting of one leaf cut into 4 segments: these are succeeded by oblong capsules filled with small seeds.

2. BUDDLEIA OCCIDENTALIS, a native of Carthagenæ. It rises much higher than the other, dividing into a great number of slender branches covered with a russet hairy bark, garnished with long-spear-shaped leaves ending in sharp points: at the end of the branches are produced branching spikes of white flowers growing in whorls round the stalks, with small spaces between each. All these plants grow in low sheltered spots; their branches being too tender to resist the force of strong winds. They may be propagated by seeds procured from their native countries, and must be managed like other exotics: only the seeds must be sown in pots as soon as they arrive, and very lightly covered; for if they are buried deep in the earth they will all perish.

BUDDLING-DISH, a small, shallow vessel, like the basins of a pair of scales, for washing ores of metals by the hand.

BUDDLING OF CALAMINE, the operation of cleansing it from filth, by washing and picking it, preparatory to the baking of it in the oven.

BUDDO, an insulated rock, on the coast of Lise, about 2 m. E. from the harbour of St Andrews, which serves for a land mark; being between 30 and 40 feet high, and perforated by a kind of gate-way, 4 or 5 feet wide.

BUDDON BURN, a rivulet of Angus-shire, which rises at the foot of the hill of Dodd, and after meandering through the parishes of Monikie and Monifieth, falls into the æstuary of the Tay.

BUDE, William. See BUDÆUS.

BUDELICH, a town of Germany, in the electoral circle of the Rhine and archbishopric of Treves, seated on the river Traen. Lon. 6. 55. E. Lat. 49. 52. N.

BUDESSEN, a village in Cheshire, W. of the Mersey, opposite to Liverpool.

BUDESTON, near Chippenham, Wiltshire.

(1.) • BUDGE.

(1.) * BUDGE. *adj.* [of uncertain etymology.]

Suriy; stiff; formal.—

O foolishness of men! that lend their ears

To those *budge* doctors of the stoick fur. *Milt.*

(2.) * BUDGE. *n. s.* The dressed skin or fur of lambs. *DiB.*

(3.) BUDGE. See BOUCHE, N. 2.

* To BUDGE. *v. n.* [*bouger*, Fr.] To stir; to move off the place; a low word.—

All your prisoners are

In the lime grove, which weatherfends your cell,

They cannot *budge* till you release. *Shakesf.*

The mouse ne'er shunn'd the cat, as they did

budge

From rascals worse than they. *Shakesf.*

I thought th' hadst scorn'd to *budge*

For fear.

Hudibras.

BUDGE BACHELORS, a company clothed in long gowns, who attend the Lord Mayor of London during his inauguration. *Ash.*

BUDGE BARRELS, among engineers, small barrels well hooped, with only one head; on the other end is nailed a piece of leather, to draw together upon strings like a purse. Their use is for carrying powder along with a gun, or mortar; being dangerous, and easier carried, than whole barrels. They are likewise used upon a battery of mortars for holding meal powder.

BUDGELL, Eustace, Esq; the son of Gilbert Budgell, D. D. was born near Exeter, about 1695. He was educated at Christ-church college, Oxford; from which he removed to the Inner Temple, London: but instead of studying the law, for which his father intended him, he applied to literature, and contracted a strict intimacy with the ingenious Mr Addison, who was first cousin to his mother, and who, on his being made secretary to the lord lieutenant of Ireland, took him with him as one of the clerks of his office. Mr Budgell, who was then about 20 years of age, had read the classics, and the works of the best English, French, and Italian authors, now became concerned with Sir Richard Steele and Mr Addison, in writing the Tatler, as he had, soon after, a share in writing the Spectators, where all the papers written by him are marked X. He had likewise a hand in the Guardian, where his performances are marked with an asterisk. He was afterwards made under-secretary to Mr Addison, chief secretary to the lords justices of Ireland, and deputy-clerk of the council. Soon after, he was chosen a member of the Irish parliament; and in 1717, Mr Addison, having become principal secretary of state in England, procured him the place of accountant and comptroller general of the revenue in Ireland. But next year, the duke of Bolton being appointed lord lieutenant, Mr Budgell wrote a lampoon against Mr Webster, his secretary, in which he did not spare the duke. This imprudent step was the primary cause of his ruin: for the duke got him removed from his post; upon which, returning to England, he, contrary to Mr Addison's advice, published his case in a pamphlet, intitled, "A letter to the lord * * *, from Eustace Budgell, Esq; accountant-general," &c. Mr Addison had now resigned the seals, and retired into

the country: Mr Budgell had also lost several of his powerful friends by death; particularly lord Halifax and the earl of Sunderland: and his attempts to succeed at court, were constantly repressed by the duke of Bolton. In 1720, he lost 20,000 l. by the South-sea scheme, and afterwards spent 5000 l. more in unsuccessful attempts to get into parliament. This completed his ruin. He at length employed himself in writing pamphlets against the ministry, and wrote many papers in the Craftsman. In 1733, he began a weekly pamphlet, called *The Bee*; which he continued for above 100 numbers, in 8 volumes 8vo. During the progress of this work, Dr Tindal's death happened, by whose will Mr Budgell had 2000 l. left him; and the public being surprised at such a gift from a man entirely unrelated to him, to the exclusion of the heir, a nephew, immediately imputed it to his making the will himself. It was thought, however, that he had some hand in publishing Dr Tindal's *Christianity as old as the Creation*; for he often talked of another additional volume on the same subject, but never published it. He also wrote a translation of Theophrastus's characters. After the cessation of the Bee, Mr Budgell became so involved in law-suits, that he was reduced to a very unhappy situation. He got himself called to the bar, and attended for some time in the courts of law; but finding himself unable to make any progress, and being distressed to the utmost, he lost his reason, and determined to make away with himself. Accordingly in 1736, he took a boat at Somerset-stairs, after filling his pockets with stones, and, while the boat was under the bridge, threw himself into the river. Upon his bureau was found a slip of paper, on which were these words:

What Cato did, and Addison approv'd,
Cannot be wrong.

* BUDGER. *n. s.* [from the verb.] One that moves or stirs from his place.—

Let the first *budger* die the other's slave,

And the gods doom him after. *Shakesf.*

BUDGEROW, a peculiar kind of boat used in Bengal. See BENGAL, § 6.

(1.) * BUDGET. *n. s.* [*bogette*, French.] 1. A bag, such as may be easily carried.—

If tinkers may have leave to live,

And bear the fowlskin *budget*;

Then my account I well may give,

And in the stocks avouch it. *Shakesf.*

—Sir Robert Clifford, in whose bosom, or *budget*, most of Perkin's secrets were laid up, was come into England. *Bacon.*—

His *budget* with corruptions cramm'd,

The contributions of the damn'd. *Swift.*

2. It is used for a store, or stock.—It was nature, in fine, that brought off the cat, when the fox's whole *budget* of inventions failed him. *L'Esfrange.*

(2.) BUDGET, in parliamentary language, implies the minister's proposed plan of taxation for the subsequent year; and comprehends not only the new taxes and an estimate of their probable amount, but a general view of the national debt, income and expenditure, ways and means of raising supplies, &c. with the real product of last budget.

BUDHURS,

BUDHURS, in ichthyology, a name given by the Irish to a large species of trout, resembling the red GILLAROO. *Phil. Trans.* vol. lxiv. N. 14, 15.

BUDIC, a village in Northumberland, near Bamburgh castle.

(1.) **BUDINGEN**, a county of Germany, in the circle of Upper Rhine, and landgraviate of Hesse.

(2.) **BUDINGEN**, the capital of the county, (N. 3.) 20 m. N. E. of Frankfort.

BUDINUS, in ancient geography, a mountain of Sarmatia Europæa, from which the northern spring of the Borysthenes is said to take its rise, according to Ptolemy. But this is contradicted by later accounts. It is now called **PODOLIA**.

BUDLEY, a town in Devonshire, near the mouth of the Otter. It has a market on Monday.

BUDNÆANS, in ecclesiastical history, a sect, who not only denied all kind of religious worship to Jesus Christ, but asserted, that he was not begotten by any extraordinary act of divine power; being born, like other men, in a natural way.

BUDNÆUS, Simon, the founder of the above-mentioned sect, was a clergyman, but was deposed from his ministerial functions in the year 1584, and publicly excommunicated, with all his disciples; but afterwards abandoning some of his peculiar sentiments, he was admitted to the communion of the Socinian sect.

BUDNAHOC, a village in Bedfordsh. 3 m. N. W. of Biggleswade.

BUDOA, a maritime town of Dalmatia, subject to the Venetians. It is seated between the gulf of Cattaro and the city of Dulugno, on the coast of Albany; and is an important fortress, where the Venetians always kept a strong garrison. In 1667, it suffered greatly by an earthquake: and in 1686 was besieged by Soliman, basha of Scutari; but general Cornaro obliged him to raise the siege. Lon. 19. 20. E. Lat. 42. 15. N.

BUDOC, a village near Penryn, Cornwall.

BUDOE. See **BATUA**.

BUDOX, ST, a town 4 m. N. of Plymouth.

BUDRIO, a town of Italy, in the Bolognese, belonging to the new republic of CISPADANA, or LOMBARDY. The adjacent fields produce large quantities of fine hemp. Lon. 11. 35. E. Lat. 44. 27. N.

BUDSCHACK TARTARY. See **BUDZIAC**.

BUDUN, one of the Ceylonese gods, who is fabled to have arrived at supremacy, after successive transmigrations from the lowest state of an insect, through the various species of living animals. There are 3 deities of this name, each of whom is said to reign till a bird shall have removed a hill of sand, half a mile high, and six miles round, by carrying off a single grain once in 1000 years. See **SAKRADAWENDRA**.

BUDWEIS, a royal city of Bohemia in Germany. It is pretty large and well built, surrounded with strong walls, fortified with a good rampart, and might be made an important place. It was taken by the king of Prussia in 1744, but he did not keep it long. Lon. 14. 19. E. Lat. 49. 10. N.

(1.) **BUDWORTH**, a town 3 m. from Warwick.

(2.) **BUDWORTH MAGNA**, } two villages in the

(3.) **BUDWORTH PARVA**, } county of Cheshire.

BUDZIAC TARTARY, lies on the rivers Neis-

ter, Bog, and Nieper; having Poland and Russia on the N. Little Tartary on the E. the Black Sea on the S. and Bessarabia on the W. The chief town is Oczakow. It is subject to Turkey.

BUEIL. See **BOGLIO**, N. 1. and 2.

BUENA-VISTA, one of the Cape de Verd Islands, called also **BONAVISTA**, and *Bonnewe*; all signifying a *good prospect*, intimating the beautiful appearance it makes to ships at sea. It is reckoned near twenty leagues in circumference, and is distinguished on the N. side by a ridge of white rocks. The coast stretches E. and N. W. and is terminated with sundry banks to the S. E. The interior part is chiefly mountainous. From the N. point there is a large ridge of rocks projecting near a whole league into the sea, against which the waves break with incredible fury. Another point of rocks stretches into the sea on the S. E. a league and a half beyond the other: and in that bay is the best road for shipping. See **BONAVISTA**.

(1.) **BUENOS AYRES**, a country of South America, belonging to the Spaniards. This name, given from the pleasantness of the climate, is extended to all that country lying between Tucuman on the E. Paraguay on the N. and Terra Magellanica on the S. or to the vertex of that triangular point of land which composes South America. The country is watered by the great river La Plata. It was first discovered in 1515 by Juan Diaz de Solis, who, with two of his attendants, was massacred by the natives; and partly subdued by Sebastian Gaboto, who gave the great river the appellation of *La Plata*, from the abundance of the precious metals he procured from the inhabitants, imagining them to be the produce of the country, though in fact they were brought from Peru. No country in the world abounds more in horned cattle and horses, than Buenos Ayres, where the greatest expence of a horse or cow is in the catching of it, and they are frequently to be had at the small price of two or three reals. In such abundance are these useful animals, that the hide alone is deemed of any value, as this constitutes a main article in the trade of the country. They all rove wild in the fields, but are now become more difficult of access, the terrible havoc made among them having taught the cautious brutes to keep at a greater distance. All kinds of fish are in the same abundance; the fruits produced by every quarter of the globe grow up here in the utmost perfection; and for the enjoyment of life, and the salubrity of the air, a finer country cannot be imagined. The principal cities are the capital, (N. 2.) Monte Video, Corienteo, and Santa Fe.

(2.) **BUENOS AYRES, NEUSTRA SENNORA DI**, the capital of the above country, (N. 1.) was founded in 1535, under the direction of Don Pedro de Mendoza, then governor. It stands on a point called *Cape Blanco*, on the S. side of the Plata, fronting a small river, in a fine plain, rising by a gentle ascent from the river. It is truly paradisiacal, whether we regard the temperature of the climate, the fertility of the soil, or the beautiful verdure which overspreads the whole face of the country, of which the inhabitants have a prospect as far as the eye can reach. The city

contains

contains 3000 houses, inhabited by 30,000 people, including Spaniards and natives of different complexions. The streets are straight, broad, and pretty equal in the heights and dimensions of the buildings; one very handsome square adorns it, the front being a castle in which the governor holds his court, and presides over a garrison of 3000 soldiers. Most of the buildings are of chalk or brick, except the cathedral, a magnificent structure, composed chiefly of stone. Lon. 58. 26. W. Lat. 34°. 34'. 38". S.

BUEN RETIRO, a royal seat of Spain, on the E. side of Madrid, where the king resides in summer.

BUEREN, a town of Holland, on the S. of the Rhine, which was the general rendezvous of the British troops in Dec. 1794 and Jan. 1795. It is situated N. E. from Leerdam. Lon. 5. 25. E. Lat. 51. 55. N.

BUERLEY, 2 villages in Yorkshire: 1. N. W. of Halifax: and, 2. near Patley Bridge.

BUERTON, in Cheshire, E. of Cumbermere.

BUET, a mountain of France, in the department of Mont Blanc, 10,106 feet high.

BUFALMACO, Bonamico, an Italian painter; the first who put labels to the mouths of his figures, with sentences; since followed by many bad masters, but most frequently and successfully in caricatura engravings. Others say he only gave rise to this whimsical method of making figures *speak*, by jocularly advising a brother painter, called Bruno, to do so: which Bruno taking in earnest actually put in execution.

BUFETAGE, or } a duty paid to the lord for
BUFETAGIUM, } the drinking, or rather selling of wine in taverns.

(1.) * BUFF. *n. s.* [from *buffalo*.] 1. A sort of leather prepared from the skin of the buffalo; used for waist belts, pouches, and military accoutrements.—

A ropy chain of rheums, a visage rough,
Deform'd, unfeatur'd, and a skin of buff. *Dryd.*
2. The skins of elks and oxen dressed in oil, and prepared after the same manner as that of the buffalo. 3. A military coat made of thick leather, so that a blow cannot easily pierce it.—

A fiend, a fairy, pitiless and rough;
A wolf, nay worse, a fellow all in buff. *Shakes.*

(2.) BUFF, in commerce, is dressed with oil, after the manner of shammy. This makes a very considerable article in the French, English, and Dutch commerce at Constantinople, Smyrna, and all along the coast of Africa. The skins of elks, men, and the like animals, when prepared after the same manner, are likewise called *buffs*. In France, there are several manufactories for dressing these sorts of hides, particularly at Corbeil, near Paris; at Niort, Lyons, Rome, Etanepus, and Cone.

(3.) BUFF, in anatomy, signifies that sily, viscid, tough mass, which forms on the upper surface of the blood; and which physicians call the *regulable lymph*. See BLOOD, § 3, 4.

* To BUFF. *v. a.* [*buffe*, Fr.] To strike: it is a word not in use.—

There was a shock,
To have buff'd out the blood
From ought but a block. . . . *Ben. Jonson.*

(1.) * BUFFALO. *n. s.* [Ital.] A kind of wild ox.—

Become the unworthy browbe

Of buffaloes, salt goats, and hungry cows. *Dryd.*

(2.) BUFFALO. See BOS, N. IV. § v. i. vi. viii. 3.

(1.) * RUFFET. *n. s.* [*buffeto*, Ital.] A blow with the fist; a box on the ear.—O, I could divide myself, and go to buffets, for moving such a dish of skimmed milk with so honourable an action. *Shakespeare*.—

A man that fortune's buffets and rewards

Hast ta'en with equal thanks. *Shakes.*

Go, baffl'd coward, lest I run upon thee;

And with one buffet lay thy structure low. *Milt.*

Round his hollow temples, and his ears,

His buckler beats; the sun of Neptune stunn'd.

With these repeated buffets, quits the ground. *Dryden.*

(2.) * BUFFET. *n. s.* [*buffette*, Fr.] A kind of cupboard; or set of shelves, where plate is set out to shew, in a room of entertainment.—

The rich buffet well-colour'd serpents grace,
And gaping Tritons spew to wash your face. *Pope.*

(3.) BUFFET was anciently a little apartment, separated from the rest of the room by slender wooden columns, for the disposing of china, glass-ware, &c. It now properly implies a large table in a dining-room, called also a SIDE-BOARD, for the plate, glasses, bottles, basons, &c. to be placed on, as well for the service of the table as for magnificence. In houses of citizens of distinction in France, the buffet is a detached room, decorated with pictures relative to the subject, with fountains, cisterns, and vases. It is commonly faced with marble or bronze.

(1.) * To BUFFET. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To strike with the hand; to box; to beat.—Why, woman, your husband is in his old lunes again; he so buffets himself on the forehead, crying, Peer out, peer out! that any madness I ever yet beheld, seemed but tameness. *Shakespeare*.—

Our ears are cudgell'd; not a word of his

But buffets better than a fist of France. *Shakes.*

The torrent roar'd, and we did buffet it

With lusty sinews; throwing it aside. *Shakes.*

Instantly I plung'd into the sea,

And buffeting the billows to her rescue,

Redeem'd her life with half the loss of mine. *Otway.*

(2.) * To BUFFET. *v. n.* To play a boxing-match.—If I might buffet for my love, I could lay on like a butcher. *Shakespeare's Henry V.*

* BUFFETER. *n. s.* [from *buffet*.] A boxer; one that buffets.

BUFFIER, Claude, a French writer, who was born in 1661, became a Jesuit in 1679, and died at Paris in 1737. He wrote many works, which show deep penetration and accurate judgment. The principal is, *Un Cours des Sciences*, &c. "A Course of Sciences, upon principles new and simple, in order to form the language, the understanding, and the heart, 1732," in folio. This collection includes an excellent "French grammar upon a new plan; a philosophic and practical treatise upon eloquence; an art of poetry," which, however, is not reckoned the best part of this miscellany;

any; "elements of metaphysics; an examination into vulgar prejudices; a treatise of civil society; and an exposition of the proofs of religion:" all full of just reflections. His style is rather easy than accurate, notwithstanding the precepts in his *Grammar*, which is really philosophic.

* **BUFFLE**. *n. f.* [*beuffle*, Fr.] The same with *buffalo*; a wild ox.

* **To BUFFLE**. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To puzzle; to be at a loss.—This was the utter ruin of that poor, angry, *buffling*, well-meaning mortal, Pistorides, who lies equally under the contempt of both parties. *Swift*.

* **BUFFLEHEADED**. *adj.* [from *buffle* and *head*.] A man with a large head, like a buffalo; dull; stupid; foolish.

BUFFO. See **BUFFOON**, § 2.

BUFFON, Count de. See **CLERC**. N. 1.

(1.) * **BUFFOON**. *n. f.* [*buffon*, French.] 1. A man whose profession is to make sport, by low jests and anticlown postures; a jackpudding.—No prince would think himself greatly honoured, to have his proclamation canvassed on a publick stage, and become the sport of *buffoons*. *Watts*. 2. A man that practises indecent raillery.—It is the nature of drolls and *buffoons*, to be insolent to those that will bear it, and slavish to others. *L'Estrange*.—

The bold *buffoon*, whene'er they tread the green,

Their motion mimicks, but with jest obscene.

Garth.

(2.) **BUFFOON** is derived by Menage, after Salmassius, from **BUFFO**; a name given to those who appeared on the Roman theatre with their cheeks blown up; that, receiving blows thereon, they might make the greater noise, and set the people laughing. Rhodiginus and others, make the origin of buffoonery more venerable; deriving it from a feast instituted in Attica by K. Erichtheus, called **BUPHONIA**. Buffoons are also denominated *scurræ*, *gelasiani*, *mimilogi*, *ministelli*, *goliardi*, *joculatores*, &c. Their chief scenes were at the tables of great men. Gallienus never sat down to meat without a second table of buffoons by him; Tillemont also renders *pantomimes* by buffoons; in which sense he observes, the shows of the buffoons were taken away by Domitian, restored by Nerva, and finally abolished by Trajan.

* **BUFFOONERY**. *n. f.* [from *buffoon*.] 1. The practice or art of a buffoon.—Courage, in an ill-bred man, has the air, and escapes not the opinion of brutality; learning becomes pedantry, and wit *buffoonery*. *Locke*. 2. Low jests; ridiculous pranks; scurrile mirth. *Dryden* places the accent, improperly, on the first syllable.—Where publick ministers encourage *buffoonery*, it is no wonder if buffoons set up for publick ministers. *L'Estrange*.—

And whilst it lasts, let *buffoonery* succeed,

To make us laugh; for never was more need.

Dryden.

BUFFY, *adj.* resembling buff; tough.

BUFO, in zoology, the trivial name of a species of rana, commonly called in English, the *toad*. See **RANA**, N. 1. Toads have been long remarked by physiologists, as possessed of a capability of living without air or aliment. Of this

the most astonishing instances are given by different authors. In the volume for 1719, of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, is the following passage: "In the foot of an elm, of the bigness of a pretty corpulent man, 3 or 4 feet above the root, and exactly in the centre, has been found a live toad, middle-sized, but lean, and filling up the whole vacant space: no sooner was a passage opened, by splitting the wood, than it scuttled away very hastily: a more firm and sound elm never grew; so that the toad cannot be supposed to have got into it. The egg whence it was formed, must, by some very singular accident, have been lodged in the tree at its first growth. There the creature had lived without air, feeding on the substance of the tree, and growing only as the tree grew. This is attested by M. Hubert, professor of philosophy at Caen. The Vol. for 1731, has a similar anecdote, expressed in these words: "In 1719 we gave an account of a fact, which, though improbable, was well attested;—that a toad had been found living and growing in the stem of a middling elm, without any way for the creature to come out, or to have got in. M. Seigne of Nantz lays before the academy a fact just of the very same nature, except that, instead of an elm it was an oak, and larger than the elm, which still heightens the wonder. He judges by the time requisite for the growth of the oak, that the toad must have subsisted in it without air, or any adventitious aliment, during 80 or 100 years. M. Seigne seems to have known nothing of the fact in 1719." Ambrose Paré, chief surgeon to Henry III. K. of France, a sensible writer, relates the following fact, of which he was an eye-witness:—"Being, (says he,) at my seat, near the village Meudon, and over-looking a quarry-man, whom I had set to break some very large and hard stones in the middle of one we found a huge toad, full of life, and without any visible aperture, by which it could get there. I began to wonder how it received birth, had grown and lived; but the labourer told me, it was not the first time he had met with a toad and the like creatures, with a huge block of stone, and no visible opening or fissure." Observations of living toads, found in very hard and entire stones, occur in several authors, particularly Baptist Fulgosa, Doge of Genoa; the famous physicians, Agricola and Herastius, and Lord Verulam. Others give very precious accounts of snakes, frogs, crabs, and locusts, being found alive, inclosed within blocks of marble, rocks, and large stones. An instance similar to these, of the truth of which we have no reason to doubt, was observed in this country in 1773; when a large toad was found in the middle of a piece of coal, having not the least visible crack or fissure.

BUFONIA, **TOAD GRASS**: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the diandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 22d order, Caryophyllez. The calyx is quinque-dentate; there is no corolla; the berry is monospermous. There is but one species, viz.

BUFONIA TENUIFOLIA, a native of Britain.

BUFONITA, in natural history, the toad-stone. This has been received not only among the list of native stones by the generality of authors, but

even has held a place among the gems, and is still worn in rings by some people; though undoubtedly it is an extraneous fossil. It was anciently believed that it was found in the head of an old toad; and that this animal voided it at the mouth, or being put on a red cloth. The general colour of the *busonitæ* is a deep dusky brown; but it varies greatly in this respect in several specimens, some of which are quite black, others of an extremely pale simple brown, a chestnut colour, liver colour, black grey, or whitish. The *busonitæ* are usually found immersed in beds of stone, and there is now no doubt, that they have originally been the petrified teeth of the *lupus piscis*, or wolf-fish, part of the jaw of the fish being sometimes found with the teeth petrified in it. The *busonitæ* are said to be cordial and astringent: many other fanciful virtues are ascribed to them, which the present practice has rejected.

(1.) * **BUG.** *n. f.* A stinking insect bred in old household stuff. In the following passage, wings are erroneously ascribed to it.—

Yet let me flap this *bug* with gilded wings,
This painted child of dirt, which stinks and
stings. *Pope.*

(2.) * **BUG.** **BUGBEAR.** *n. f.* [It is derived by some from *big*, by others from *pug*; *bug*, in Welch, has the same meaning.] A frightful object; a walking spectre, imagined to be seen; generally now used for a false terror to frighten babes.—

Each trembling leaf and whistling wind they
hear,
As ghastly *bug* their hair on end does rear,
Yet both do strive their fearfulness to feign.
Fairy Queen.

Sir, spare your threats;
The *bug* which you would fright me with, I
seek. *Shakespeare.*
—Hast not slept to-night? would he not, naughty
man, let it sleep? a *bugbear* take him. *Shakesf.*
—We have a horror for uncouth monsters; but,
upon experience, all these *bugs* grow familiar and
easy to us. *L'Étrange.*—Such *bugbear* thoughts,
once got into the tender minds of children, sink
deep, so as not easily, if ever, to be got out again.
L'Étr.

To the world, no *bugbear* is so great,
As want of figure, and a small estate. *Pope.*
(3.) **BUG,** or **BUGG,** in zoology. See **CIMEX.**
(4.) **BUGS,** METHOD OF EFFECTUALLY DESTROYING. Take of the highest rectified spirit
or wine, (*viz.* lamp-spirits) that will burn all a-
way dry, and leave not the least moisture behind
it, half a pint; new distilled oil, or spirit, of tur-
pentine, half a pint; mix them together; and
break into it, in small bits, half an ounce of cam-
phire, which will dissolve in a few minutes; shake
them well together; and with a piece of sponge,
or a brush dipt in some of it, wet very well the
bed furniture of wherein these vermin harbour
and breed, and it will infallible destroy both them
and their nits, although they swarm ever so much.
But then the bed and furniture must be well and
thoroughly wet with it (the dust upon them be-
ing first brushed and shook off,) by which means
it will neither soil, stain, nor in the least hurt, the
bed, or silk or damask bed. The quantity ordered
of this mixture, (that costs but about a shilling)

will rid any one bed whatever, of bugs. If any
buggs should happen to appear after once using
it, it will only be for want of well wetting the
lacing, &c. of the bed, or the folding of the linens
or curtains near the rings, or the joints or holes
in and about the bed or head board, wherein the
buggs and nits nestle and breed; and then their
being wetted all again with more of the same mix-
ture, which dries in as fast as it is used, pouring
some of it into the joints and holes where the
brush or sponge cannot reach, will never fail to
destroy them all completely. Some beds that have
much wood-work can hardly be thoroughly cleared
without being first taken down; but others that
can be drawn out, or got behind, may. The smell
this mixture occasions will be gone in 2 or 3 days.
It is very wholesome, and to many people agreeable.
The mixture must always be shaken well when
used, which must be in the day time, not by candle
light, lest the inflammability of the mixture
should catch the flame. Early in spring, even in
February, the larva of these creatures begin to
burst from the eggs; and it is at this season that
attention is chiefly requisite. The bed ought to
be stripped of all its furniture; which should be
washed, and even boiled, if linen; if woollen, it
should be hot-pressed. The bedstead should be
taken to pieces, dusted, and washed with spirit
of wine in the joints; for in those parts the fe-
males lay their eggs. This done, the joints, cre-
vices, cavities, &c. should be well filled with the
best soft soap mixed with verdigris, and Scots
snuff. On this substance the larva, if any escape
the cleansing, or any, which is common in old
houses, creep into the bedstead, will feed at first,
and of course be destroyed: this last will effect
the purpose in houses where these vermin are not
so numerous, by repeating the operation every
three months. Professor Kalm mentions, that,
from repeated trials, he has been convinced that
sulphur, if it be properly employed, entirely de-
stroys bugs and their eggs in beds or walls, tho'
they were ten times more numerous than the ants
on an ant-hill. His translator, Dr Forster, adds,
that a still more effectual remedy is, to wash all
the infected furniture with a solution of arsenic.
See **CIMICIFUGA.**

BUGA MARELE, in natural history, a name gi-
ven by the Spaniards to a species of black marble,
called by our artificers the Namur marble, and
known among the ancient Romans by the name
of *marmor Luculleum*. It is common in many
parts of Europe, and is used by the Spaniards in
medicine as well as in building; the powder of it
being said to be an excellent styptic, applied to
fresh wounds.

BUGAKES. See **BUGGERS**, § 1.

BUGBANE, in botany. See **MENYANTHES.**

BUGBARROW, a village in Dorsetshire.

* **BUGBEAR.** See **BUG**, § 2.

BUGBROOK, a town 2 m. W. of Northamp-
ton.

BUGDEN, N. of Bodington, Huntingdonsh.

BUGEE, in zoology, a species of Indian mon-
key, very rare even in the Indies. It is about
the size and colour of a beaver, but its tail and
claws are wholly of the monkey kind.

BUGELAH. See **BUGIA.** No. 2.

BUGELUGEY, in zoology, a large species of lizard, called by Clusius, and some others, *Lacertus Indicus*. It grows to 4 feet long, and 9 inches round; the tail is very long, and ends in an extremely slender point.

BUGEY, a ci-devant province of France, bounded on the E. by Savoy, on the W. by Bresse, on the S. by Dauphiny, and on the N. by Gex and Franche Compté. It was about 40 miles long and 25 broad. It has many hills and rivers, which abound with trouts, and all sorts of game. Belley was the capital. It is now comprehended chiefly in the departments of Ain and Cher.

BUGG. See **BUG**, § 1, 3, 4.

BUGGASINES, buckrams made of callico.

(1.) **BUGGERS**, **BULGARII**, anciently signified a kind of heretics, otherwise called *Paterini*, *Cathari*, &c. The word is formed of the French *Bougres*, and that from *Bougria* or *Bulgaria*, the country where they chiefly appeared. Among other errors, they held, that men ought to believe no scripture but the New Testament; that baptism was not necessary to infants; that husbands who conversed with their wives could not be saved; and that an oath was absolutely unlawful. They were strenuously refuted by Fr. Robert, a Dominican, surnamed the *Bugger*, as having formerly made profession of this heresy. They are mentioned by Matthew Paris, in the reign of Henry III. under the name of **BUGARES**.

(2.) **BUGGERS**, or **BUGGERERS**, came afterwards to be used for Sodomites, it being one of the imputations laid, right or wrong, on the Bulgarian heretics, that they taught, or at least practised, this abominable crime. The denomination was also applied to usurers; usury being a vice to which the same heretics are said to have been much addicted.

BUGGERY, or **SODOMY**, is defined by Sir Edward Coke to be a carnal copulation against nature, either by a confusion of species, that is to say, either a man or woman with a brute beast; or sexes, as a man with a man, or a man unnaturally with a woman. It is said, this sin against God and nature was first brought into England by the Lombards. As to its punishment, the voice of nature and of reason, and the express law of God, (Levit. xx. 13, 14.) determines it to be capital. Of this we have a signal instance, long before the Jewish dispensation, by the destruction of 4 cities by lightning; so that this is an universal, not merely a provincial precept. Our ancient law, in some measure, imitated this punishment, by commanding such miscreants to be burnt to death; though Fleeta says, they should be buried alive; either of which punishments was indifferently used for this crime among the ancient Goths. But now the general punishment of all felonies is the same, viz. hanging; and this offence, being in the times of popery only subject to ecclesiastical censures, was made felony without benefit of clergy, by stat. 25 Hen. VIII. c. 6. revived and confirmed by 5 Eliz. c. 17. And the law is, that, if both parties are arrived at the years of discretion, *agentes et consentientes pari pena plectantur*, "both are liable to the same punishment."

* **BUGGINESS**. *n. f.* [from *buggy*.] The state of being infected with bugs.

* **BUGGY**. *adj.* [from *bug*.] Abounding with bugs.

BUGGYS, *n. f. obs.* Bugbears. *Chauc.*

(1.) **BUGIA**, a province of Algiers, formerly a kingdom of Africa. It is almost surrounded with mountains; and is divided into 3 parts, *Beja*, *bar*, *Auraz*, and *Labez*. These mountains are peopled with the most ancient Arabs, Moors, and Saracens. The province is very fertile in corn.

(2.) **BUGIA**, by the Africans called **BUGEIA**, a maritime town of Africa, in the kingdom of Algiers, and once the capital of the province, *Nova*. It is supposed to be the *SALDÆ* of Strabo, *bas* by the Romans. It has a handsome port formed by a narrow neck of land, running into the sea, a great part of whose promontory was formerly faced with a wall of hewn stone; where was likewise an aqueduct, which supplied the port with water, discharging it into a capacious basin; which now lie in ruins. The city itself is built on the ruins of a large one, at the foot of a high mountain that looks towards the N. E.; a great part of whose walls run up quite to the top of it; where there is also a castle that commands the whole town, besides two others at the bottom, built for a security to the port. The inhabitants drive a considerable trade in ploughshares, mattocks, and other iron tools, which they manufacture from the neighbouring mines. The town is watered by a large river, supposed to be the *NASAVA* of Ptolemy. The place is populous, and has a considerable market for iron work, oil, and wax, which is carried on with great tranquillity; but no sooner over than the whole place is in an uproar, so that the day seldom concludes without some flagrant instance of barbarity. *Lon.* 4. 5. E. *Lat.* 35. 36. N.

BUGIE, a town of Egypt, situated on the W. shore of the Red Sea, almost opposite to *Zila*, the port town of Mecca, and about 110 miles W. of it. *Lon.* 36. 6. E. *Lat.* 22. 15. N.

BUGLANA. See **BAGLANA**.

(1.) * **BUGLE**. *n. f.* A shining bead of crystal glass.—

Bugle bracelets, necklace amber,
Perfum'd for a lady's chamber. *Shakespeare.*

'Tis not your inky brows, your black silk hair,
Your *bugle* eyeballs, nor your cheek of cream,
That can entame my spirits to your worship. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) * **BUGLE**. *n. f.* A sort of wild ox. *Pliny's World of Words.*

(3.) * **BUGLE**. *n. f.* [from *bugula*, *Lat.*] A plant. *Miller.*

(4.) **BUGLE**, in botany. See **AJUGA**.

(5.) * **BUGLE**. } *n. f.* [from *bugen*, *Sax.* to

* **BUGLEHORN**. } bend, *Skinner*; from *bugle*, *Lat.* a heifer, *Junius*; from *bugle*, the bonass, *Lye*.] A hunting horn.—

Then took that square an horny *bugle* small,
Which hung adown his side in twisted gold,
And tassels gay. *Fairy Queen.*

—I will have a recheate winded in my forehead,
or hang my *bugle* in an invisible baldrick. *Shakespeare.*

He gave his *bugle* horn a blast,
That thro' the woodland echo'd far and wide. *Tuckell.*

(1.) * BUGLOSS. *n. f.* [from *buglossum*, Lat.] The herb ox tongue.

(2.) BUGLOSS, in botany. See ANCHUSA.

(3.) BUGLOSS, SMALL WILD. See ASPERUGO.

(4.) BUGLOSS VIPER'S. See ECHIUM.

BUGLOSSUS, in ichthyology, a name used by many authors for the soal fish.

BUGSIL, in Suffolk, W. of Rotherbridge.

BUGTHORP, 5 m. N. of Pocklington, Yorksh.

BUHL, a small fortress of Suabia, on the lines of Stolhoffen, 17 miles N. E. of Strasburg. Lon. 9. 14. E. Lat. 48. 50. N.

(1.) * To BUILD. *v. a.* preter. I *built*, I have *built*. [*bilden*, Dutch.] 1. To raise from the ground; to make a fabrick, or an edifice.—Thou shalt not build an house unto my name. *Chron.*—

When usurers tell their gold in the field,
And whores and bawds do churches *build*.

Shakespeare.

2. To raise in any laboured form.—When the head-dress was *built* up in a couple of cones and spires, which stood so excessively high on the side of the head, that a woman, who was but a pigmy without her head-dress, appeared like a Colossus upon putting it on. *Spectator*. 3. To raise any thing on support or foundation.—

Love *built* on beauty, soon as beauty, dies;
Choose this face, chang'd by no deformities.

Donne.

—I would endeavour to destroy those curious, and groundless structures, that men have *built* up of opinions alone. *Boyle*.

(2.) * To BUILD. *v. n.* 1. To play the architect.

To *build*, to plant, whatever you intend,
To rear the column, or the arch to bend. *Pope*.

2. To depend on; to rest on.—By a man's authority, we here understand the force which his word hath for the assurance of another's mind, that *buildeth* upon it. *Hooker*.—Some *build* rather upon the abusing of others, and putting tricks upon them, than upon soundness of their own proceedings. *Bacon*.—Even those who had not tasted of your favours, yet *built* so much on the promise of your beneficence, that they bemoaned the loss of their expectations. *Dryden*.—This is certainly a much surer way, than to *build* on the interpretations of an author, who does not consider how the ancients used to think. *Addison*.

* BUILDER. *n. f.* [from *build*.] He that builds; an architect.—

But fore-accounting oft makes *builders* miss;
They found, they felt, they had no lease of bliss.

Sidney.

—When they, which had seen the beauty of the first temple built by Solomon, beheld how far it excelled the second, which had not *builders* of like abilities, the tears of their grieved eyes the prophets endeavoured, with comforts, to wipe away. *Hooker*.—

Mark'd out for such an use, as if 'twere meant
T' invite the *builder*, and his choice prevent.

Denham.

Her wings with lengthen'd honour let her
spread,
And, by her greatness, shew her *builder's* fame.

Prior.

(1.) * BUILDING. *n. f.* [from *build*.] A fabric; an edifice.—

Thy sumptuous *buildings*, and thy wife's attire,
Have cost a mass of publick treasury. *Shakespeare*.

View not this spire by measure given
To *buildings* rais'd by common hands:
That fabrick rises high as heav'n,

Whose basis on devotion stands.

Prior.

—Among the great variety of ancient coins which I saw at Rome, I could not but take particular notice of such as relate to any of the *buildings* or statues that are still extant. *Addison*.

(2.) BUILDING is also used for the art of constructing and raising an edifice. See ARCHITECTURE. The modern buildings are much more commodious, as well as beautiful, than those of former times. Of old they used to dwell in houses, most of them with a blind stair-case, low ceilings, and dark windows; the rooms built at random, without any thing of contrivance, and often with steps from one to another; so that one would think the people of former ages were afraid of light and fresh air: whereas the genius of our times is altogether for light stair-cases, fine sash-windows, and lofty ceilings. And in point of compactness and uniformity, a house after the new way will afford, on the same quantity of ground, almost double the conveniences which could be had from an old one.

(3.) BUILDING, LAWS RESPECTING. By Act 11. Geo. I. and 4 Geo. III. for the regulation of building within the weekly bills of mortality, and in other places therein specified, party walls are required to be erected of brick or stone, which shall be two bricks and a half thick in the cellar, two bricks thick upwards to the garret floor, &c. and other limitations are enacted respecting the disposition of the timbers, &c. And every building is to be surveyed; and the person who offends against the statute in any of the particulars recited, is liable to a forfeit of 250 l. to be levied by warrant of justices of the peace. The other principal statutes relating to building are 19 Car. II. c. 3. 22 Car. II. c. 11. 5. Eliz. c. 4. 35 Eliz. c. 6. 6 Ann. c. 31. 7 Ann. c. 17. 33 Geo. II. c. 30. and 6 Geo. III. c. 37.

(4.) BUILDING OF SHIPS. See SHIP-BUILDING.

(1.) * BUILT. *n. f.* [from *build*.] 1. The form; the structure.—

As is the *built*, so different is the fight;
Their mountain shot is on our sails design'd;
Deep in their hulls our deadly bullets light,
And through the yeilding planks a passage find.

Dryden.

2. Species of building.—There is hardly any country, which has so little shipping as Ireland; the reason must be, the scarcity of timber proper for this *built*. *Temple*.

(2.) BUILT, in sea language, is an epithet applied to ships, denoting their peculiar form and structure, and distinguishing some from others of a different class or nation. Thus we use *frigate-built*, *galley-built*, *English-built*, *French-built*, &c.

BUILTH. See BEALT.

(1.) BUIS, a ci-devant territory of France, in Dauphiny. It is mountainous but pretty fertile.

(2.) BUIS, a town of France, in the department of Drome, and ci-devant territory of Buis, N. 1.

BUITTLE, a parish of Scotland, on the coast of Galloway, bordering upon the Solway Frith,

about 8 miles long and 3 broad. The soil is dry, kindly, and fertile; and the climate warm and healthy. The surface is hilly, but the hills bear the marks of having been formerly plowed to the top; which is said to have happened in the reign of king Robert Bruce, when Scotland was under the papal curse, his holiness having forgot to curse the hills. Oats and barley, turnips and potatoes, are the chief crops, of which a part is exported. Agriculture is much improved within these 24 years, and land is of course worth above 12 times its former value. The population, in 1793, as stated by the rev. Mr Maxwell in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 855, and had decreased 44 since 1755. The number of sheep was 752; of horses 195, and black cattle 2299. The wood is estimated at L. 10,000. Salmon, cod, flounders, and other fish are caught in the Frith. The coast abounds with shell fish, and with those curious semi-animals, the ANIMAL FLOWERS, (See that article, § 5.) Birds not common in Scotland have lately frequented the parish; particularly the cross-bill, the bull-finch and Bohemian chatterer; and quails are now numerous in it. Within these 30 years the sea has been retreating from this coast; so much, that many acres, then only barren sand, are now good pasture land.

BUKARI, a small well-built town of Hungarian Dalmatia, situated on the gulf of Bikeriza. Lon. 14. 59. E. Lat. 45. 29. N.

BUKARIZA, GULF OF, lies on the coast of Bukari.

(1.) **BUKHARIA**, a general name for all that vast tract of land lying between Karazm and the great Kobi, or sandy desert bordering on China. It derives its name of *Bukharia* from the Mogul word *Bukbar*, which signifies a learned man; it being formerly the custom for those who wanted instruction in the languages and sciences to go into Bukharia. Hence this name appears to have been given to it by the Mogul, who, under Jenghiz Khan, conquered the country. It is nearly the same with that called by the Arabs *Mawaral-nabr*, which is little else than a translation of the word *Transoxana*, the name formerly given to those provinces. This region is divided into Great and Little Bukharia. Jenghiz Khan, who conquered both the Bukharias from the Arabs, left the empire of them to his son Jakatay Khan. He died A. D. 1240, and left the government of Great Bukharia to his son, Kara Kulaku, and of Little Bukharia to another, called Amul Khoja Khan. A long succession of khans is enumerated in each of these families, but their history contains no interesting particulars. They are long ago extinct, and the Kalmuck Tartars are masters of the country.

(2.) **BUKHARIA, GREAT**, which is supposed to comprehend the SOGDIANA and BACTRIANA of the ancient Greeks and Romans with their dependencies, is situated between 34° and 46° Lat. N. and between 76° and 92° Lon. E. It is bounded on the N. by the river Sir, which separates it from the dominions of the *Eluths* or Kalmucs; the Kingdom of *Kashgar* in Little Bukharia, on the east; by the dominions of the great Mogul and Persia on the S.; and by the country of Karazm on the W.: being about 1000 miles long from W.

to E., and 720 broad from S. to N. It is exceedingly rich and fertile; the mountains abound with the richest mines; the valleys are of an astonishing fertility in all sorts of fruit and pulse; the fields are covered with grass the height of a man; the rivers abound with excellent fish; and wool, which is scarce over all Grand Tartary, is here in great plenty. But all these benefits are of little use to the Tartar inhabitants, who are naturally so lazy, that they would rather rob and kill their neighbours than improve the benefits so liberally offered them. This country is divided into three large provinces, *viz.* Bukharia proper, Samarcand, and Balk; each of which generally has its proper khan.

(3.) **BUKHARIA, LITTLE**, is so called, not because it is less in dimensions than the other, for in reality it is larger; but because it is inferior to it as to the number and beauty of its cities; goodness of the soil, &c. It is surrounded by deserts: it has on the W. Great Bukharia; on the N. the country of the Kalmucs; on the E. that of the Moguls subject to China; on the S. Thibet, and the N. W. corner of China. It is situated between 93° and 118° Lon. E. and 35° 30' and 45° of Lat. N. being in length from E. to W. about 850 miles, and in breadth from N. to S. 580: but if its dimensions be taken according to its semicircular course from the south to the north-east, its length will be 1200 miles. It is sufficiently populous and fertile; but the great elevation of its land, joined to the height of the mountains which bound it in several parts, particularly towards the S. renders it much colder than from its situation might be expected. It is very rich in mines of gold and silver; but the inhabitants reap little benefit by them, because neither the Eluths nor Kalmucs, who are masters of the country, nor the Bukhars, care to work in them. Nevertheless, they gather abundance of gold from the beds of the torrents formed by the melting of the snow in the spring; and from hence comes all that gold dust which the Bukhars carry into India, China, and Siberia. Much musk is likewise found in this country; as well as diamonds and all sorts of precious stone; but the inhabitants have not the art of cutting or polishing them.

(4.) **BUKHARIA PROPER** is the most western province of Great Bukharia; having on the W. Karazm, on the N. a desert called by the Arabs *Gaznah*, on the E. Samarcand, and on the S. the river Amu. It is about 390 miles long, and 100 broad. The towns are Bokhara, Zam, Wardant, Karakul, Siunjbala, Karshi, Zarjui, Nersem, Karmina, &c.

(1.) **BUKHARS**, the inhabitants both of Great and Little Bukharia. They are in general tanned and black haired; although some of them are very fair, handsome, and well made. They do not want politeness, and are addicted to commerce; which they carry on with China, the Indies, Persia, and Russia: but they are ready to over-reach those who deal with them. The habits of the men differ very little from those of the Tartars. Their girdles are like those of the Persians. The garments of the women differ in nothing from those of the men, and are commonly quilted with cotton. They wear bobs in their ears at

inches long; part and twist their hair in tresses, which they lengthen with black ribbands embroidered with gold or silver, and with great tassels of silk and silver, which hang down to their heels; three other tufts of a smaller size cover their breasts. Both sexes carry about them prayers written by their priests, which they keep in a small leathern purse by way of relics. The girls, and some of the women, tinge their nails red with the juice of an herb called by them *kema*: they dry and pulverize it; then mixing it with powdered alum, expose it in the air for 24 hours before they use it, and the colour lasts a long time. Both sexes wear close breeches, and boots of Russia leather, very light, and without heels, or leather soles; putting on galloches, or high-headed slippers, like the Turks, when they go abroad. They wear also the same sort of bonnets and covering for the head; only the women set off theirs with trinkets, small pieces of money, and Chinese pearls. Wives are distinguished from maids by a long piece of linen worn under their bonnets; which folding round the neck, they tie in a knot behind, so that one end of it hangs down to the waist.

(1.) BUKHARS, HOUSES, CUSTOMS, &c. OF THE. The houses of the Bukhars are of stone, and pretty good; but their moveables consist mostly of some China trunks plated with iron. Upon these, in the day time, they spread the quilts they have made use of at night, and cover them with a cotton carpet of various colours. They have likewise a curtain sprigged with flowers and various figures; also a sort of bedstead half a yard high, and four yards long, which is hidden in the day time with a carpet. They are very neat about their victuals; which are dressed in the master's chamber by his slaves, whom the Bukhars either take or buy from the Russians, Kalmucs, or other neighbours. For this purpose there are in the chamber, according to the largeness of the family, several iron pots, set in a kind of range near a chimney. Some have little ovens, made, like the rest of the walls, with a stiff clay or bricks. Their utensils consist of some plates and porringers made of Cagua wood or of China, and some copper vessels. A piece of coloured calico serves them instead of a table cloth and napkins. They use neither chairs nor tables, knives nor forks; but sit cross-legged on the ground; and the meat being served up, they pull it to pieces with their fingers. Their spoons resemble our wooden ladles. Their usual food is minced meats, of which they make pies of the form of a half moon: these serve for provisions when the Bukhars go long journeys, especially in winter. They carry them in a bag, having first exposed them to the frost; and when boiled in water, they make very good broth. Tea is their common drink, of which they have a black sort prepared with milk, salt, and butter; eating bread with it, when they have any.

(2.) BUKHARS, MARRIAGE CEREMONIES OF THE. The Bukhars buy their wives, paying for them more or less according to their handiomeness. The persons to be married must not see or speak to each other from the time of their contract to the day of marriage. This is celebrated with 3 days feasting, as they do great annual festivals. The evening before the wedding, a company of young

girls meet at the bride's house, and divert themselves till midnight, playing, dancing, and singing. Next morning the guests assemble, and help her to prepare for the ceremony. Then, notice being given to the bridegroom, he arrives soon after, accompanied by 10 or 12 of his relations and friends. These are followed by some playing on flutes, and by an *Abus*, (a kind of priest,) who sings, while he beats two little timbrels. The bridegroom then makes a horse-race; which being ended, he distributes the prizes, 6, 8, or 12, in number, according to his ability. They consist of damasks, sables, fox skins, calico, or the like. The parties do not see each other while the marriage ceremony is performing, but answer at a distance to the questions asked by the priest. As soon as it is over, the bridegroom returns home with his company; and after dinner carries them to the bride's house, and obtains leave to speak to her. This done, he goes back, and returns again in the evening, when he finds her in bed; and in presence of all the women, lays himself down by her in his clothes, but only for a moment. The same farce is acted for 3 days successively; but the third night he passes with her entirely, and the next day carries her home.

(3.) BUKHARS, RELIGIOUS OPINIONS OF THE. Although the prevailing religion throughout all Little Bukharia is the Mahometan, yet all others enjoy a perfect toleration. The Bukhars say, that God first communicated the koran to mankind by Moses and the prophets; and afterwards Mahomet explained, and drew a moral from it, which they are obliged to receive and practise. They hold Christ to be a prophet, but have no notion of his sufferings. Yet they believe in the resurrection, but cannot be persuaded that any mortal shall be eternally damned: on the contrary, they believe, that as the dæmons led men into sin, so the punishment will fall on them. They believe moreover, that at the last day every thing but God will be annihilated; and, consequently, that all creatures, the devils, angels, and Christ himself, will die. Likewise, that after the resurrection, all men, excepting a few of the elect, will be purified or chastised by fire, every one according to his sins, which will be weighed in the balance. They say there will be 8 different paradises for the good; and 7 hells, where sinners are to be purified by fire: that those who will suffer most, are liars, cheats, and others of that kind: that the elect who do not feel the fire will be chosen from the good; viz. one out of 100 men, and one out of 1000 women; which little troop will be carried into one of the paradises, where they shall enjoy all manner of felicity, till it shall please God to create a new world. It is a sin, according to them, to say, that God is in heaven. God, say they, is every where; and therefore it derogates from his omnipresence to say that he is confined to any particular place. They keep an annual fast of 30 days, from the middle of July to the middle of August, during which time they taste nothing all day; but eat twice in the night, at sun-set and midnight; nor do they drink any thing but tea, all strong liquors being forbidden. Whoever transgresses these ordinances is obliged to emancipate his most valuable slave, or to give an entertain-
ment

ment to 60 people: he is likewise to receive 85 strokes on the back with a leathern strap called *dura*. The common people, however, do not observe this fact exactly, and workmen are allowed to eat in the day-time. The Bukhars say prayers 5 times a-day; before morning, towards noon, afternoon, at sun-set, and in the third hour of the night.

(1.) BUL, in the ancient Hebrew chronology, the 8th month of the ecclesiastical, and 2d of the civil year; since called MARSHEVAN. It answers to our October, and has 29 days.

(2.) BUL, in ichthyology, the flounder.

BULAC, a town of Egypt, situated on the E. shore of the Nile, about 2 miles W. of Grand Cairo, of which it is the port town, and contains about 4000 families. It is a place of great trade, as all the vessels going up and down the Nile make some stay in it. It is also at this place that they cut the banks of the river every year, to fill their canals, and overflow and fertilize the neighbouring grounds. Lon. 31. 22. E. Lat. 30. 2. N.

BULÆUS, Cæsar. See BOULAY, N° 2.

BULAFO, a musical instrument, consisting of several pipes of wood tied together with thongs of leather, so as to form a small interstice between each pipe. It is used by the negroes of Guinea.

(1.) BULAM, a fertile island of Africa at the mouth of the river Gambia, where an attempt has been made to colonise the free negroes. See § 2.

(2.) BULAM ASSOCIATION, a philanthropic society in England, instituted "with the humane design of establishing a friendly intercourse with the natives of Africa, and a trade unpolluted with slavery and blood. The undertaking is now postponed on account of the war." *Walker's Gaz.*

BULAPATHUM, in botany, the dock. See RUMEX.

BULARCHUS, a Greek painter, who first introduced (among the Greeks at least) different colours in the same picture. He flourished about A. A. C. 740.

BULATWÆLA, in botany, a name by which some authors have called the BETEL.

(1.) * BULB. *n. f.* [from *bulbus*, Lat.] A round body, or root.—Take up your early autumnal tulips, and *bulbs*, if you will remove them. *Evelyn's Kalendar*.—If we consider the *bulb*, or ball of the eye, the exterior membrane, or coat thereof, is made thick, tough, or strong, that it is a very hard matter to make a rupture in it. *Ray*.

(2.) BULB, in the anatomy of plants. See BOTANY, *Index*. A bulb is defined by Linnæus to be a species of *hybernaculum*, produced upon the descending caudex or root; consisting of stipulæ, petioli, the rudiments of the former leaves, and scales or bark. To elucidate this definition, it is proper to remark, that every bud contains, in embryo, a plant, in every respect similar to the parent plant upon which it is seated. Plants therefore are perpetuated in the buds, as well as in the seeds; and the species may be renewed with equal efficacy in either way. The tender rudiments of the future vegetable of which the bud is composed, are inclosed, and during winter defended from cold and external injuries, by a hard rind which generally consists of a number of scales placed over each other

gether by means of a tenaceous, resinous, and frequently odoriferous, substance. Thus defended the buds remain upon different parts of the mother plant till spring; and are, therefore, with propriety, denominated by Linnæus, the *hybernaculum* or winter quarters of the future vegetable. Buds are situated either upon the stem and branches, or upon the roots: the former are styled *gemmæ*, or buds properly so called; but as they subsist several years by their roots, may be furnished with the other species of *hybernaculum* called *bulbi*. Trees which are perennial, with a woody and durable trunk, have generally proper buds, but not bulbs. In bulbous plants, as the tulip, onion, &c. lily, what we generally call the *root*, is in fact a bulb which incloses and secures the embryo or future shoot. At the lower part of this bulb may be observed a fleshy knob, whence proceed a number of fibres. This knob, with the fibres attached to and hanging from it, is, properly speaking, the true root; the upper part being only the cradle or nursery of the future stem, which after the bulb has repaired a certain number of times, it perishes; but not till it has produced at its sides a number of smaller bulbs or suckers for perpetuating the species. One part of Linnæus's definition still remains obscure. The bulb, says he, is composed of the remains or rudiments of the former leaves of the plant; *e rudimento foliorum præteritorum*. It is easy to comprehend that bulbs contain the rudiments of the future leaves; but how can bulbs be said to contain the rudiments of leaves that, to all appearance, are already perished? To explain this, let it be observed, that, is the opinion of very eminent botanists, the root, in a very great number of perennial herbs, is annually renewed or repaired out of the trunk or bulb itself; in which sense only, roots are properly said to descend. In the perennials alluded to, the basis of the stalk continually, and by insensible degrees, descends below the surface of the earth, and is thus changed into a true root; which root, by the continuance of the said motion of the stalk, also descends; and thus, according to the durability of its substance, becomes a longer or shorter root; the elder or lower part rotting off in proportion as the upper is generated out of the stalk. Thus, in brownwort, the basis of the stalk, sinking down by degrees till it is hid under the ground, becomes the upper part of the root; and continuing still to sink, the next year becomes the lower part, and the following year rots away. This is exactly what obtains in bulbous roots, as well as in the far greater number of other herbaceous perennials; as arum, valerian, tansy, samphire, primrose, wood-sorrel, iris, and others. The immediate visible cause of this descent is the string-roots which this kind of trunks frequently put forth; which descending themselves directly into the ground, serve like so many ropes for pulling the trunk after them. Hence the tuberous roots of iris are sometimes observed to reascend a little upon the rotting or fading away of the string-roots which hang at them. In bulbous roots, where the stalk and former leaves of the plant are sunk below, and formed into what is called the *bulb*, or wintering of the future vegetable, the radicles, or small fibres that hang from the bulb, are to be considered

considered as the root; that is, the part which furnishes nourishment to the plant: the several kinds and shells, whereof chiefly the bulb consists, successively perish, and shrink up into so many dry skins; betwixt which, and in their centre, are formed other leaves and shells, and thus the bulb is perpetuated. What has been said of the descent of roots by the sinking of the stalk, is further confirmed by the appearance of certain roots; as of valerian, plantago major, and devils-bit, in which the lower part appears bitten or chopped off. In these the lower part rotting off as the upper descends, the living remainder becomes stumped, or seems bitten. All bulbous roots, says Dr Grew in his anatomy of plants, may be considered as hermaphrodite roots, or root and trunk both together: for the radicles only are absolute roots; the bulb actually containing those parts which springing up make the body or leaves of the plant; so that it may be regarded as a large bud underground. Bulbous roots are said to be solid, when composed of one uniform lump of matter: tunicated, when formed of multitudes of coats surrounding one another; squamose, when composed of, or covered with, lesser flakes; duplicate, when there are only two to each plant; and aggregate, when there is such a congeries of such roots to each plant.

* **BULBACEOUS.** *adj.* [*bulbaceus*, Lat.] The same with *bulbous*. *Dist.*

BULBINE, a synonyme of the **ANTHERICUM**.

BULBOCASTANUM. See **BUNIAM**.

BULBOCODIUM, MOUNTAIN-SAFFRON: A genus of the monogynia order, in the hexandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 9th order, Spathaceæ. The corolla is funnel-shaped, and hexapetalous, with the heels narrow, supporting the stamina. There are two species:

1. **BULBOCODIUM ALPINUM** grows naturally on the Alps, and also on Snowdon in Wales. It has a small bulbous root, which sends forth a few long narrow leaves somewhat like those of saffron, but narrower. In the middle of these the flower comes out, which stands on the top of the footstalk, growing erect, and is shaped like those of the crocus, but smaller; the footstalk rises about 4 inches high, and has 4 or 5 short narrow leaves placed alternately upon it below the flower. It flowers in March, and the seeds are ripe in May.

2. **BULBOCODIUM VERNUM** is a native of Spain, and has a bulbous root shaped like those of the snow-drop, which sends out 3 or 4 spear-shaped concave leaves, between which comes out the flower, standing on a very short footstalk. The flowers appear about the same time with the last; at first they are, of a pale colour, but afterwards change to a whitish purple. Both pieces may be propagated by off-sets at the decay of the flower and leaf every 2d or 3d year; also, by sowing the seed in pots in autumn, sheltering them in a frame from frost; and the plants will appear in the spring, which, at the decay of the leaves, may be taken up for planting in the borders in October, where they will flower the year following.

BULBONACK, a name used by several botanists for the **LUNARIA**, or honesty.

BULBOSE. See **BULB**, and next article.

* **BULBOUS.** *adj.* [from *bulb*.] Containing bulbs; consisting of bulbs; being round or roundish knobs.—There are of roots, *bulbous* roots, fibrous roots, and hirsute roots. And I take it, in the *bulbous*, the sap hasteneth most to the air and sun. *Bacon*.—Set up your traps for vermin, especially amongst your *bulbous* roots. *Evelyn's Kalend.*—Their leaves, after they are swelled out, like a *bulbous* root, to make the bottle, bend inward, or come again close to the stalk. *Ray on the Creation*.

BULBUS VEPICTORIUS, in the materia medica, the name used for the root of the **MUSCARI**.

BULBY, a town near Stainfleet, Lincolnshire.

BULCARD, an English name for the **GALCETTA**, or *alauda non cristata*, of Rondeletius; a small sea fish caught among the rocks on the Cornish and other shores.

BULEP, in botany, a name for the willow.

BULEPHORUS, an officer in the court of the eastern emperors, called also *summæ rei rationalis*.

BULEUTÆ, in Grecian antiquity, were magistrates answering to the decuriones among the Romans. See **DECURIO**.

BULEY-CASTLE, a town in Westmoreland.

BULEY-GRANGE, a village 3 miles N. E. of Stockton, Durham.

BULFINCH, in ornithology. See **LOXIA**.

BULFORD, a town 3 miles N. of Ambresbury; Wilts.

BULGA, in old records, a budget; a mail.

BULGAR, a mountain of Natolia, on the coast of Caramania.

(1.) **BULGARIA**, a small province of Turkey in Europe, bounded on the N. by Walachia, on the E. by the Black Sea, on the S. by Romania Macedonia, and on the W. by Servia. It is very narrow, but 325 miles long on the side of the Danube, from Servia till it falls into the Black sea. It is divided into 4 sãngiacates; Byden, Sardice, Nicopolis, and Silistria. The chief towns are of the same names, except that of Sardice, which is now called **SOPHIA**.

(2.) **BULGARIA, HISTORY OF.** The Bulgarians anciently inhabited the plains of Sarmatia that extended along the banks of the Volga. Thence they migrated, about the middle of the 7th century, in quest of new settlements. A large body of them passed the Danube, and took possession of the country adjacent to the western coast of the Euxine sea. Several attempts were made by the Romans to dispossess and extirpate them: But they defended themselves with equal resolution and success. Constantine III. being defeated and intimidated, concluded an ignominious peace with them, A. D. 678, and purchased their friendship by the payment of an annual tribute. Justinian II. refused to comply with these dishonourable terms, and invaded their territories, A. D. 687; but he was defeated, and constrained to renew the treaty. War was carried on, almost without interruption, between them and the eastern emperors, for several centuries. After a long and doubtful struggle, the Romans prevailed; and the emperor Basil III. reduced Bulgaria to the form of a province, A. D. 1019. From this time the Bulgarians remained in subjection, and were governed by Roman dukes, until the reign of Isaac Angelus, when they revolted A. D. 1186. Some

Some time after, Stephen IV. king of Hungary, having defeated the Bulgarians, obliged them to acknowledge him as their sovereign. His successors were styled kings of Hungary and Bulgaria; and this title was transmitted, with the kingdom of Hungary, to the house of Austria. By the aid of the eastern emperors they threw off the Hungarian yoke; and, in return, they assisted their ally in an attempt to recover Adrianople, A. D. 1369. Provoked by this combination, Amurath invaded their country; and Bajazet, his successor, completed the conquest of it, A. D. 1396. Bulgaria still remains a province of the Ottoman empire. The inhabitants are Christians, but so extremely ignorant, that they seem to know nothing of Christianity, but baptism and fasting.

BULGARIAN LANGUAGE, the same with the **SLAVONIC**, or *Lingua Heneta*.

BULGARIANS, the people of **BULGARIA**. See § 2.

* **To BULGE**. *v. n.* [It was originally written *bilge*; *bilge* was the lower part of the ship, where it swelled out; from *bilig*, Sax. a bladder.] 1. To take in water; to founder.—

Thrice round the ship was toft,

Then *bulg'd* at once, and in the deep was lost.

Dryden.

2. To jut out.—The side, or part of the side of a wall, or any timber that *bulges* from its bottom or foundation, is said to batter, or hang over the foundation. *Moxon's Mechanical Exercises.*

BULGOLDA LAPIS, the name of the stone taken out of the head of an animal in America, called by the natives *bulgoldaf*. It is said to possess the virtue of the bezoar, as a cordial and restorer of poisons.

BULHAM, a town in the Isle of Wight.

(1.) * **BULIMY**. *n. f.* [*βουλμία*, from *βῆς*, an ox, and *λιμος*, hunger.] An enormous appetite, attended with fainting, and coldness of the extremities. *DiEt.*

(2.) **BULIMY** is also called *fames canina*, canine appetite. See **MEDICINE**, *Index*.

BULITHOS, or } a stone found in the gall-
BULITHUS, } bladder, kidneys, or urinary
bladder, of an ox. See **Bos**, N. IV. § xi. 1.

(1.) * **BULK**. *n. f.* [*bulcke*, Dutch, the breast, or largest part of a man.] 1. Magnitude; of material substance; mass.—Against these forces there were prepared near one hundred ships; not so great of *bulk* indeed, but of a more nimble motion, and more serviceable. *Bacon's war with Spain*.—The Spaniards and Portuguese have ships of great *bulk*, but fitter for the merchant than the man of war; for burden than for battle. *Raleigh*.—Though an animal arrives at its full growth, at a certain age, perhaps it never comes to its full *bulk* till the last period of life. *Arbutnot*. 2. Size; quantity.—Things, or objects, cannot enter into the mind, as they subsist in themselves, and by their own natural *bulk*, pass into the apprehension; but they are taken in by their ideas. *South*. 3. The gross; the majority; the main mass.—Those very points, in which these wise men disagreed from the *bulk* of the people, are points in which they agreed with the received doctrines of our nature. *Addison's Freeholder*.—

Change in property, through the *bulk* of a nation,

makes slow marches, and its due power then attends it. *Swift*.—The *bulk* of the debt was lessened gradually. *Swift*. 4. Main part.—

He rais'd a sigh so piteous and profound,

That it did seem to shatter all his bones,

And end his being.

5. The main part of a ship's cargo; as, 1. *bulk*, is to open the cargo.

(1.) * **BULK**. *n. f.* [from *tielcke*, *Dan.* a bulk.] A part of a building jutting out.—

Here stand behind this *bulk*. *Stranger* v. 1. 2. come:

Wear thy good rapier bare, and put it home.

—The keeper coming up, found Jack was in him; he took down the body, and brought out the rope to the *bulk*, and brought out the rope to the *bulk*. *Arbutnot's History of J. Bull*.

(3.) **BULK OF A SHIP**, the whole centre of the hold for the stowage of goods.

(1.) * **BULKHEAD**. *n. f.* A partition across a ship, with boards, whereby one part is divided from another. *Harris*.

(2.) **BULK-HEAD AFORE**, the partition between the fore-castle and the gratings in the head.

* **BULKINESS**. *n. f.* [from *bulky*.] Greatness of stature, or size.—Wheat, or any other grain, does not serve instead of money, because of its *bulkiness*, and change of its quantity. *Locke*.

BULKINGTON, two villages; 1. in Warwick. 4 m. from Coventry: 2. in Wiltshire. Pottern.

BULKLEY, N. W. of Cholmondley, Cheshire.

BULKWORTHY, W. of Torrington, Devon.

* **BULKY**. *adj.* [from *bulk*.] Of great stature.—

Latius, the *bulkier* of the double race,

Whom the spoil'd arms of slain Halcus bore.

Dryden

Huge Telephus, a formidable page,

Cries vengeance; and Orestes' *bulky* rage,

Unsatisfy'd with margins closely writ,

Foams o'er the covers.

Dryden

—The manner of sea engagements, which would bore and sink the enemy's ships with the *bulky* and high ships a great advantage.

Arbutnot

(1.) **BULL**, Frederick, Esq; a public spirited and disinterested patriot, was one of the aldermen of London, and one of the representatives for the city, in 3 successive parliaments. He first evinced his zeal for the rights of Britons, by the public and active part he took in favour of Mr Wilkes, whose cause he supported, as considering it the common cause of every Briton, and whom he at the same time personally assisted, at the expence of many thousand pounds out of his own private pocket. Nor did he desist from annually making his motion in the House of Commons for the erasure of the minute of Mr Wilkes's expulsion, till at last accomplished that object in 1782. In 1770 Mr Bull served the office of sheriff along with Mr Wilkes, and in 1773 he was elected lord mayor. Upon his first election, as member for the city, he set an example, which, it is to be wished, was followed by all who are elected to such important offices; by assuring his constituents, that "he never would ask or accept of any place, pension,

penfion,

the, emolument or gratuity of any kind whatever, from any ministry under government, neither for himself nor any friend: That the welfare and happiness of his country should be the only object of his attention, and the instructions of his constituents the sole rule of his political conduct." Consistently with these professions, (from which he never deviated in the smallest degree,) he received the honour of knighthood, which was conferred him in 1782, when he went up, along with some other members of the court of aldermen, to present the address to the king on his change of ministry,—although the new ministry were all men of his own political sentiments, with whom he had uniformly voted in all public matters; particularly respecting the rights of the Americans to tax themselves, the injustice of the American war, &c. He was one of the first promoters, if not the founder of the Humane Society, and was many years president of it. In private life, he was equally respectable. The most active industry and the most unbounded liberality, virtues too frequently disjoined, were in him united. In a word, for strict integrity, for a warm and feeling heart, and for a zealous attachment to the essentials of the British constitution, Mr Bull left few equals, none superior, when he died in London, Jan. 1784, aged 79.

(II.) BULL, George, bishop of St David's was born at Wells, in 1634; and educated at Exeter college, Oxford. His first benefice was that of St George's, near Bristol; whence he rose successively to be rector of Suddington in Gloucestershire, prebendary of Gloucester, archdeacon of Hereford, and, in 1705, bishop of St David's. In the time of Cromwell, he adhered steadily to the church of England; and in the reign of James II. preached very strenuously against the errors of popery. He wrote, 1. A defence of the Nicene faith. 2. Apostolical harmony. 3. Primitive apostolical religion; and other works. He died in 1709.

(III.) BULL, John, a celebrated musician and composer, was born in Somersetshire about A. D. 1561, and was of the Somerset family. He was educated under Blitheman. In 1586, he was admitted at Oxford, bachelor of music, having practised in that faculty 14 years; and in 1592, was created doctor in the university of Cambridge. In 1591, he was appointed organist of the queen's chapel. Dr Bull was the first Gresham professor of music, and was recommended to that station by Q. Elizabeth. But however skilful he was in his profession, he was not able to read his lectures in Latin; and therefore, by a special provision, made A. D. 1597, his lectures were permitted to be in English. In 1601, he went abroad for the recovery of his health, and travelled incognito into France and Germany; and Wood relates the following anecdote of him while abroad. "Dr Bull hearing of a famous musician belonging to a cathedral in St Omer's he applied, as a novice, to him, to learn something of his faculty, and to see and admire his works. This musician, after some discourse had passed between them, conducted Bull to a vestry or music-school joining to the cathedral, and showed him a song of 40 parts; and then made a vaunting challenge to any person in the world to add one part more to them, suppo-

sing it to be so complete and full, that it was impossible for any mortal man to correct or add to it. Bull thereupon, desiring the use of pen, ink, and ruled paper, prayed the musician to lock him up in the said school for 2 or 3 hours; which being done, not without great disdain by the musician, Bull, in that time or less, added 40 more parts to the said lesson or song. The musician thereupon being called in, he viewed it, tried it; and retried it; at length he burst out into an ecstasy, and swore a great oath, that he who added these 40 parts must be either the devil or Dr Bull. Whereupon Bull made himself known. Afterwards, continuing in those parts for a time, he became so much admired, that he was courted to accept of any place of preferment suitable to his profession, either within the dominions of the emperor, the king of France, or Spain; but Q. Elizabeth, hearing of these transactions commanded him home." Dr Ward, in his lives of the Gresham professors, relates, that upon the death of Elizabeth he became chief organist to king James, and entertained him and prince Henry with his performance on the organ. He also relates, that, in 1613, Bull quitted England and went to reside in the Netherlands, where he was admitted into the service of the archduke: Wood says, that Dr Bull died at Hamburgh: others say at Lubeck. The only works of Bull in print are lessons in the "Parthenia, or the maiden-head of the first music that ever was printed for the virginals." An anthem of his, is to be found in Bernard's collection of church-music: Dr Ward has given a long list of compositions of Dr Bull in M. S. in the collection of the late Dr Pepusch, by which it appears that he was equally excellent in vocal and instrumental harmony. He was possessed of a power of execution on the harpsichord far beyond what is generally conceived of the masters of that time. His lessons, in the estimation of Dr Pepusch, were superior not only for harmony and contrivance, but for air and modulation, to those of Couperin, Scarlatti, and other modern composers for the harpsichord.

(IV.) * BULL. *n. f.* [*bulle*, Dutch.] 1. The male of black cattle; the male to a cow.—A gentlewoman, Sir, and a kinswoman of my master's.—Even such kin as the parish beiterers are to the town bull. *Shakespeare*.—Bulls are more crisp upon the forehead than cows. *Racon*.—

Best age to go to bull; or calve, we hold,

Begins at four, and ends at ten years old. *Mary*.

2. In the scriptural sense, an enemy powerful, fierce, and violent.—Many bulls have compassed me: strong bulls of Bashan have beset me round. *Psalms*. 3. One of the twelve signs of the zodiac.—

At last from Aries rolls the bounteous sun,

And the bright Bull receives him. *Thomson*.

4. A letter published by the pope.—A bull is letters called apostolick by the canonists, strengthened with a leaden seal, and containing in them the decrees and commandments of the pope or bishop of Rome. *Ayliffe*.—There was another sort of ornament wore by the young nobility, called *bulls*, round, or of the figure of a heart, hung about their necks like diamond crosses. Those bulls came afterwards to be hung to the diplomas of the

the emperors and pope, from whence they had the name of *bulls*. *Arbutnot* —It was not till after a fresh *bull* of Leo's had declared how inflexible the court of Rome was in the point of abuses. *Atterbury*. 5. A blunder; a contradiction.—I confess it is what the English call a *bull*, in the expression, though the sense be manifest enough. *Pope's Letters*.

(V.) BULL, in astronomy. See ASTRONOMY, § 548.

(VI.) * BULL, in composition, generally notes the large size of any thing, as, *bull-head*, *bulrush*, *bull trout*; and is therefore only an augmentative syllable, without much reference to its original signification.

(VII. 1.) BULL, in zoology. See § IV. *def.* 1. and Bos, N. IV. § i—xi.

2. BULL AND BOAR. By the custom of some places, the parson is obliged to keep a bull and a boar for the use of his parishioners, in consideration of his having tithes of calves and pigs, &c.

3. BULLS, WILD. See Bos, N. IV. § i, v, vi, vii, 2. ix. xi, 4, 5. The wild bulls, now so numerous on the continent of America, are said to have sprung from one bull and seven cows, which were carried thither by some of the first discoverers.

4. BULLS, WILD, HUNTING OF. See Bos, N. IV. § i, vi. BUCCANIERS, § 3. and HUNTING.

(VIII.) BULL, signifying a letter, (§ IV. *Def.* 4.) is applied to the letters of princes as well as of the popes. The Bull, however, properly speaking, signifies the seal, appended to the letter, and which has been made of gold, silver, and lead, as well as of wax. Thus,

1. BULL, GOLDEN, an edict, or imperial constitution, made by the emperor Charles IV. reputed to be the magna charta, or the fundamental law of the German empire. It is called *golden* because it has a golden seal, tied with yellow and red cords of silk: upon one side is the emperor represented sitting on his throne, and on the other the capitol of Rome. It is also called CAROLINE, from Charles IV. Till the publication of the golden bull, the form and ceremony of the election of an emperor were dubious and undetermined, and the number of electors not fixed. This solemn edict regulated the functions, rights, privileges, and pre-eminences, of the electors. The original, which is in Latin, on vellum, is preserved at Frankfort: This ordinance, containing 30 articles, was approved of by all the princes of the empire, and remains still in force.

2. BULLS, LEADEN, were sent by the emperors of Constantinople to despots, patriarchs, and princes; and were also used by the graduates of the Imperial court, as well as by the kings of France, Sicily, &c. and by bishops, patriarchs, and popes. It is to be observed, that the leaden bulls of these last had, on one side, the name of the pope or bishop inscribed. Polydore Virgil makes pope Stephen III. the first who used leaden bulls, about 772. But others find instances of them as early as Silvester, Leo. I. and Gregory the Great. The latter popes, besides their own names, strike the figures of St Peter and St Paul on their bulls; a practice first introduced by pope Paschal II. But why, in these bulls, the figure of St Paul is on the right, and that of St Peter on the left side,

is a question which has occasioned many conjectures. Perhaps the engraver of the seal, not adverted, that by placing St Peter on the right side in the seal, he would be thrown out of the impression.

3. BULLS OF THE POPE are dispatched in the name of his holiness, from the Roman see, and sealed with lead, being written on parchment, by which they are partly distinguished from the letters of the emperor. See BRIEF, § 5. The pope's bull is a kind of official rescript, or edict; and is chiefly used in matters of justice or grace. If the former be the intention of the bull, the lead is hung by a cord; if the latter, by a filken thread. The seal is impressed on one side with the heads of St Peter and St Paul, and on the other with the arms of the pope and the year of his pontificate. The bull is written in an old, round, Gothic hand, and is divided into 5 parts, the narrative of the case, the conception, the clause, the date, and the conclusion, in which the pope styles himself *servorum*, i. e. the servant of servants. To the bull are annexed, besides the lead hanging to the bottom, a cross, with some text of scripture, or a motto, about it. Bulls are granted for the consecration of bishops, the promotion to benefices, and the celebration of jubilees, &c. *Bulla Domini*, is a particular bull read every year on the day of the Lord's supper, or Maunday Thursday, in the pope's presence, containing excommunications and anathemas against heretics, and those who disturb or oppose the jurisdiction of the papacy. After the reading of the bull, the pope takes down a burning torch, to denote the execution of this anathema.

4. BULLS, SILVER, were not in so frequent use, though instances of them might be produced.

5. BULLS, WAXEN, are said to have been first brought into England by the Normans. They were in frequent use among the Greek emperors, who thus sealed letters to their wives, mothers, and sons. Of these there were two sorts, viz. red and green.

(1.) BULLA, in antiquity, a kind of ornament, much in use among the ancient Romans. Whittaker is of opinion, that the Bullæ were originally formed of leather among all ranks of people; and it is certain that they continued to be so the last among the commonality. He also conjectures, that at first the bulla was intended as an amulet, rather than an ornament; as a proof of which, he tells us, that the bullæ were frequently impressed with the figure of the sexual parts. It is universally asserted by the critics, that the bullæ were made hollow for the reception of an amulet; but this, Mr Whittaker contradicts, from the discovery of a golden one lately found at Manchester, which had no aperture whereby an amulet could have been introduced. Pliny refers the origin of the bulla to the elder Tarquin, who gave it with the prætexta to his son, because, at the age of 14, he had, with his own hand, killed an enemy; and in imitation of him it was afterwards assumed by other patricians. Others affirm, that the bulla was given by that king to the sons of the patricians who had born civil offices. Lastly, others allege, that Romulus first introduced the bulla, and gave it to Tullus Hostilius,

child born of the rape of the Sabines. As to the form of the bullæ, Mr Whittaker informs us, they were originally made in the shape of hearts, but they did not always retain that form. As the wealth of the state and the riches of individuals increased, the young patrician distinguished himself by a bulla of gold, while the plebeians wore the amulets of their ancestors. The figure of a heart then became so generally round, that there are not many of the original form to be found in the cabinets of the curious. The form is naturally varied from a complete circle to that of a segment; and this was the shape of the abovementioned bulla found at Manchester. When the youths arrived at 15 years of age, they put their bullæ about the necks of their gods.

The bullæ were also not only hung about the necks of young men, but even of horses. They were likewise sometimes hung upon statues; hence the phrase *statue bullata*. Bulla was also a denomination given to divers other metalline ornaments made after the same form; and in this sense bullæ seems to include all gold and silver ornaments of a roundish form, whether worn on the habits of men, the trappings of horses, or the plates on their doors and belts. The bullæ of the rich were a kind of large headed nails fastened to the doors of the rich, and kept bright with care. The doors of temples were sometimes adorned with golden bullæ. Mr Bandelot takes the bullæ worn by soldiers on their belts to be more than mere ornaments. They have been considered as preservatives against dangers and diseases, and even means of acquiring glory, and other advantages. The like might perhaps be extended to the bull on the doors, which were probably placed there as a security to prevent them from being broken or violated.

BULLA denoted also a table hung up in the courts, to distinguish which days were fast, which not fast; answering in some measure to the calendar.

BULLA, or DIPPER, in zoology, a genus belonging to the order of vermes testaceæ. It is a kind of the snail kind: the shell consists of a single piece, convoluted, and without any prickles; the aperture is narrowish, oblong, longitudinal, and entire at the base; the columella is smooth and oblique. There are 23 species; 4 of which are found in the British seas; the rest are chiefly natives of the Asiatic and Atlantic oceans.

(1.) * BULLACE. *n. f.* A wild four plum.—In October and the beginning of November, come cherries, medlars, bullaces; roses cut or removed, become late; hollyhocks and such like. *Bacon*.

(2.) BULLACE TREE, in botany. See CHRYSOMELUM and PRUNUS.

BULLARI, in the court of Rome, the makers and drawers of BULLS or constitutions.

BULLARY, *bullarium*, a collection of papal bulls. A general bullary of all the papal constitutions, from Gregory VII. to Sixtus V. was compiled by order of pope Sixtus V. in 1586; since which has been published a great bullary, by Laert. Cherubini, containing the bulls of all the popes from Leo in 440, to Paul V. in 1559; since continued

by Ang. Cherubin to 1644, and by Ang. a Lantusca and Jo. Paulus to 1676; and lastly, by an anonymous editor to the time of Benedict XIII. under the title of *Bullarium magnum Romanum*. We have the same digested in a new method by Bouchardus; a commentary on it begun by Vinc. Petra, and a summary of it by Novarius.

BULLATED, *adj. obs.* Bubbling; boiling.

* BULL-BAITING. *n. f.* [from *bull* and *bait*.] The sport of beating bulls with dogs.—What am I the wiser for knowing that Trajan was in the 5th year of his tribuneship, when he entertained the people with a horse-race or bull-baiting? *Addis.*

* BULL-BEE. See BULL-FLY.

* BULL-BEEF. *n. f.* [from *bull* and *beef*.] Coarse beef; the flesh of bulls.—They want their porridge and their fat bull-beeves. *Shakespeare*.

* BULL-BEGGAR. *n. f.* [This word probably came from the insolence of those who begged, or raised money by the pope's bull.] Something terrible; something to frighten children with.—These Fulminations from the Vatican were turned into ridicule; and, as they were called *bull-beggars*, they were used as words of scorn and contempt. *Arbuckle*.

* BULL-CALF. *n. f.* [from *bull* and *calf*.] A he-calf; used for a stupid fellow: a term of reproach.—And Falstaff, you carried your guts away as nimbly, and roared for mercy, and still ran and roared, as ever I heard a bull calf. *Shakespeare*.

* BULL-DOG. *n. f.* [from *bull* and *dog*.] A dog of a particular form, remarkable for his courage. He is used in baiting the bull; and this species is so peculiar to Britain, that they are said to degenerate when they are carried to other countries.—All the harmless part of him is that of a bull-dog; they are tame no longer than they are not offended. *Addison*.

BULLEN, Anne. See BOLEYN.

BULLENGER, in old statutes, a boat or a small ship.

(1.) BULLERS BUCHAN, a village of Buchan on the coast of Aberdeenshire, in the parish of Cruden, between Buchan-Ness and Peterhead, chiefly inhabited by fishermen.

(2.) BULLERS BUCHAN, THE POT OF, or the BOILERS OF BUCHAN, a large oval cavity in the rocks 150 feet deep, round which there is a foot-path. Boats sail into it from the sea, under a natural arch, resembling a large Gothic window. Near this, there is a vast insulated rock, divided by a narrow and very deep chasm from the land. About the middle of this rock, many feet above the level of the water, there is a large triangular aperture, through which the waves, when agitated, rush with tremendous noise.

* BULLET. *n. f.* [*houlet*, French.] A round ball of metal, usually shot out of guns.—

As when the devilish iron engine wrought

In deepest hell, and fram'd by furies skill,

With windy nitre and quick sulphur fraught,
And rammed with bullet round, ordain'd to kill.

—*Spenser*.

—Giasfer, their leader, desperately fighting amongst the foremost of the janizaries, was at once shot with two bullets, and slain. *Knolles*.—

And as they built, so different is the fight;
Their mounting shot is on our tails design'd:

Deep in their hulls our deadly *bullets* light,
And through the yielding planks a passage find.

Dryden.

BULLET-BORE is a steel shank, having a globe at one end, wherewith to bore the inside of a bullet-mould clean, of the size intended.

BULLET IRON, a denomination given by some to Spanish or Swedish bars of iron.

BULLET-MOULDS, iron moulds for casting bullets. They consist of two concave hemispheres, with a handle whereby to hold them; and between them is a hole, called *the gate*, to pour in the melted metal. The chaps or hemispheres of bullet-moulds are first punched, being blood-red hot, with a round ended punch, of the shape and nearly of the size of the intended bullets. To cleanse the insides, a **BULLET-BORE** is used.

BULL-EYED, *adj.* having large eyes. *Ash.*

BULLEYN, William, a learned physician and botanist, born in the isle of Ely, in the former part of the reign of Henry VIII. and educated at Cambridge. Botany being his favourite study, he travelled through various parts of England, Scotland, and Germany, chiefly with an intention to improve his knowledge in that science. In the reign of Edward VI. or Q. Mary. Mr Bulleyn appears, from his remarks on the natural productions of that country, to have resided at Norwich, or near it, and to have spent some time at Bloxhall in Suffolk; but he afterwards removed into the north, and settled at Durham, where he practised physic with reputation. His great patron at this time was Sir Thomas Hilton, knight baron of Hilton, who was governor of Tinnmouth castle in the reign of Philip and Mary. In 1560, he came to London, and, soon after his arrival, was accused by William Hilton of Bidick, of having murdered his brother Sir Thomas, our author's friend and patron. He was arraigned before the duke of Norfolk, and honourably acquitted. This Hilton afterwards hired some villains to assassinate the doctor; but this attempt proving ineffectual, he had him arrested on an action for debt, and he remained for a long time in prison. During this confinement, Dr Bulleyn composed several of those works which raised his reputation as a medical writer. He died in January 1576, and was buried in St Giles's Cripplegate, in the same grave with his brother the divine, who died 13 years before, and in which John Fox the martyrologist was interred 11 years after. Dr Bulleyn appears from his writings to have been well acquainted with the works of the ancient Greek, Roman, and Arabian physicians. He was a man of genius and fertile imagination, and his works are by no means barren of entertainment, though his practice is obsolete. He wrote 1. *The government of health*, 1559, 8vo. 2. *A regimen against the pleurisy*, 8vo. London, 1562. 3. *Bulleyn's bulwark of defence against all sickness, sores and wounds that come daily assault mankind*, London, 1562, folio. 4. *A dialogue both pleasant and pious, wherein is a goodlie regimen against the fever pestilence, with a consolation and comfort against death*. Lond, 1564-9. 8vo.

BULL-FEAST. See **BULL-FIGHTING**, § 2.

BULL-FIGHT. *n. s.* See next article.

(1.) **BULL-FIGHTING**, a sport or exercise

much in vogue among the Spaniards and Portuguese, consisting in a kind of combat of a cavalier or torreadore against a wild bull, either on foot or on horseback, by riding at him with a lance. The Spaniards have bull-fights, i. e. feasts attended with shows, in honour of St John, the Virgin Mary, &c. This sport the Spaniards received from the Moors, among whom it was celebrated with great eclat. Some think that the Moors might have received the custom from the Romans, and they from the Greeks. Dr Plot is of opinion, that the *ταυρομαχία* among the Thessalians, who first instituted this game, and of whom Julius Cæsar learned and brought it to Rome, were the origin both of the Spanish and Portuguese bull-fighting, and of the English bull-running. This practice was prohibited by Pope Pius V. under pain of excommunication incurred *ipso facto*. But succeeding popes have granted several mitigations in behalf of the torreadores.

(2.) **BULL-FIGHTING, ROMAN**. The following account of a bull-feast, in the Coliseum at Rome, in 1332, extracted from Muratori by Mr Gibbon, may give some idea of the pomp, ceremonies, and the danger which attended these exhibitions. "A general proclamation as far as Rimini and Ravenna invited the nobles to exercise their skill and courage in this perilous adventure. The Roman ladies were marshalled in 3 squadrons, and seated in 3 balconies, which on this day, (the 3d Sept.) were lined with scarlet cloth. The fair Jacova di Rovere led the matrons from beyond the Tiber, a pure and native race, who still represent the features and character of antiquity. The remainder of the city was divided between the Colonna and Ursini families: the two factions were proud of the number and beauty of their female bands: the charms of Savella Ursini are mentioned with praise; and the Colonna regretted the absence of the youngest of their house, who had sprained her ankle in the garden of Nero's tower. The lots of the champions were drawn by a respectable citizen; and they descended into the *arena*, or pit, to encounter the wild-bulls, on foot as it should seem, with a single spear. Amidst the crowd, our annalist has selected the names, colours, and devices of twenty of the most conspicuous knights. Several of the names are the most illustrious of Rome and the ecclesiastical state; Malatesta, Polenta, della Valle, Cafarello, Savelli, Cappoccio, Conti, Annibaldi, Altieri, Corsi. The colours were adapted to their taste and situation; and the devices, expressive of hope or despair, breathed the spirit of gallantry and arms. "I am alone, like the youngest of the Horatii," the confidence of an intrepid stranger: "I live disconsolate," a weeping widower: "I burn under the ashes," a discreet lover: "I adore Lavinia or Lucretia," the ambiguous declaration of a modern passion: "My faith is as pure," the motto of a white livery: "Who is stronger than myself?" of a lion's hide. "If I am drowned in blood, what a pleasant death!" the wish of ferocious courage. The pride or prudence of the Ursini restrained them from the field, which was occupied by 3 of their hereditary rivals, whose inscriptions denoted the lofty greatness of the Colonna name: "Though

ad, I am strong :” “ Strong as I am great :” If I fall (addressing himself to the spectators) you all with me :”—intimating (says the writer), that while the other families were the subjects of the Vatican, they alone were the supporters of the Capitol. The combats of the amphitheatre were very dangerous and bloody. Every champion successively encountered a wild bull ; and the victory may be ascribed to the quadrupeds, since no more than 11 were left on the field, with the loss of 9 wounded and 18 killed on the side of their adversaries. Some of the noblest families might mourn ; at the pomp of the funerals, in the churches of St John Lateran and St Maria Maggiore, afforded a second holiday to the people.” It was not in such conflicts that the blood of the Romans should have been shed ; yet in blaming their rashness, we are compelled to applaud their gallantry ; and the volunteers, who display their magnificence and risk their lives under the balconies of the fair, excite a more generous sympathy than the thousands of captives and malefactors who were reluctantly dragged to the scene of slaughter.”

(3.) BULL-FIGHTING, SPANISH. A striking proof of barbarity in the Spanish manners is the excessive attachment of that nation to bull fights, a spectacle which shocks the delicacy of every other people in Europe. Many Spaniards consider this practice as the sure means of preserving that energy by which they are characterised, and of habituating them to violent emotions, which are terrible only to timid minds. But it seems difficult to comprehend what relation there is between bravery, and a spectacle where the assistants *now* run no danger ; where the actors prove, by the few accidents which befall them, that theirs is nothing in it very interesting ; and where the unhappy victims meet only with certain death, as the reward of their vigour and courage. The bull-fights are very expensive ; but they bring great gain to the undertakers. The worst places cost 2 or 4 rials, according as they are in the sun or in the shade. The price of the highest is a dollar. When the price of the horses and bulls, and the wages of the *TORREADORES*, have been paid out of this money, the rest is generally appropriated to pious foundations : at Madrid it forms one of the principal funds of the hospital. It is only during summer that these combats are exhibited, because the season then permits the spectators to sit in the open air, and because the bulls are then most vigorous. Those which are of the best breed are condemned to this kind of sacrifice ; and connoisseurs are so well acquainted with their distinguishing marks, that as soon as a bull appears upon the arena, they can mention the place where he was reared. This arena is a kind of circus surrounded by about a dozen of seats, rising one above another ; the highest of which only is covered. The boxes occupy the lower part of the edifice. In cities which have no place particularly set apart for these combats, the principal square is converted into a theatre. The balconies of the houses are widened, so as to project over the streets which end there. The spectacle commences by a kind of procession around the square, in which appear, on horseback and on foot, the combatants who are to attack the fierce animal ;

after which two alguazils, dressed in perukes and black robes, advance with great gravity on horseback ; who ask from the president of the entertainment an order for it to commence. A signal is immediately given ; and the animal, which was before shut up in a kind of hovel with a door opening into the square, soon makes his appearance. The alguazils hasten to retire, and their fright is a prelude to the cruel pleasure which the spectators are about to enjoy. The bull is received with loud shouts, and almost stunned by the noisy expressions of their joy. He has to contend first against the picadores, combatants on horseback, who, dressed according to the ancient Spanish manner, and as it were fixed to their saddles, wait for him, each being armed with a long lance. This exercise, which requires strength, courage, and dexterity, is not considered as disgraceful. Formerly the greatest lords did not disdain to practise it ; even at present some of the *hidalgos* solicit the honour of fighting the bull on horseback. The picadores open the scene. It often happens that the bull, without being provoked, darts upon them, and every body entertains a favourable opinion of his courage. If, notwithstanding the sharp pointed weapon which defends his attack, he returns immediately to the charge, their shouts are redoubled, as their joy is converted into enthusiasm ; but if the bull, struck with terror, appears pacific, and avoids his persecutors, by walking round the square in a timid manner, he is hooted at and hissed by the whole spectators, and all those near whom he passes load him with blows and reproaches. If nothing can awaken his courage, he is judged unworthy of being tormented by *men* ; the cry of *perros, perros*, brings forth new enemies against him, and large dogs are let loose upon him, which seize him by the neck and ears in a furious manner. The animal then finds the use of those weapons with which nature has furnished him ; he tosses the dogs into the air, who fall down stunned, and sometimes mangled ; they often recover, renew the combat, and generally finish by overcoming their adversary, who thus perishes ignobly. If, on the other hand, he presents himself with a good grace, he runs a longer and nobler, but much more painful career. The first act of the tragedy belongs to the combatants on horseback ; this is the most bloody of all the scenes, and the most disgusting. The irritated animal braves the pointed steel which makes deep wounds in his neck, attacks with fury the innocent horse who carries his enemy, rips up his sides and overturns him together with his rider. The latter, then dismounted and disarmed, would be exposed to imminent danger, did not combatants on foot, called *CHULOS*, come to divert the bull's attention, and to provoke him, by shaking before him different pieces of cloth of various colours. It is, however, at their own risk that they thus save the dismounted horseman ; for the bull sometimes pursues them, and they have then need for all their agility. They often escape from him by letting fall the piece of stuff which was their only arms, and against which the deceived animal expends all his fury. Sometimes the combatant has no other resource but to throw himself speedily over a barrier, six feet high, which incloses the interior

interior part of the arena. In some places this barrier is double, and the intermediate space forms a kind of circular gallery, behind which the pursued torreadore is in safety. But when the barrier is single, the bull attempts to jump over it, and often succeeds. The nearest of the spectators are then in the greatest consternation; their haste to get out of the way, and to crowd to the upper benches, becomes often more fatal to them than even the fury of the bull, who, stumbling at every step, thinks rather of his own safety than of revenge, and besides soon falls under the blows which are given him from all quarters. Except in such cases, which are very rare, he immediately returns. His adversary recovered has had time to get up; he immediately remounts his horse, provided he is not killed or rendered unfit for service, and the attack commences; but he is often obliged to change his horse several times. Expressions cannot then be found to celebrate these acts of prowess, which for several days become the favourite topic of conversation. The horses, very affecting models of patience, courage, and docility, may be seen trading under their feet their own bloody entrails, which drop from their sides half torn open, and yet obeying, for some time after, the hand which conducts them to new tortures. Spectators of delicacy are then filled with disgust, which converts their pleasure into pain. A new act is however preparing, which reconciles them to the entertainment. As soon as the bull has been sufficiently tormented by the combatants on horseback, they retire and leave him to be irritated by those on foot. The latter, who are called *banderilleros*, go before the animal; and the moment he darts upon them they plunge into his neck, two by two, a kind of darts called *banderillas*, the points of which are hooked, and which are ornamented with small streamers made of coloured paper. The fury of the bull is now redoubled; he roars and tosses his head, while his vain efforts serve only to increase the pain of his wounds. This last scene calls forth all the agility of his adversaries. The spectators at first tremble for them when they behold them braving so near the horns of this formidable animal; but their hands well exercised, aim their blows so skilfully, and they avoid the danger so nimbly, that after having seen them a few times, one neither pities nor admires them, and their address and dexterity seem only to be a small episode of the tragedy. When the vigour of the bull appears to be almost exhausted; when his blood, issuing from 20 wounds, streams along his neck and sides; and when the people, tired of one object, demand another victim; the president of the entertainment gives the signal of death, which is announced by the sound of trumpets. The matador then advances, and all the rest quit the arena; with one hand he holds a long dagger, and with the other a kind of flag, which he waves backwards and forwards before his adversary. They both stop and gaze at one another; and while the agility of the matador deceives the impetuosity of the bull, the pleasure of the spectators, which was for some time suspended, is again awakened into life.— Sometimes the bull, motionless, throws up the earth

ting revenge. The bull in this condition, and the matador who calculates his motions and divines his projects, form a group which an able pencil might not disdain to delineate. The matador at length gives the mortal blow; and if the animal immediately falls, a thousand voices proclaim with loud shouts the triumph of the conqueror; but if the blow is not decisive, if the bull survives and seeks still to brave the fatal steel, murmurs succeed to applause, and the matador, whose glory was about to be raised to the skies, is considered only as an unskilful butcher. He endeavours to be soon revenged, and to disarm his judges of their severity. His zeal sometimes degenerates into blind fury, and his partizans tremble for the consequences of his imprudence. He at length directs his blow better. The animal staggers and falls, while his conqueror is intoxicated with the applauses of the people. Three mules, ornamented with bells and streamers, come to terminate the tragedy. A rope is tied around the bull's horns, which have betrayed his valour, and the brave animal is dragged ignominiously from the arena which he has honoured, and leaves only the traces of his blood and the remembrance of his exploits, which are soon effaced on the appearance of his successor. On each of the days set apart for these entertainments, six are thus sacrificed in the morning, and 12 in the afternoon, at least in Madrid. The 3 last are given exclusively to the matador, who, without the assistance of the picadores, exerts his ingenuity to vary the pleasure of the spectators. Sometimes he causes them to be combated by some intrepid stranger, who attacks them mounted on the back of another bull, and sometimes he matches them with a bear: this last method is generally destined to the pleasure of the populace. The points of the bull's horns are concealed by something wrapped round them, which breaks their force. The animal, which in this state is called *EMBOLADO*, has power neither to pierce nor to tear his antagonist. The amateurs then descend in great numbers to torment him, each after his own manner, and often expiate this cruel pleasure by violent contusions; but the bull always falls at length under the stroke of the matador. The few spectators who are not infected by the general madness of this sport, regret that those wretched animals do not, at least, purchase their lives at the expense of so many torments and so many efforts of courage; they would willingly assist them to escape from their persecutors. In the minds of such spectators disgust succeeds compassion, and pity succeeds disgust. Such a series of uniform scenes makes that interest become languid, which this spectacle, on its commencement, seemed to promise. The Spanish government are sensible of the moral and political inconveniences arising from this species of barbarity. They have long since perceived, that among a people whom they wish to encourage to labour, it is the cause of much disorder and dissipation: and that it hurts agriculture, by destroying a great number of robust animals, which might be usefully employed: but they are obliged to manage with caution a taste which it might be dangerous to attempt to abolish precipitately. They are, however, far from encouraging

making it. The court itself formerly reckoned bull-fights among the number of its festivals, which were given at certain periods. The *Plaza-Mayor* was the theatre of them, and the king and the royal family honoured them with their presence. Guards presided there in good order. His halberdiers formed the interior circle of the scepce: and their long weapons, held out in a defensive posture, were the only barrier which they opposed against the dangerous caprices of the bull. These entertainments, which, by way of excellence, were called *Fiestas Reales*, are become very rare. Charles III. who endeavoured to polish the nation, and to direct their attention to useful objects, was very desirous of destroying a taste in which he saw nothing but inconveniences; but he was too wise to employ violent means for that purpose. He, however, confined the number of bull-fights to those, the profits of which were applied to the support of some charitable institution, with an intention of substituting for these other amusements afterwards. Bull-fights, by these means being rendered less frequent, will, perhaps, gradually lose their attractions, until more favourable circumstances permit the entire abolition of them. Nay, if we can credit news-paper report, they were actually abolished in the year 1796.

* **BULL-FINCH.** *n. f.* [*rubicilla.*] A small bird, that has neither song nor whistle of its own, yet is very apt to learn, if taught by the mouth. *Philips's World of Words.*—

The blackbird whistles from the thorny brake,
The mellow *bull-finch* answers from the groves.
Thomson.

* **BULL-FLY. BULL-BEE.** *n. f.* An insect. *Philips's World of Words.*

BULL-FROG, in zoology. See *RANA*, N° 3.

(1.) * **BULL-HEAD.** *n. f.* [from *bull* and *head.*] 1. A stupid fellow; a blockhead. 2. The name of a fish.—The miller's thumb, or *bull-head*, is a fish of no pleasing shape; it has a head big and flat, much greater than suitable to its body; a mouth very wide, and usually gaping; he is without teeth, but his lips are very rough, much like a fish; he hath two fins near to his gills, which are roundish or crested; two fins under his belly, and one on the back, one below the vent, and the fin of his tail is round. Nature hath painted the body of this fish with whitish, blackish, brownish spots. They are usually full of spawn all the summer, which swells their vents in the form of a dug. The *bull-head* begins to spawn in April; in winter we know no more what becomes of them than of the swallows. *Walton.* 3. A little black water term. *Philip's World of Words.*

(2.) **BULL-HEAD,** in ichthyology. See *COTTUS*.

BULLIALDUS, Isaac, an eminent astronomer, born at Laon, in the isle of France, in 1605. He travelled in his youth for improvement; and afterwards published several works, among which are, 1. *De natura lucis.* 2. *Philolaus.* 3. *Astronomia philolaica, opus novum, in quo motus planetarum per novam et veram hypoth. sin demonstrantur.* 4. *Astronomiæ philolaicæ fundamenta clarius explicata et asserta, adversus Sethi Wardi impugnacionem.* He also wrote a piece or two upon Geometry and Arithmetic. In 1661, he paid Hevelius a visit at Dantzic, for the sake of seeing his

optical and astronomical apparatus. Afterwards he became a presbyter at Paris, and died there in 1694.

BULLIMENTA is used by some chemists for the washings and scourings of gold and silver vessels, in proper liquors, to render them brighter.

BULLIMONG, or } a mixture of several sorts
BULLIMONY, } of grain, as oats, pease, and vetches, called also *maylin*, or *mong-corn*.

BULLINGBROKE. See *BOLINGBROKE*, N° 2.

BULLINGBROOK, a village in Lincolnshire, 4 miles S. E. of Horncastle.

BULLINGER, Henry, born at Bremgarten, in Switzerland, in 1504, was an eminent Zuinglian minister, a great supporter of the reformation, and employed in many ecclesiastical negociations. He composed many books, one against Luther in particular. He died in 1575.

BULLINGHAM, LOWER, } 2 English villages
BULLINGHAM, UPPER, } S. E. of Hereford.

BULLINGS, 6 miles E. of Lincoln.

BULLINGTON, 3 villages; 1. in Berkshire, between Wallingford and Oxford: 2. in Herefordshire, 2 miles W. of Kinnerley: and, 3. in Lincolnshire, 2 miles W. of Wragby.

(1.) * **BULLION.** *n. f.* [*billon*, Fr.] Gold or silver in the lump, unwrought, uncoined.—The balance of trade must of necessity be returned in coin or *bullion*. *Bacon.*—

A second multitude,

With wond'rous art, found out the massy ore,
Severing each kind, and scumm'd the *bullion*
drofs. *Milton.*

—*Bullion* is silver whose workmanship has no value. And thus foreign coin hath no value here for its stamp, and our coin is *bullion* in foreign dominions. *Locke.*—In every vessel there is stowage for immense treasures, when the cargo is pure *bullion*. *Addison.*

(2.) **BULLION** is so called, either when smelted from the native ore, and not perfectly refined, but melted down in bars or ingots, or in any unwrought body, of any degree of fineness. Goldsmiths apply the term to old gold and silver in general. These metals, when pure, are so soft and flexible, that they cannot well be brought into any fashion for use, without being first reduced and hardened with an alloy of some other baser metal. To prevent those abuses which some might commit, by such alloys, the legislators of civilized countries have ordained, that there shall be no more than a certain proportion of a baser metal to a particular quantity of pure gold or silver, in order to make them of the fineness of what is called the standard gold or silver of such a country. According to the laws of England, all sorts of wrought plate in general ought to be made to the legal standard; and the price of our standard gold and silver is the common rule whereby to set a value on their *bullion*, whether it be in ingots, bars, dust, or foreign specie. Hence the value of *bullion*, cannot be exactly known, without being first essayed, that the exact quantity of pure metal therein contained may be determined, and consequently whether it be above or below the standard. Silver and gold, whether coined or uncoined, (though used for a common measure of other things,) are no less a commodity than wine, tobacco,

phacco, or cloth; and more, in many cases, be exported as much to the national advantage as any other commodity.

(1.) * **BULLITION**. *n. f.* [from *bullio*, Lat.] The act or state of boiling.—There is to be observed in these dissolutions, which will not easily incorporate, what the effects are, as the *bullition*, the precipitation to the bottom, the ejaculation towards the top, the suspension in the midst, and the like. *Bacon*.

(2.) **BULLITION** is also used for the effect arising upon the mixture of different liquors, which often is a quantity of bubbles, or froth.

(1.) * **BULLOCK**. *n. f.* [from *bull*.] A young bull.—Why, that's spoken like an honest drover: so they sell *bullocks*. *Shakespeare*.—

Some drive the herds; here the fierce *bullock* scorns

Th' appointed way, and runs with threat'ning horns. *Cowley*.

—Until the transportation of cattle into England was prohibited, the quickest trade of ready money here was driven by the sale of young *bullocks*. *Temple*.

(2.) **BULLOCK**. See *Bos*, N° IV. § xi. 1. *CALF*, and *Ox*.

(3.) **BULLOCK**, in geography, a town of Ireland, 6 miles from Dublin.

BULLOCK'S EYE, in architecture, a small circular sky-light.

BULLOGNE. See *BOLOGNE*.

BULL-RUNNING, denotes a feudal custom obtaining in the honour of Tutbury in Staffordshire; where, anciently, on the day of the assumption of our Lady, a bull is turned loose by the lord to the minstrels; who, if they can catch him before he passes the river Dove, are to have him for their own, or, in lieu thereof, to receive each 40 pence; in consideration of which custom they pay 20 pence yearly to the said lord.

(1.) **BULL'S EYE**, in astronomy. See *ALDEBARAN*.

(2.) **BULL'S EYE**, in meteorology, a little dark cloud, reddish in the middle, chiefly appearing about the Cape of Good Hope; thus denominated by the Portuguese, who, on the appearance of it, instantly take down their sails, knowing that a terrible storm of thunder, lightning, and a whirlwind, is at hand.

(3.) **BULL'S EYE**, in sea language, a small pulley in the form of a ring, having a rope spliced round the outer edge of it, and a large hole in the middle for another rope to slide in. It is more commonly used by Dutch than by English seamen.

* **BULL-TROUT**. *n. f.* A large kind of trout.—There is, in Northumberland, a trout called a *bull-trout*, of a much greater length and bigness than any in these southern parts. *Walton*.

(1.) * **BULL-WEED**. *n. f.* The same with *knap-weed*.

(2.) **BULL-WEED**, in botany. See *CENTAUREA*.

BULL-WELL, a village, 7 miles from Nottingham.

(1.) * **BULL-WORT**, or *BISHOP'S-WEED*. *n. f.* [*ammi*, Lat.] A plant.

(2.) **BULL-WORT**. See *AMMI*.

(1.) * **BUL**... Skinner derives this word from *burly*, in the pronunciation;

which is very probably right: or from *bull*, *bull-eyed*; which are less probable. May it not come from *bull*, the pope's letter, implying the insolence of those who came invested with authority from the papal court? A noisy, blustering, quarrelling fellow: it is generally taken for a man that has only the appearance of courage.—*My host of the garter!*—What says my *bully*? Speak scholarly and wisely. *Shakespeare*.—All on a sudden the doors flew open, and in comes a crew of roaring *bullies*, with their wenches, their dogs, and their bottles. *L'Estrange*.—

'Tis so ridic'ulous, but so true withal,

A *bul*'s cannot sleep without a brawl. *Dryden*.—A scolding hero is, at the worst, a more tolerable character than a *bully* in petticoats. *Addison*.—The little man is a *bully* in his nature, but, when he grows cholerick, I confine him till his wrath is over. *Addison*.

(2.) **BULLY**, in geography, a village in Gloucestershire, 2 miles W. of the isle of Aldermey.

(1.) * **To BULLY**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To overbear with noise or menaces.—

Prentices, parish clerks, and hectors meet,
He that is drunk, or *bully'd*, pays the treat. *Keats*.

(2.) * **To BULLY**. *v. n.* To be noisy and quarrelsome.

BULMARSH-COURT, a village in Berkshire, near Sunning.

BULMARSH-HEATH, near Reading, Berkshire.

BULMER, two villages, viz. 1. in Essex, near Suffolk: 2. in Yorkshire, 5 miles S. W. of Malton.

BULNESS. See *BOULNESS*.

BULPHAM, a town N. W. of Horndon, Essex.

(1.) * **BULRUSH**. *n. f.* [from *bull* and *rush*.] A large rush, such as grows in rivers, without knots; though *Dryden* has given it the epithet *knotty*, confounding it, probably, with the reed.—

To make fine cages for the nightingale,

And baskets of *bulrushes*, was my wont. *Spenser*.—All my praises are but as a *bulrush* cast up a stream; they are born by the strength of the current. *Dryden*.—

The edges were with bending osiers crown'd;
The *knotty bulrush* next in order stood,
And all within of reeds and trembling wood. *Dryden*.

(2.) **BULRUSH BRIDGE**. See *BRIDGES*, § 1. 14.
BULSTRODE, a village near Gerard's Cross, in Buckinghamshire.

(1.) **BULTEL**, a bag wherein meal is dressed.

(2.) **BULTEL**, or **BULTER**, the bran or refuse of meal after dressing.

BULTELLUM, } in writers of the middle age,
BULTELLUS, } a searce, or **BOULTER**.

(1.) **BULTER**. See **BULTEL**, N° 2.

(2.) **BULTERS**, in fishing, strong lines, 500 feet long, with 60 hooks, 8 feet asunder, used on the coast of Cornwall in the fishery of congers. They are baited with pilchards or mackarel, and fast by a stone fastened to them. Sometimes such a number of these are tied together as to reach a mile.

BULTER-CLOTH, a linen or hair cloth for sifting or searing of meal or flour.

BULT-POINT, a village in Devonshire, near Salcomb.

(1.) * **BULWARK**. *n. f.* [*bolwercke*, Dutch; probably only from its strength and largeness.]
1. What

1. What is now called a bastion.—

But him the squire made quickly to retreat,
Encountering fierce with single sword in hand,
And 'twixt him and his lord did like a *bulwark*
stand. *Spenser.*

They oft repair
Their earthen *bulwarks* 'gainst the ocean flood.
Fairfax.

We have *bulwarks* round us;
Within our walls are troops enur'd to toil.
Addison.

2. A fortification.—Taking away needles *bulwarks*;
cruisers were demolished upon the sea coasts. *Hayward.*—Our naval strength is a *bulwark* to the
nation. *Addison.* 3. A security; a screen; a shelter.—Some making the wars their *bulwark*, that
have before gored the gentle bosom of peace with
pillage and robbery. *Shakspeare.*

4. *BULWARK*, in the ancient fortification. See
RAMPART.

* To *BULWARK*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To
fortify; to strengthen with bulwarks.—

And yet no *bulwark'd* town, or distant coast;
Preserves the beauteous youth from being seen.
Addison.

BULWICK, a village in Northamptonshire, 3
miles N. W. of Oundle.

* *BUM*. *n. s.* [*hömme*, Dutch.] The buttocks;
the part on which we sit.—

The wisest aunt telling the saddest tale,
Sometime for threefoot stool mistaketh me,
Then slip I from her *bum*, down topples she.
Shakspeare.

This said, he gently rais'd the knight,
And set him on his *bum* upright. *Hudibras:*

From dusty shops neglected authors come,
Martyrs of pies, and relicks of the *bum*. *Dryden.*

The learned Sydenham does not doubt,
But profound thought will bring the gout;
And that with *bum* on couch we lie,

Because our reason's soar'd too high. *W—n.*

BUMALDA, in botany, a genus of the digynia
order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants.
Of this genus we have found no particular descrip-
tion.

* *BUMBAILIFF*. *n. s.* [This is a corruption of
bund bailiff, pronounced by gradual corruption,
bun, *bun*, *bun* bailiff.] A bailiff of the meanest
kind; one that is employed in arrests.—Go, Sir
Andrew, scout me for him at the corner of the
orchard, like a *bumbailiff*. *Shakspeare.*

* *BUMBAR*. *n. s.* [wrong written for *BOM-
BARD*; which see.] A great gun; a black jack;
a leather pitcher.—

Yond same black cloud, yond huge one looks
Like a foul *bumbard*, that would shed his liquor.
Shakspeare.

* *BUMBAST*. *n. s.* [falsely written for *bombast*;
bombast and *bombasine* being mentioned, with great
probability, by *Junius*, as coming from *boom*, a
tree, and *sein*, silk; the silk or cotton of a tree.
Mr *Steevens*, with much more probability, de-
duces them all from *bombycinus*.] 1. A cloth made
by sewing one stuff upon another; patchwork.—
The usual *bombast* of black bits sewed into ermine,
our English women are made to think very fine.
Grew. 2. Linen stuffed with cotton; stuffing;
wadding.—

VOL. IV. PART II.

We have received your letters full of love,
And, in our maiden council, rated them
As courtship, pleasant jest, and courtesy,
As *humbug*, and as lining to the time. *Shakspeare.*
BUM-BOAT; in sea language, a small boat
used to sell vegetables, &c. to ships lying at a dis-
tance from the shore.

BUMBUNNY, in botany, a name given by the
people of Guinea to a plant common in that place,
which serves them as an emetic; they boil a few
of the leaves in water, and drink this liquor, which
works very easily. *Phil. Transf.* N° 232.

BUMBURY, a town in Cheshire, E. of Beeston
Castle.

BUMEY, a provincial governor in the kingdom
of Bassali. See *BARSALLI*.

BUMFORD, a village in the Peak of Derby.

BUMICILLI, a sect of Mahometans in Egypt
and Barbary, who pretend to fight with devils,
and commonly appear in a fright and covered with
wounds and bruises. About the full moon they
counterfeit a combat in the presence of all the
people, which lasts for 2 or 3 hours, and is per-
formed with assegais, or javelins, till they fall
down quite spent; in a little time, however, they
recover their spirits, get up, and walk away.

BUMKIN, or *BOOMKIN*; in sea language, is a
short boom or bar of timber, projecting from each
bow of a ship, to extend the lower edge of the
fore-sail to windward. It is secured by a strong
rope, which confines it to the ship's bow.

* *BUMP*. *n. s.* [perhaps from *bum*, as being pro-
minent.] A swelling; a protuberance.—It had u-
pon its brow a *bump* as big as a young cockrel's
stone; a perilous knock, and it cried bitterly.
Shakspeare.

Not though his teeth are beaten out, his eyes
Hang by a string, in *bumps* his forehead rise.
Dryden.

* To *BUMP*. *v. a.* [from *hombus*, Lat.] To make
a loud noise, or bomb. [See *BOMB*.] It is applied,
I think, only to the bittern.—

Then to the water's brink she laid her head;
And as the bittour *bumps* within a reed,
To thee alone, O lake, she said— *Dryden.*

* *BUMPER*. *n. s.* [from *bump*.] A cup filled till
the liquor swells over the brims.—

Places his delight

All day in playing *bumpers*, and at night
Reels to the bawds. *Dryden's Juvenal.*

* *BUMPKIN*. *n. s.* [This word is of uncertain
etymology; *Henshaw* derives it from *jumkin*, a
kind of worthless gourd, or melon. This seems
harsh; yet we use the word *cabbage-head* in the
same sense. *Bump* is used amongst us for a knob,
or lump; may not *bumpkin* be much the same
with *clodpate*, *loggerhead*, *block*, and *blockhead*.]
An awkward heavy rustick; a country lout.—
The poor *bumpkin*, that had never heard of such
delights before, blessed herself at the change of
her condition. *L'Estrange.*

A heavy *bumpkin*, taught with daily care,
Can never dance three steps with a becoming air.
Dryden.

In his white cloak the magistrate appears,
The country *bumpkin* the same liv'ry wears.

Dryden.
—It was a favour to admit them to breeding;
they

they might be ignorant *bumpkins* and clowns, if they pleased. *Locke*.

* **BUMPKINLY**. *adj.* [from *bumpkin*.] Having the appearance of a clown; clownish.—He is a simple, blundering, and yet conceited fellow, who, aiming at description, and the rustick wonderful, gives an air of *bumpkinly* romance to all he tells. *Clarissa*.

BUMSTEAD-HELION, a village in Essex, near Haveril.

(1.) **BUN**, the dry stalk of hemp, stripped of its rind.

(2.) **BUN**, in pastry, a cake baked with currants, raisins, &c.

BUNAW, a village in Argyllshire, in the parish of Muckairn, where the Lorn Furnace Company have their manufactory.

BUNBROOK, a river in Derbyshire.

* **BUNCH**. *n. s.* [*bunker*, Danish, the crags of the mountains.] 1. A hard lump; a knob.—They will carry their treasures upon the *bunches* of camels, to a people that shall not profit them. *Isa.* xxx. 6.—He felt the ground, which he had wont to find even and soft, to be grown hard with little round balls or *bunches*, like hard boiled eggs. *Boyle*. 2. A cluster; many of the same kind growing together.—

Vines, with clust'ring *bunches* growing. *Shak.*
—Titain said, that he knew no better rule for the distribution of the lights and shadows, than his observation drawn from a *bunch* of grapes. *Dryd.*—

For thee, large *bunches* load the bending vine,
And the last blessings of the year are thine. *Dryd.*
3. A number of things tied together.—

And on his arms a *bunch* of keys he bore.

Fairy Queen.

—All? I know not what you call all; but if I fought not with fifty of them, I am a *bunch* of raddish. *Shakespeare*.—

Ancient Janus, with his double face,

And *bunch* of keys, the porter of the place. *Dryd.*
—The mother's *bunch* of keys, or any thing they cannot hurt themselves with, serves to divert the little children. *Locke*. 4. Any thing bound into a knot: as, a *bunch* of ribbon; a tuft.—

Upon the top of all his lofty crest,

A *bunch* of hairs discover'd diversly,

With sprinkled pearl and gold full richly drest. *Spenser*.

* **To BUNCH**. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To swell out in a bunch; to grow out in protuberances.—It has the resemblance of a champignon before it is opened, *bunching* out into a large round knob at one end. *Woodward*.

* **BUNCHBACKED**. *adj.* [from *bunch* and *back*.] Having bunches on the back; crookbacked.—

The day shall come, that thou shalt wish for me,

To help thee curse this pois'nous *bunchback'd* toad. *Shakespeare*.

* **BUNCHINESS**. *n. s.* [from *bunchy*.] The quality of being bunchy, or growing in bunches.

* **BUNCHY**. *adj.* [from *bunch*.] Growing in bunches; having tufts.—He is more especially distinguished from other birds, by his *bunchy* tail, and the shortness of his legs. *Grew*.

BUNCLOADY, a town in Wexford, Ireland.

BUNCOMB, a county of the United States, in

North Carolina, situated in Morgan district. It is the largest and most westerly county in that state; and is bounded on the E. by those of Rutherford and Burke; on the S. by South Carolina, and on the N. and W. by the new State of Tennessee. This county having been formed from those of Burke and Rutherford, since the general Census was taken, its present population is not known. It is hilly, the Blue Mountains passing through it to S. Carolina. Its principal rivers are the Catabaw, Pacolet, and Broad River.

BUNCRANA, a town in Donegal, Ireland.

BUNDELA, or } a territory of Indostan Pro-

BUNDELCUND, } per, S. W. of the river Jumna, and separated from it, by a narrow tract of low country. It is a mountainous district of more than 100 miles square, and contains the celebrated diamonds of Purna. It was formerly subject to the Raja Hindooput, but is now divided among his sons and grandsons. It is inhabited by a tribe of Raipoos, and surrounded by Oude, Benares and the Mahrattas. Chatterpour is the capital.

(1.) * **BUNDLE**. *n. s.* [*bindle*, Sax. from *bind*.] 1. A number of things bound together.—As to the *bundles* of petitions in parliament, they were, for the most part, petitions of private persons. *Hale*.—

Try, lads, can you this *bundle* break;—

Then bids the youngest of the six

Take up a well-bound heap of sticks. *Swift*.

2. A roll; any thing rolled up.—She carried a great *bundle* of Flanders lace under her arm; but finding herself overladen, she dropped the good man, and brought away the *bundle*. *Spektator*.

(2.) **BUNDLE**, in commerce. Of baste-ropes, harness-plates, and glovers knives, ten make a bundle; of Hamburg yarn, 20 skeans; of basket rods, 3 feet the band.

* **To BUNDLE**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To tie in a bundle; to tie together: with *up*.—We ought to put things together, as well as we can, *doctrinae causa*; but, after all, several things will not be *bundled up* together, under our terms and ways of speaking. *Locke*.—

See how the double nation lies,

Like a rich coat with skirts of frize;

As if a man, in making posies,

Should *bundle* thistles *up* with roses. *Swift*.

BUNDLEY, a village in Devonshire, 4 miles E. of Hatherly.

BUNEL, Peter, a native of Toulouse, was one of the most elegant Latin writers in the 16th century, but was still more conspicuous for the regularity of his manners. He did not seek for riches; but, contented with the bare necessities of life, applied himself wholly to the improvement of his mind. He died at Turin in 1547, aged 47; and has left behind him some Latin epistles, which are written with the utmost purity. The magistrates of Toulouse have a bust of him in marble, placed in their town-house. The most correct edition of his Letters is that of Henry Stephens 1581.

* **BUNG**. *n. s.* [*bing*, Welch.] A stopple for a barrel.—After three nights are expired, the next morning pull out the *bung* stick, or plug. *Mortim.*

* **To BUNG**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To stop; to close up.

BUNGAY,

BUNGAY, a market town of Suffolk, situated on the river Wavenny, about 32 miles N. E. of Bury. In 1689 it was almost destroyed by fire. It has a considerable trade, and the women are much employed in knitting stockings. It is 36 m. N. by E. of Ipswich, and 107 N. E. of London. Lon. 1. 30. E. Lat. 52. 35. N.

* **BUNGHOLE**. *n. f.* [from *bung* and *hole*.] The hole at which the barrel is filled, and which is afterwards stopped up.—Why may not imagination trace the noblest dust of Alexander, till he find it stopping a *bung-hole*? *Shakespeare*.

* **BUNGLE**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A botch; an awkwardness; an inaccuracy; a clumsy performance.—Errors and *bungles* are committed, when the matter is in-apt or contumacious. *Ray on the Creation*.

(1.) * **To BUNGLE**. *v. n.* To botch; to manage clumsily; to conduct awkwardly: with *up*.—

Other devils, that suggest by treasons,
Do botch and *bungle up* damnation,
With patches, colours, and with forms being fetcht

From glist'ring semblances of piety. *Shakespeare*.

They make lame mischief, though they mean it well:

Their int'rest is not finely drawn, and hid,
But seems are coarsely *bungled up* and seen. *Dryden*.

(2.) * **To BUNGLE**. *v. n.* [See **BUNGLER**.] To perform clumsily.—

When men want light,

They make but *bungling* work. *Dryden*.

—Letters to me are not seldom opened, and then sealed in a *bungling* manner before they come to my hands. *Swift*.

* **BUNGLER**. *n. f.* [*baungler*, Welch; *q. bîn y glîr*, i.e. the last or lowest of the profession. *Davies*.] A bad workman; a clumsy performer; a man without skill.—Painters, at the first, were such *bunglers*, and so rude, that, when they drew a cow or a hog, they were fain to write over the head what it was; otherwise the beholder knew not what to make of it. *Peacham on Drawing*.—

Hard features every *bungler* can command;
To draw true beauty shews a master's hand.

Dryden.

A *bungler* thus, who scarce the nail can hit,
With driving wrong will make the pannel split.

Swift.

* **BUNGLINGLY**. *adv.* [from *bungling*.] Clumsily; awkwardly.—To denominate them monsters, they must have had some system of parts, compounded of solids and fluids, that executed, though but *bunglingly*, their peculiar functions. *Bentley*.

BUNGO. See **BONGO**, N° 2.

BUNHILL, a village in Worcestershire.

BUNIAS, in botany, a genus of the order Siliquosa, belonging to the tetradynamia class of plants; and ranking under the 39th natural order, *Siliquosæ*. The siliqua is deciduous, four-sided, mucicated, or shagreened with unequal pointed angles. There are 8 species; all annual plants, but none of them possessed of any remarkable property.

BUNIVA, a mountain of Greece, between Thesaly and Achaia.

BUNIAM, **PIC-NUT**, or **EARTH-NUT**, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants; and in the natural

method ranking under the 45th order, *Umbellatæ*. The corolla is uniform, the umbel thick, and the fruit ovate. There is but one known species, viz.

BUNIAM BULBOCASTANUM, with a globular root. It grows naturally in moist pastures in many parts of Britain, and has a tuberous solid root, which lies dead on the ground. The leaves are finely cut, and lie near the ground. The stalk rises a foot and a half high; is round, channelled, and solid; the lower part being naked; but above, where it branches out, there is one leaf placed below every branch. The flowers are white, and shaped like those of other umbelliferous plants; the seeds are small, oblong and when ripe are channelled. The roots of this sort are frequently dug up, and by some people eaten raw. They have much resemblance in taste to a chestnut, whence the specific name.

BUNK, or } a word frequently occurring in
BUNKEN, } the writings of the Arabian physicians. We do not at this time certainly know what it was; but it was evidently an aromatic root used in cardiac, stomachic, and carminative composition. See **LEUCACANTHA**.

BUNKER'S HILL, a high ground in the State of Massachusetts, which over-looks the whole city of Boston; rendered memorable by the redoubt erected upon it by the Americans, and consequent action fought, in the beginning of the American war. See **AMERICA**, § 14.

BUNKON. See **ACANTHE**, No. 2. and **ANGAILAM**.

* **BUNN**. *n. f.* [*bunelo*, Span.] A kind of sweet bread.—

Thy songs are sweeter to mine ear,
Than to the thirsty cattle rivers clear;
Or winter porridge to the lab'ring youth,
Or *bunns* and sugar to the damsel's tooth.

Gay's Pastorals.

BUNNIDANE, a town of Ireland, in Sligo.

BUNSINGLASS, a village in Mayo county.

(1.) * **BUNT**. *n. f.* [corrupted, as *Skinner* thinks, from *bent*.] A swelling part; an increasing cavity.—The wear is a frith, reaching slopewise through the ooze, from the land to low water mark, and having in it a *bunt* or cod, with an eye-hook, where the fish entering, upon the coming back with the ebb, are stopped from issuing out again, forsaken by the water, and left dry on the ooze. *Carew*.

(2.) **BUNT LINES**, are small lines made fast to the bottom of the sails, in the middle part of the bolt rope, to a cringle, and are so reeved through a small block, seized to the yard. Their use is to trice up the bunt of the sail for the better furling it up.

(3.) **BUNT OF A SAIL**, the middle part of it, formed designedly into a bag or cavity, that the sail may gather more wind. It is used mostly in top-sails, because courfers are generally cut square, or with but small allowance for bunt or compass. The bunt holds much to leeward wind; that is, it hangs much to leeward.

* **To BUNT**. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To swell out, as the sail *bunts* out.

* **BUNTER**. *n. f.* A cant word for a woman who picks up rags about the street; and used by way of contempt, for any low vulgar woman.

BUNTINE, a thin woollen stuff, of which the colours and signals of a ship are usually made.

(1.) * **BUNTING**. *n. f.* [*emberiza alba*.] The name of a bird.—I took this lark for a *bunting*. *Shakespeare*.

(2.) **BUNTING**, in ornithology. See **EMBERIZA**.

(3.) * **BUNTING**. *n. f.* The stuff of which a ship's colours are made.

BUNTINGFORD, a town of Hertfordshire, seated on the river Rib, on the road to Cambridge. It has a market on Monday, and two fairs on June 29, and Nov. 30th. Lon. $0. 6. W.$ Lat. $51. 55. N.$

BUNTINGSDALE, a village in Shropshire, near Drayton.

BUNTZEL, a town of Silesia, in the duchy of Jauer. The greatest part of the houses are built with stone, and there were formerly rich mines in the neighbourhood. It is in the road to Leipzig; and its chief trade is earthen ware. Lon. $15. 50. E.$ Lat. $51. 15. N.$

BUNTZLAU. See **BOLSLAF**.

BUNTZLAW, a town of Bohemia, on the Elbe.

BUNWELL, a village in Norfolk, 4 m. from Wymundham.

BUNYAN, John, author of the *Pilgrim's Progress*, was born at Elstow, near Bedford, in 1628. He was the son of a tinker; and, in the early part of his life, was a soldier in the parliament army, and a great reprobate; but being at length deeply struck with a sense of his guilt, he laid aside his profligate courses, became remarkable for his sobriety, and applied himself to obtain some degree of learning. About 1655, he was admitted a member of a Baptist congregation at Bedford, and was soon after chosen their preacher: but, in 1660, being taken up, and tried for presuming to preach, he was cruelly sentenced to perpetual banishment; and in the mean time committed to jail, where necessity obliged him to learn to make long-tagged thread-laces for his support: to add to his distress, he had a wife and several children, among whom was a daughter who was blind. In this unjust and cruel confinement, he was detained 12½ years, and during that time wrote many of his tracts; but he was at length discharged, by the humane interposition of Dr Barlow. When king James's declaration for liberty of conscience was published, he was chosen pastor of a congregation at Bedford. He at length died of the fever at London, on the 31st of Aug. 1688, aged 60. He wrote an allegory, called *The Holy War*, and several other religious pieces. His *Pilgrim's Progress* (which may be justly styled an *original work*) has been translated into most European languages; and his works have been collected together, and printed in two volumes folio.

BUONACCORDO, a small stringed musical instrument, resembling a spinnet, used by children to learn to play on, because of the shortness of their fingers.

BUONOCARSI. See **PIERINO DEL VAGA**.

(1.) * **BUOY**. *n. f.* [*buie*, or *boye*, Fr. *boya*, Span.] A piece of cork or wood floating on the water, tied to a weight at the bottom.—

The fishermen that walk upon the beach,
Appear like mice; and yond tall anchoring bark
Diminish'd to her cock; her cock a *buoy*,
Too small for sight. *Shakesp. King Lear*.

Like *buoys*, that never sink into the flood,
On learning's surface we but lie and nod.

Pope's Dunciad.

(II.) **BUOY**, in sea affairs, a sort of close cask, or block of wood, fastened by a rope to the anchor, to determine the place where the anchor is situated, that the ship may not come too near it, to entangle her cable about the stock or the flukes of it. Buoys are of various kinds; as,

1. **BUOYS, CABLE**, are common casks employed to buoy up the cables in different places from rocky ground. In the harbour of Alexandria in Egypt, every ship is moored with at least three cables, and has three or four of these buoys on each cable for this purpose.

2. **BUOYS, CAN, or CONE BUOYS**, these are in the form of a cone; and of this construction are all the buoys which are floated over dangerous banks and shallows, as a warning to passing ships, that they may avoid them. They are extremely large, that they may be seen at a distance; and are fastened by long chains to the anchors which are sunk for that purpose at such places. See Plate XLIV. fig. 5.

3. **BUOYS, NUN**, are shaped like the middle frustum of two cones, abutting upon one common base, being casks, which are large in the middle, and tapering nearly to a point at each end. Plate XLIV. fig. 6.

4. **BUOYS, WOODEN**, are solid pieces of timber, sometimes in the shape of a cylinder, and sometimes in that of a nun-buoy; they are furnished with one or two holes, in which to fix a short piece of rope, whose two ends being spliced together, make a sort of circle or ring called the *strop*.

(III.) **BUOY OF THE NORE**, is a buoy placed at the mouth of the river Thames, to direct navigators how to avoid a dangerous sand.

(1.) * **To BUOY**. *v. a.* [from the noun. The *u* is mute, in both.] To keep afloat; to bear up.—All art is used to sink episcopacy, and launch presbytery into England; which was lately *buoyed* up in Scotland, by the like artifice of a covenant. *K. Cha.*—The water which rises out of the abyss, for the supply of springs and rivers, would not have stopped at the surface of the earth, but marched directly up into the atmosphere, wherever there was heat enough in the air to continue its ascent, and *buoy* it up. *Woodward's Natural History*.

(2.) * **To BUOY**. *v. n.* To float; to rise by specifick lightness.—Rising merit will *buoy* up a lat. *Pope's Essay on Crit.*

* **BUOYANCY**. *n. f.* [from *buoyant*.] The quality of floating.—All the winged tribes owe their flight and *buoyancy* to it. *Derham's Physico-Theology*.

* **BUOYANT**, *adj.* [from *buoy*.] Floating, light; that which will not sink. *Dryden* uses the word, perhaps improperly, for something that has density enough to hinder a floating body from sinking.—I swam with the tide, and the water under me was *buoyant*. *Dryden*.—

His once so vivid nerves,

So full of *buoyant* spirit, now no more
Inspire the course. *Thomson's Autumn*.

BUOY-ROPE, the rope, which fastens the buoy to the anchor: it should be little more than equal in length to the depth of the water where the an-

chor lies, as it is intended to float near, or immediately above, the bed of it, that the pilot may at all times know the situation thereof. See Plate XLVI. fig. 10. where *b* represents the anchor, *c* the buoy-rope, and *d* the buoy floating on the surface of the water. The buoy-rope is often extremely useful otherwise, in drawing up the anchor when the cable is broke. It should always, therefore, be of sufficient strength for this purpose, or else the anchor may be lost through negligence.

BUOY, SLINGS OF THE, the ropes which are fastened about it, and by which it is hung: they are curiously spliced around it, something resembling the braces of a drum.

BUOY, TO STREAM THE, is to let it fall from the ship's side into the water; which is always done before they let go the anchor, that it may not be retarded by the buoy-rope as it sinks to the bottom.

BUPALUS, a celebrated sculptor, and native of the island of Chios, was the son, grandson, and great-grandson of sculptors. He had a brother, named *Athenis*, of the same profession. They flourished about the 60th Olympiad: and were cotemporary with Hipponax, a poet of an ugly and despicable figure. Our sculptors diverted themselves in representing him under a ridiculous form. But Hipponax wrote so sharp a satire against them, that they hanged themselves. Pliny, however, does not allow this, but says, that, after Hipponax had taken his revenge, they made several fine statues; particularly a Diana at Chios, which was placed very high, and appeared with a frowning countenance to those that came in, and with a pleasant one to those that went out. There were several statues at Rome made by them; and they worked only in the white marble of the isle of Paros. Pausanias mentions Bupalus as a good architect as well as sculptor; but says nothing of Athenis.

BUPHAGA, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of picæ. The beak is straight and quadrangular; the mandibles are gibbous, entire, and the gibbosity is greater on the outside. The feet are of the ambulatory kind. The body is greyish above, and of a dirty yellow below; the tail is shaped like a wedge. See Plate XLI. fig. 2. There is but one species, viz.

BUPHAGA AFRICANA, the *African Beef-Eater*, native of Senegal. It frequently perches upon oxen, and picks out the worms from their backs.

BUPHONIA, [from *βου*: ox, and *φονη*: slaughter,] in antiquity, an Athenian feast, denominated from a bullock slain therein, with quaint formalities. For the origin of the buphonia, we are told it was forbidden by the laws of Attica to kill an ox: but it once happened, at the feast of the *dipolia*, that an ox eat the corn, others say the cakes, which had been dressed for the sacrifice. Thaulon the priest, enraged at this, presently killed him, and died for it. On which the Athenians, fearing the resentment of the gods, and feigning themselves ignorant who had committed the fact, brought the bloody axe before the judges, where it was solemnly arraigned, tried, found guilty, and condemned! In memory of the event, this feast was instituted, in which it was still customary for the

priest to fly, and judgment to be given about the slaughter of the ox.

BUPHTHALMUM, ox-EYE: A genus of the polygamia superflua order, belonging to the syn-genesia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, Compositæ. The receptacle is paleaceous: the pappus an indifferent rim; the seeds, especially those of the radius, emarginated on the sides; the stigmata of the hermaphrodite florets undivided. There are ten species; all of which may be propagated by seeds; and those which do not, by parting their roots, or cutting off their branches. Some of the species are tender, and require to be raised on a hot-bed. The following are the most remarkable.

1. **BUPHTHALMUM ARBORESCENS**, rises with several woody stems to the height of 8 or 10 feet, garnished with leaves very unequal in size; some are narrow and long, others are broad and obtuse; these are intermixed at the same joint, and often at the intermediate one; they are green, and placed opposite. The flowers are produced at the ends of the branches; they are of a pale yellow colour, and have scaly empalements.

2. **BUPHTHALMUM HELIANTHOIDES**, a native of North America. It has a perennial root, and an annual stalk, which rises 6 or 8 feet high, garnished at each joint with two oblong heart-shaped leaves, which have three longitudinal veins, and the base on one side shorter than the other. The flowers come out at the extremities of the branches, and are of a bright yellow colour, resembling a small sun flower.

BUPHTHALMUS, in botany, a name given by some of the ancients to the great house-leek, or **SEDUM MAJUS**, from the manner of its growing in clusters resembling the eyes of large animals.

BUPLEURUM, HARE'S EAR, or *Thorough-wax*; A genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 45th order, Umbellatæ. The involucre of the partial umbels are large in proportion, and pentaphyllous; the petals involuted or rolled inwards; the fruit roundish, compressed, and striated. The principal species is the

BUPLEURUM FRUTICOSUM, or shrubby Ethiopian hartwort. It rises with a shrubby stem, dividing into numerous branches, forming a bushy head 5 or 6 feet high, adorned with oblong, oval, entire leaves of a pale green colour, placed alternate, with yellow flowers in umbels at the ends of the branches, which appear in July and August, and are sometimes succeeded by ripe seeds. It may be propagated by cuttings.

BUPRESTIS, in entomology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of coleoptera. The antennæ are setaceous, and as long as the thorax: The head is half drawn back within the thorax; to which may be added, that the antennæ are serrated: The mouth is armed with jaws, and furnished with palpi: The elytra are margined, and cover the abdomen; and the tarsi have 5 articulations: The feet are saltatorii. There are 27 species of this insect, most of them natives of the Indies. The French have given the name of *Richard* to this genus, on account of the beautiful

ful rich colours with which most of the insects belonging to it are adorned. Insects of this genus are not common in England. They are of the richest splendor; and some appear, when alive, to be adorned with the refulgent particles of emeralds, rubies, diamonds, and gold. Applied to the microscope, the splendor is so great as to dazzle the eye. One of the most oblong species, is,

BUPRESTIS GUTTATA. The whole body is green and gold; with a bluish cast underneath; but what distinguishes it, are 4 white depressed spots upon the elytra, two upon each. One of these dots is on the outward rim of the elytrum, about the middle of it, near the abdomen, and is the larger one. The other is on the inner edge, close to the suture, about $\frac{1}{4}$ of that suture downwards, and exactly opposite its fellow on the other elytrum. This latter one is the smaller. The whole upper part of the insect, viewed through a glass, appears finely dotted. This species has been found in timber-yards. See Plate XLII. fig. 9.

BUPTON, a town, 5 m. N. of Calne, Wilts.

BUQUOI, a town of France, in the department of the Straits of Calais, and ci-devant province of Artois; 9 m. W. of Bapaume. Lon. 2. 40. E. Lat. 50. 12. N.

(1.) * **BUR**, **BOUR**, **BOR**, come from the Sax. *bur*, an inner-chamber, or place of shade and retirement. *Gibson's Camden*.

(2.) * **BUR**. *n. f.* [*lappa*; *bourre*, Fr. is down; the *bur* being filled with a soft *tomentum*, or down.] A rough head of a plant, called a *burdock*, which sticks to the hair or clothes.—

Nothing teems

But hateful docks, rough thistles, keckflies, *burs*,
Losing both beauty and utility. *Shakef. Hen. V.*

Hang off, thou cat, thou *bur*; vile thing, let
loose;

Or I will shake thee from me like a serpent.

Shakespeare.

—Dependents and suitors are always the *burs*,
and sometimes the briars of favourites. *Wotton*.—

Whither betake her

From the chill dew, amongst rude *burs* and
thistles. *Milton.*

And where the vales with violets once were
crown'd,

Now knotty *burs* and thorns disgrace the ground.

Dryden.

—A fellow stuck like a *bur*, there was no shaking
him off. *Arbutnot's History of John Bull.*

(3.) **BUR**, in chivalry, a broad ring of iron, behind the place made for the hand on the spears used formerly in tilting; which *bur* was brought to rest when the tilter charged his spear.

BURACO DE VELTA, in ichthyology, a fish caught on the shore of Brasil; better known by its Brazilian name, **GUAIBI-COARA**.

BURAGRAG, a river of Barbary, in the kingdom of Fez, which rises in the confines of Chaus; runs along the borders of Fez and Temesna, and falls into the Atlantic at Sallee.

BURBACH, a town near Hinkley, Leicester.

BURBARUS, in ichthyology, a name given by Paul Jovius, and others to the carp. See **CYP-RINUS**.

BURBUS, in commerce, a small coin at Al-

glers, with the arms of the dey struck on both sides. It is worth half an asper.

(1.) **BURBECK**, a river in Westmoreland, which runs into the Lune.

(2.) **BURBECK**, a village, near **APPLEBY**, N. 1.

BURBER, an Egyptian piece of copper money; thick and as broad as a sixpence; 12 of them make a **MEDINE**.

BURBICH, a town W. of Great Bedwin, Wilts.

(1.) * **BURBOT**, *n. f.* A fish full of prickles. *Dif.*

(2.) **BURBOT** is the English name of the **MUSTELA FUVIATILIS**; a fish common in the Trent, and other rivers in England. It is also called the eel-pout, and is the **GADUS LOTA** of Linnæus.

BURBROOK, a village in Essex, between Ashden and Steeple-Bumsted.

BURCA, among the Turks, the name of the rich covering of the door of the house at Mecca; it is 10 feet long, and 5 wide; and there are several figures and Arabic letters on it, very rich embroidered in gold, on a ground of red and green. It is carried about in their solemn processions and is often stopt, that the people may touch it.

BURCESTER. See **BICESTER**.

BURCHALK, a village in Wiltshire.

BURCHAM MAGNA, } three large villages in
BURCHAM-NEWTON, } Norfolk, 4 m. N. E.
BURCHAM-TOFTS; } of Castle-Rising.

BURCHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in the Lower Bavaria, situated on the river Saltz. Lon. 13. 25. E. Lat. 48. 5. N.

BURCHILLS, a village in Staffordshire, 1 mile N. W. of Walsal.

BURCHOPE, between Hereford and Leominster.

(1.) **BURCOMB**, a town in Dorsetshire.

(2.) **BURCOMB LODGE**, N. E. of Brutton.

(3.) **BURCOMB, NORTH**, } two villages, near

(4.) **BURCOMB, SOUTH**, } Salisbury, Wilts.

BURCOT, 4 villages: viz. 1. in Northamptonsh. near Towcester: 2. in Oxfordsh. near Darchester: 3. in Shropsh. N. W. of Great Walslock: and, 4. in Somersetsh. S. E. of Winton.

BURDA, in authors of the middle age, denotes a garment made of rushes.

BURDACK, an Egyptian vessel, which sheep usually drink out of, at Cairo. They are made of a peculiar sort of earth, which is supposed to cool the water, and are always set out to the north, to keep the cooler, and covered with a strainer, to prevent any thing falling into the water; they are of so porous a structure, that the water put into them will get through them in a few days.

BURDEGALA, or **BURDIGALA**, in ancient geography, a trading port town of Aquitania, situated on a lake of the sea, formed by the mouth of the Garumna. It was a famous seat of the Muses, (as appears by Ausonius's book, entitled *Professores*,) and the birth place of Ausonius. It is now called **BOURDEAUX**.

* **BURDELAIS**. *n. f.* A sort of grape.

(1.) * **BURDEN**. *n. f.* [*birthen*, Sax. and therefore properly written *burthen*. It is supposed to come from *burdo*, Lat. a mule.] 1. A load; something to be carried.—

Camels have their provender

Only for bearing *burdens*, and sore blows

For sinking under them. *Shakef. Coriolanus.*

—It is of use in lading ships, and may help to shew what *burden* in the several kinds they will bear. *Bacon's Phys. Rem.* 2. Something grievous or wearisome.—

Couldst thou support

That *burden*, heavier than the earth to bear?

Milton's Paradise Lost.

—None of the things that are to learn, should ever be made a *burden* to them, or imposed on them as a task. *Locke.*—

Deaf, giddy, helpless, left alone,

To all my friends a *burden* grown.

Swift.

3. A birth: now obsolete.—

Thou hadst a wife once, called *Æmilia*,

That bore thee at a *burden* two fair sons. *Shakesp.*

4. The verse repeated in a song; the bob; the chorus.—

At ev'ry close she made, th' attending throng

Reply'd, and bore the *burden* of the song.

Dryden's Fables.

5. The quantity that a ship will carry; or the capacity of a ship: as, a ship of a hundred tons *burden*.

(1.) **BURDEN** also denotes a fixed quantity of certain commodities. A *burden* of gad-steel is two score, or 120 pounds.

(3.) **BURDEN**, or **BURDON**, [*Bourdon*, Fr.] in music, the drone or bass, and the pipe or string which plays it: hence the *burden of a song*. (See § 1. def. 4.)

A chord which is to be divided, to perform the intervals of music, when open and undivided, is also called the *burden*.

(4.) **BURDEN OF A SHIP**, (§ 1. def. 5.) is its contents, or the number of tons it will carry. It may be determined thus: Multiply the length of the keel, taken within board, by the breadth of the ship, within board, taken from the midship-keel, from plank to plank; and multiply the product by the depth of the hold, taken from the plank below the keelson, to the under part of the upper deck plank; and divide the last product by 4: the quotient is the content of the tonnage required. See **FREIGHT**.

(5.) **BURDEN**, SHIPS OF, denote those of a larger and heavier sort, carrying 500 tons, or upwards.

(6.) **BURDENS**, THE BEARING OF, is recommended by Ringelberg as the best sort of exercise; especially to strengthen men of study. For this end, he had a gown lined with plates of lead, which he could just lift with both his hands. This load he bore 6 or 7 days together, either increasing or diminishing it as he found occasion; by which means he could both write and exercise at the same time.

* **TO BURDEN**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To load; to incumber.—*Burden* not thyself above thy power. *Ecclef. xiii. 2.*—I mean not that other men be used, and you *burdened*. *Corinthians, viii. 13.*—

What meats and drinks they had suffic'd,

Not *burden'd* nature.

Milton.

* **BURDENER**. *n. s.* [from *burden*.] A loader; an oppressor.

* **BURDENOUS**. *adj.* [from *burden*.] 1. Grievous; oppressive; wearisome.—Make no jest of that which hath so earnestly pierced me through, or let that be light to thee, which to me is so *burdenous*. *Sidney.* 2. Useless; cumbersome.—

To what can I be useful, wherein serve,

But to sit idle on the household hearth,

A *burd'nous* drone; to visitants a gaze.

Milton's Agonistes.

* **BURDENSOME**. *adj.* [from *burden*.] Grievous; troublesome to be born.—

His leisure told him, that his time was come,

And lack of load made his life *burdensome*. *Milt.*

Could I but live till *burdensome* they prove,

My life would be immortal as my love.

Dryden's Ind. Emp.

—Assistances always attending us, upon the easy condition of our prayers, and by which the most *burdensome* duty will become light and easy. *Rogers.*

* **BURDENSOMENESS**. *n. s.* [from *burdensome*.] Weight; heaviness; uneasiness to be born.

BURDFORTH, a town, S. of Thrift, Yorksh.

BURDHAM, 4 m. from Chichester, Sussex. 4

BURDIGALA. See **BURDEGALA**.

BURDINGBURY, N. of Itchington, Warwick.

(1.) **BURDO**, in physiology, a mongrel beast of burden, produced by a horse and she-ass, by which it is distinguished from the **MULE**, which is that produced of a male ass by a mare.

(2.) **BURDO**, or **BURDON**, in writers of the middle age, denotes a pilgrim's long staff, as doing the office on that occasion of a **MULE**.

(1.) * **BURDOCK**. *n. s.* [*persolata*.] A pear.

(2.) **BURDOCK**. See **ARCTIUM** and **XANTHIUM**.

(1, 2.) **BURDON**, 2 towns in Durham, N. of Seton.

(3.) **BURDON**, GREAT, } two villages between

(4.) **BURDON**, LITTLE, } Darlington and Stockton.

(5.) **BURDON**, OLD, near Lumley C. Durham.

(6.) **BURDON**. See **BURDEN**, § 3. and **BURDO**, § 2.

BURDONARII, an appellation given to pilgrims, who travelled out of devotion to the Holy Land.

BURDOP-CRAIG, a village in Northumberland; N. W. of Ellesdon.

BURDROP, two villages; 1. in Oxfordsh. 3 m. S. W. of Banbury: 2. in Wilts, near Swindon.

BURDSWOLD, in Cumberland, E. of Askeaton Castle.

BURDSYARDS, a district in Banffshire, on which there are very extensive plantations of firs. The mansion house commands such a fine view of Forres, Findholm, the Moray Firth, &c. that it is reckoned "one of the best situations, which any country can afford." *Stat. Acc. Vol. XVII. p. 455.*

BURDUNCULUS, in botany, a name given by some to the plant known amongst botanical writers by the name of *buglossum echinoides capitulis cardui benedicti*.

* **BUREAU**. *n. s.* [*bureau*, Fr.] A chest of drawers with a writing board. It is pronounced as if it were spelt *buro*.—

For not the desk with silver nails,

Nor *bureau* of expence,

Nor standish well japan'd, avails

To writing of good sense.

Swift.

BURELL, or } a town of Naples, in Abruzzo,

BURELLA, } near the river Sangro. Lon.

14. 48. E. Lat. 41. 58. N.

(1.) **BUREN**, a town of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, and bishopric of Paderborn; seated on the river Alme, 10 m. S. of Paderborn. Lon. 8. 53. E. Lat. 53. 16. N.

(2.)

(2.) BUREN, a town in Guelderland. Lon. 5. 22. E. Lat. 51. 0. N.

BURESS, a town near Neyland, Suffolk.

BUREZLAND, a town of Transylvania.

BURFIELD, in Berks. S. W. of Reading.

(1.) BURFORD, a town of Oxfordshire, seated on an ascent on the river Windruth, chiefly noted for making saddles. The Downs near it, noted for horse races, are of great advantage to it. It is 23 m. W. N. W. of Banbury, and 71 W. of London. Lon. 1. 37. W. Lat. 51. 46. N.

(2, 3.) BURFORD, 2 villages; 1. in Shropsh. near Tenburg: and, 2. near Warwick.

(1.) BURG, a town of Lincolnshire, seated in a marsh 12 m. S. E. of Boston, and 127 N. of London. Lon. 0. 5. E. Lat. 53. 12. N.

(2.) BURG, a town of the Dutch Netherlands, in Zutphen, seated on the Old Iffel, 18 m. E. of Nimeguen. Lon. 6. 12. E. Lat. 52. 0. N.

(3.) BURG, BURGH, or DUN, in northern topography. See DUN.

(4.) BURG, a promontory, or head land, on the coast of Argyll-shire, several miles in circuit, and rising to a considerable height in a conic form. There are many broken Basaltic pillars in it.

(5.) * BURG. *n. f.* See BURROW.

(6.) BURG UPON SANDS, a town in Cumberland; by some supposed to be the ancient BARNBURGH.

(1.) * BURGAGE. *n. f.* [from *burg*, or *burrow*.] A tenure proper to cities and towns, whereby men of cities or burrows hold their lands or tenements of the king, or other lord, for a certain yearly rent. *Cowel*.—The gross of the borough is surveyed together in the beginning of the county; and there are some other particular *burgages* thereof, mentioned under the titles of particular mens possessions. *Hale's Origin of Mankind*.

(2.) BURGAGE, or TENURE IN BURGAGE, is only a kind of town socage; as common socage, by which other lands are holden, is usually of a rural nature. A borough is distinguished from other towns by the right of sending members to parliament; and where the right of election is by burgage tenure, that alone is a proof of the antiquity of the borough. Tenure in burgage, therefore, or burgage tenure, is where houses or lands which were formerly the site of houses in an ancient borough, are held of some lord in common socage, by a certain established rent. And they seem to have withstood the shock of the Norman encroachments, principally on account of their insignificance, which made it not worth while to compel them to an alteration of tenure, as 100 of them put together would scarce have amounted to a knight's fee. Besides, the owners of them, being chiefly artificers, and persons engaged in trade, could not with any tolerable propriety be put on such a military establishment as the tenure in chivalry was. The free socage, therefore, in which these tenements are held, seems to be plainly a remnant of Saxon liberty; which may also account for the great variety of customs affecting many of these tenements so held in ancient burgage; the principal and most remarkable of which is that called *Borough English*. See BOROUGH ENGLISH, § 1, 2.

* BURGAMOT. *n. f.* [*bergamotte*, Fr.] 1. A species of pear. 2. A kind of perfume.

* BURGANET. BURGONET. *n. f.* [from *burgino'e*, Fr.] A kind of helmet.—

Upon his head his glistering *burganet*,
The which was wrought by wondrous device,
And curiously engraven, he did fit.

Spenser's Muirpates.

This day I'll wear aloft my *burgonet*,
Ev'n to affright thee with the view thereof.

Shakespeare.

—I was page to a footman, carrying after him his pike and *burganet*. *Haleswill on Providence*.

BURGAT, two villages; 1. in Hampshire, near Fordingbridge: 2. in Suffolk, near Budefsdale.

BURGAT-DAMERAM, in Wilts, near Dorset.

BURGATE, S. of Godalmin, Surrey.

BURGAU, in natural history, the name of a large species of sea-snail, of the limar or round-mouthed kind. It is very beautifully lined with a coat, of the nature of mother-of-pearl; and the artificers take this out, to use under the name of mother-of-pearl, though some call it after the name of the shell they take it from, *burgau*.

BURGAUDINE, the name given by the artificers to what we call mother-of-pearl. In their works, they do not use the common shell for this, but the lining of the American *burgau*. Hence *burgaudine* and mother-of-pearl are used synonymously for both.

(1.) BURGAW, a margraviate of Saxia.

(2.) BURGAW, a town in the margraviate, N. 1.

BURGDORF, a pretty large town of Switzerland, in the canton of Bern, seated on an eminence; about a pistol shot from the river Emme; which, as it often changes its bed; frequently does much mischief. It runs at the foot of a rock of a prodigious height, and there is a stone bridge over it. Near the town there is a sulphureous spring which supplies their baths with water, reckoned good against palties and diseases of the veins. Lon. 7. 35. E. Lat. 47. 6. N.

* BURGEOIS. *n. f.* [*bourgeois*, Fr.] 1. A citizen; a burgeois.—It is a republick itself, under the protection of the 8 ancient cantons. There are in it 100 *bourgeois*, and about 1000 souls. *Madison on Italy*. 2. A type of a particular sort, probably called so from him who first used it; as,

Laugh where we must, be candid where we can,

But vindicate the ways of God to man. *Pope*.

BURGEON, [*bourgeon*, Fr. a bud,] in gardening, a knot or button put forth by the branch of a tree in spring; the same with EYE, BUD, & GERM.

(1.) * BURGESS. *n. f.* [*bourgeois*, Fr.] 1. A citizen; a freeman of a city or corporate town. 2. A representative of a town corporate.—The whole case was dispersed by the knights of shires, and *burgesses* of towns, through all the veins of the land. *Wotton*.

(2.) BURGESS likewise signifies one who possesses a tenement in a borough. The word is also applied to the magistrates of some towns; as the bailiff and burgesses of Leominster. Anciently burgesses were held in great contempt; being

puted servile, base, and unfit for war; so that the gentry were not allowed to intermarry in their families, or fight with them; but, in lieu thereof, were to appoint champions. A burges's son was reputed of age, when he could distinctly count money, measure cloth, &c.

(3.) **BURGESSES**, in the 2d sense above stated, (§ 1) are supposed to represent the mercantile part, or trading interest of the nation. They were formerly allowed, by a rate established in the reign of Edward III. 28. 2d day as wages. It is to be regretted, that the members for boroughs bear above a quadruple proportion to those for counties. The right of election of burgesses depends on several local charters and customs: though, by 2 Geo. II. c. 24. the right for the future shall be allowed according to the last determination of the house of commons concerning it: and by 3 Geo. II. c. 15. no freeman, except such as claim by birth, servitude, or marriage, shall be intitled to vote, unless he hath been admitted to his freedom 12 months before. No person is eligible as a burges, who hath not a clear estate of L. 300 a year.

BURG-GRAVE properly denotes the hereditary governor of a castle, or fortified town, chiefly in Germany. The word is compounded of *bourg*, town, and *graf*, or *grave*, count. The burg-graves were originally the same with what we otherwise call *castellans*, or *comites castellani*; but their dignity was considerably advanced under Rudolph of Hapsburgh; before his time they were ranked only as counts, and below the princes, but under him began to be esteemed on a footing with princes. In some parts, the dignity is much degenerated, especially in the palatinate. There were formerly, says Leti, 15 families who enjoyed the title of burg-graves, 13 of which are now extinct. But this is differently represented by others. In Bohemia the title of Burg-grave is given to the chief officer, or to him that commands in quality of viceroy. In Prussia, the burg-grave is one of the chief officers of the province. In Guelderland, the burg-grave of Nimeguen is president of the states of the province.

(1.) * **BURGH**. *n. s.* [See **BURROW**.] A corporate town or borow.—Many towns in Cornwall, when they were first allowed to send burgesses to parliament, bore another proportion to London than now; for several of these *burghs* send two burgesses, whereas London itself sends but four. *Grant*.

(2.) **BURGH**, or **BOROUGH**. See **BOROUGH**.

(3.) **BURGH**, or **DUN**. See **DUN**.

(4.) **BURGH**, James, an ingenious moral and political writer, born at Maderty, in Perthshire, in 1714. He studied at St Andrews, with the intention of becoming a clergyman; but bad health obliged him to turn to the linen trade; which not proving successful, he went to England and commenced corrector of the press, to an eminent printer, for whom he also made indexes. After this he removed to Great Marlow, as assistant at a school; where he first commenced author, in 1746, by writing a pamphlet, entitled *Britain's Remembrancer*; which went through 5 large editions in two years; was reprinted in England, Ireland, and America; was ascribed to several bishops, and

VOL. IV. PART II.

quoted by churchmen and dissenters from the pulpit. In 1747, he opened an academy at Stoke-Newington, in Middlesex; and his scholars increasing rapidly, he removed, in 1750, to a large house in Newington Green, where he taught for 19 years, with high reputation, and trained up many to knowledge and virtue. In 1751, he married Mrs Harding, a widow lady, who concurred with him in his laudable undertakings. After a very useful and laborious life, he retired from business, in 1771, and settled in Mington, with the view of finishing a work he had long collected materials for, entitled *Political Disquisitions* which came out in 1774 and 1775, in 3 vols, although he was then severely afflicted with the stone; of which he died, 26 Aug. 1775, aged 62. His other works were, 1. *Thoughts on Education*, 1747: 2. *An Hymn to the Creator*; with an Idea of the Creator from his works, in prose; 1750: 3. *A Warning to Dram-Drinkers*, 1751: 4. *The Dignity of Human Nature*, 1754. 4to, and 1767, 2 vols 8vo. 5. *Youth's Friendly Monitor*; 1756, 12mo. 6. *Political Speculations*, 1758: 7. *The Rationale of Christianity*, 1760: 8. *An Account of the Laws, Government, &c. of the Cessares, &c.* a political romance, 8vo. 1760: 9. *The Art of Speaking*, 1762: (5th edit. in 1782:) 10. *Crito, or Essays on Various Subjects*;—with a humorous dedication, "To the Rt. Rev. Father (of three years old) His R. H. Frederick, bishop of Osnaburgh:" 11. *Proposals for an Association against Engrossers, Foretellers, &c.* 1776: 12. *Crito*, vol. 2. (replete with political satire,) with a long dedication, "To the good people of Britain of the 20th century." Besides these, he published several periodical pieces in the Newspapers: particularly, 1. *The Free Enquirer*; in the Gen. Even. Post, 1753-4: 2. *The Constitutionalist*, in 1770: intended to recommend Annual Parliaments, Adequate Representation, and a Place-bill: and, 3. *The Colonist's Advocate*, in favour of the Americans; about 1791. Both these last were in a series of letters in the Gazetteer.

(5.) **BURGH**, in geography, a town of Lincolnshire, between Saltfleet and Wainfleet; 12 miles N. N. E. of Boston; and 133 N. of London. It has a market on Thurs. and fairs, May 12. Aug. 16. and Oct. 2.

(6.) **BURGH**, or **BOROUGH**, a town in Cambridgeshire, 6 m. S. of Newmarket.

(7.) **BURGH**, or **BURGH-HEAD**, a peninsula with an old fort, on the coast of Morayshire, in the parish of Duffus, of which (says Buchanan) the Danes "made an island, by cutting through a narrow neck of land," and strongly fortified it in the reign of Malcolm II; who ceded this part of Moray to them, after being defeated by them, though he headed his army in person. "All our historians are mistaken in placing this fort, (as Buchanan also does) at *Nairn*, where there never was any such building. But in this parish the peninsula is situated; and upon it there are large remains of a regular fortification. The cut made to insulate the promontory is yet visible, but now dry and nearly filled up. The place still retains its Danish name, being generally called **BURGH**, and sometimes **BURGH-HEAD**." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* VIII. 395.

(8—14.) BURGH, the name of 7 small towns or villages: viz. 1. in Derby, near Castleton, in the high peak: 2. in Dorsetshire, 3 m. from Axminster: 3. in Lancashire, S. of the Pele: 4. in Norfolkshire, W. of Kirby: 5. in Shropshire, 5 m. from Wen: 6. in Suffolk, near Clopton: and, 7. in Yorkshire, near Petherby.

BURGHAM-CASTLE, in Westmoreland, 5 m. S. E. of Appleby.

BURGH-BOTE signifies contribution towards the building or repairing of castles, or walls, for the defence of a borough or city. By the law of king Athelstan, the castles and walls of towns were to be repaired, and burgh-bote levied every year within a fortnight after rogation days. No person whatever was exempted; the king himself could not exempt a man from burgh-bote: yet, in after times, exemptions appear to have been frequently granted; insomuch, that, according to Cowel, the word *burgh-bote* came to be chiefly used to denote not the service but the liberty or exemption from it.

BURGH-BRECHE, a fine imposed on the community of a town, or burgh, for the breach of peace among them.

BURGH-CASTLE, or BOROUGH-CASTLE, a fortress on the edge of the county of Suffolk, 3 m. W. of Yarmouth, where the rivers Yare and Waveny meet. It was formerly a delightful place; but now only the ruins of its walls remain, near which Roman coins are often dug up.

BURGH-CLERE, W. of King's Clere, Hampsh.

(1.) * BURGHER. *n. s.* [from *burgb.*] One who has a right to certain privileges in this or that place. *Locke.*—

It irks me, the poor dappled fools,
Being native *burghers* of this desert city,
Should in their own confines, with forked heads,
Have their round haunches gor'd.

Shakesp. As you like it.

—After the multitude of the common people was dismissed, and the chief of the *burghers* sent for, the imperious letter was read before the better sort of citizens. *Kaolles.*

(2.) BURGHER. See BURGESS, § 1, 2.

(3.) BURGHER SECEDERS, a numerous and respectable class of dissenters from the church of Scotland, who were originally connected with the ASSOCIATE PRESBYTERY; but some difference of sentiment arising about the lawfulness of taking the Burghs oath, a separation ensued in 1739; in consequence of which, those who pled for the affirmative, obtained the appellation of BURGHER, and their opponents that of ANTIBURGHER SECEDERS. See SECEDERS.

BURGHER-MASTER. See BURGO-MASTER.

* BURGHERSHIP. *n. s.* [from *burgher.*] The privilege of a burgher.

BURGH-GRAVE. See BURG-GRAVE.

BURGH-HALL, a town N. of Masham, Yorksb.

(1.) BURGH-HEAD, a village of Scotland, on the coast of Morayshire, containing 400 inhabitants, of whom two thirds are sailors or fishers, and the rest masons and quarriers. The coast is naturally well adapted for a deep, capacious, and safe harbour; has a fine bottom; shelter from all winds; and water of any necessary quality. As there is no river near it, it would be

free from those bars and shallows, which are constantly forming at the mouths of rivers. As such a harbour could be erected at a moderate expense, and as there is not one good or safe one along the whole S. coast of the Moray Frith, from Buchan Ness to Inverness, (an extent of 100 miles,) it is surprising that one has not long ere now been erected at this station. *Stat. Acc. VIII. 390, 391.*

(2.) BURGH-HEAD, a promontory on the coast of Galloway, in the parish of Whithorn; where the rev. Dr Isaac Davidson observes, a light-house would be of great use. He also mentions a singular phenomenon, that takes place on this coast; viz. that "from Port Yarrow round Burgh-Head, the tide flows close along the shore three hours, and ebbs nine." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. XVI. 142.*

BURGH-HILL; 1. N. of Hereford: 2. in Yorkshire, near Bainbridge.

BURGH-HOUSE, 2 miles S. E. of Epsom, Surrey.

BURGH MAILS, were yearly payments to the crown of Scotland, introduced by Malcolm III. and resembling the *fee-farm* rents of burghs in England. See MAIL.

BURGH-MASTER, an officer in the tin mines, who directs and lays out the meers for the workmen, &c. otherwise denominated bailiff and BAILMASTER.

BURGHMOTE, the court of a borough. By the laws of king Edgar, the burghmote was to be held thrice in the year: by those of Henry I. 12 times.

BURGH ST MARGARET. } Two villages in Norfolk, near Yarmouth.

BURGH ST MARY. }

BURGH UPON BAIE, a village in Lincolnshire, E. of Market-Raisin.

BURGH UPON SANDS. See BURG, N° 6.

BURGHWARE, in old statutes, a burgess.

BURGIMOTUS. See BURGHMOTE

(1.) * BURGLAR, *n. s.* One guilty of the crime of house breaking.

(2.) BURGLAR. See BURGLARY, § 3.

BURGLARIOUS, *adj.* belonging to burglary.

(1.) * BURGLARY. *n. s.* [from *burg*, a house, and *larron*, a thief.] In the natural signification, is nothing but the robbing of a house; but as it is a term of art, our common lawyers restrain it to robbing a house by night, or breaking it with intent to rob, or to do some other felony. The like offence committed by day, they call house-robbery, by a peculiar name. *Cowel.*—What say you, father? *Burglary* is but a venial sin among soldiers. *Dryden's Spanish Fryar.*

(2.) BURGLARY, or NOCTURNAL HOUSE-BREAKING, (*burgo latrocinium*,) which by the ancient English law was called *hamsucken*, a word also used in the law of Scotland, but in a sense somewhat different, has always been looked upon as a very heinous offence: not only because of the abundant terror it carries with it, but also as it is a forcible invasion and disturbance of the right of habitation, which every individual might acquire even in a state of nature; an invasion which, in such a state, would be sure to be punished with death, unless the assailant were stronger. But, in civil society, the laws come in to the assistance of the weaker party: and, besides that they leave him this natural right of killing the aggressor if he can, they also protect and avenge

him in case the assailant is too powerful. And the law has so particular and tender a regard to the immunity of a man's house, that it styles it *his castle*, and will never suffer it to be violated with impunity; agreeing herein with the sentiments of ancient Rome. For this reason no outward doors can in general be broken open to execute any civil process; though in criminal causes the public safety supercedes the private. See *ARREST*, N^o 1. § 2. Hence also in part arises the animadversion of the law upon eaves-droppers, nefancers, and incendiaries: and to this principle it must be assigned, that a man may assemble people together lawfully, (at least if they do not exceed 11,) without danger of raising a riot, rout, or unlawful assembly, in order to protect his house; which he is not permitted to do in any other case.

(3.) **BURGLARY, DEFINITIONS AND DISTINCTIONS OF.** Sir Edward Coke's definition of a **BURGLAR**, is, "he that by night breaketh and entereth into a mansion house, with intent to commit a felony." In this definition there are 4 things to be considered; the *time*, the *place*, the *manner*, and the *intent*. I. The **TIME** must be by night, and not by day; for in the day-time there is no burglary; *i. e.* if there be day-light or crepusculum enough, begun or left, to discern a man's face withal. But this does not extend to moonlight; for then many midnight burglaries would go unpunished; and besides, the malignity of the offence does not consist so much in its being done in the dark, as at the dead of night; when all the creation, except beasts of prey, are at rest; when sleep has disarmed the owner, and rendered his castle defenceless. II. As to the **PLACE**. It must be, according to Sir Edward Coke's definition, in a mansion-house: for no distant barn, warehouse, or the like, are under the same privileges, nor looked upon as a man's castle of defence; nor is a breaking open of houses wherein no man resides, and which for the time being are not mansion houses, attended with the same circumstances of midnight terror. A house, however, wherein a man sometimes resides, and which the owner hath left only for a short season, *animo revertendi*, is the object of burglary, though no one be in it at the time of the fact committed. And if the barn, stable, or warehouse, be parcel of the mansion-house, though not under the same roof or contiguous, a burglary may be committed therein; for the capital house protects and privileges all its branches and appurtenants, if within the curtilage or homestall. A chamber in a college, or an inn of a court, where each inhabitant hath a distinct property, is, to all other purposes as well as this, the mansion house of the owner. So also is a room or lodging in any private house, the mansion for the time being of the lodger; if the owner doth not himself dwell in the house, or if he and the lodger enter by different outward doors. But if the owner himself lies in the house, and hath but one outward door at which he and his lodgers enter, such lodgers seem only to be inmates, and all their apartments to be parcel of the one dwelling-house of the owner. III. As to the **MANNER** of committing burglary: there must be both a breaking and an entry to complete it. But they need not be both done at once; for

if a hole be broken one night, and the same breakers enter the next night through the same, they are burglars. There must be an actual breaking; as, at least, by breaking or taking out the glass of, or otherwise opening, a window; picking a lock, or opening it with a key; nay, by lifting up the latch of a door, or unloosing any other fastening which the owner has provided. But if a person leaves his doors or windows open, it is his own folly and negligence; and if a man enters therein, it is no burglary; yet, if he afterwards unlocks an inner or chamber door, it is so. But to come down a chimney is held a burglarious entry: for that is as much closed as the nature of things will permit. So also, to knock at a door, and upon opening it, to rush in with a felonious intent; or under pretence of taking lodgings, to fall upon the landlord and rob him; or to procure a constable to gain admittance in order to search for traitors, and then to bind the constable and rob the house; all these entries have been adjudged burglarious, though there was no actual breaking: for the law will not suffer itself to be trifled with by such evasions, especially under the cloak of legal process. As for the **ENTRY**, any the least degree of it, with any part of the body, or with an instrument held in the hand, is sufficient: as, to step over the threshold, to put a hand or hook in at a window to draw out goods, or a pistol to demand one's money, are all of them burglarious entries. The entry may be before the breaking, as well as after; for by statute 12 Anne c. 7. if a person enters into the dwelling house of another, without breaking in either by day or by night, with an intent to commit any felony, or, being in such house, shall commit felony; and shall in the night break out of the same; this is declared to be burglary. IV. As to the **INTENT**; it is clear that such breaking and entry must be with a felonious intent, otherwise it is only a trespass. And it is the same, whether intention be actually carried into execution, or only demonstrated by some attempt or overt act, of which the jury is to judge. Burglary is a felony at common law, but within the benefit of clergy. Burglary in any house belonging to the plate-glass company, with intent to steal the stock or utensils, is by statute 13 Geo. III. c. 38. declared to be single felony, and punished with transportation 7 years.

BURGLES, a town of Transylvania, subject to Austria; 30 miles N. of Clausenburg. Lon. 22. 40. E. Lat. 47. 40. N.

* **BURGMASER**. See **BURGOMASTER**.

BURGMOTE. See **BURGHMOTE**.

(1.) * **BURGOMASTER**. *n. s.* [from *burg*, and *master*.] One employed in the government of a city.—They chuse their councils and *burgomasters* out of the burgeois, as in the other governments of Switzerland. *Addison*.

(2.) **BURGOMASTER**, **BURGHMASTER**, *Bourgermeister*, or *Burgmeister*, is the chief magistrate of the great towns in Flanders, Holland, and Germany. The power and jurisdiction of the burgo-master is not the same in all places, every town having its particular customs and regulations: at Amsterdam there are, (or at least *were* before the revolution,) 4 chosen by the voices of all those people in the senate who have either been burgo-

masters or echevins. They dispose of all under offices that fall in their time, keep the key of the bank, and enjoy a salary of only 500 guildres; all feasts, public entertainments, &c. being defrayed out of the common treasury. The word is formed from the two Flemish words, *berger*, *burghess*, or *citizen*; and *meester*, *master*. Some express it in Latin by *consul*, others by *senator*.—Mr Brenau observes, that *burgermaster* in Holland answers to what is called *alderman* and *sheriff* in England, *attorney* at Compeigne, *capitoul* at Toulouse, *consul* at Languedoc, &c.

BURGONET. See BURGANEY.

BURGOO, or BURGOUT, a sea-faring dish, made of groats boiled in water till they burst, and then mixed with butter. It is cheap, and reckoned strengthening. Burgoo, otherwise called *lob-lolly*, is held by Cockburn very proper to correct that thickness of humours and costiveness to which the other diet of sailors much disposes them. Yet it is the least liked of all their provisions, because of the scanty allowance of butter to it. The same author thinks it might be worth the consideration of those to whom the care of the seamen is committed, to contrive to render this food more agreeable.

BURGOS, a city of Spain, the capital of Old Castile, with an archbishop's see, erected in 1574. It is surrounded with mountains, which render the air very cold 9 months in the year, and the other 3 excessive hot. It is seated on the declivity of a hill, on the top of which there is a strong castle, and the lower part of the town is watered by the river Alagon. The principal avenue to the city is by a handsome bridge over this river, which leads to a beautiful gate, adorned with the statues of several kings of Spain. The town is large and populous; but the houses are ill built, and the streets are narrow and dirty, except some few, especially that which leads to the cathedral. There are several squares, adorned with fountains and statues. The great square in the middle of the city is surrounded with fine houses, with piazzas to each. The cathedral church is a masterpiece of Gothic architecture, and one of the finest in all Spain. The church of the Augustines is remarkable for its beautiful and rich chapel of the holy crucifix. There are several fine convents and numeries; one of which last contains 150 nuns, of noble extraction. They have likewise a royal hospital, very richly endowed; and at this place they speak the best Castilian, that is, the purest Spanish in the kingdom. It is 95 miles E. by S. of Leon, and 117 N. of Madrid. Lon. 3. 30. W. Lat. 42. 20. N.

BURGOW. See BURGAU.

BURGOYNE, John, lieut. general in the army, colonel of the 4th regiment of foot, a Privy counsellor, and M. P. for Preston, was author of a much celebrated comedy, entitled *The Heiress*. When only a subaltern, he married Lady Charlotte Stanley; which, (as most love marriages are, where money is not on both sides,) was highly resented by the late E. of Derby, her father, who would never to see them again. As time, however, softened the general's character, the earl needed, that his daughter had married a gentleman, an excellent scholar

and a benevolent man; and he accordingly gave her the same annuity as her sisters, viz. L. 300 per annum; and L. 25,000 at his death. In June 1774, the general conducted the Fete Champetre given by Lord Derby at the oaks. In 1775, he was ordered on a more important enterprise in America; the unfortunate issue of which is well known. See AMERICA, § 28. In 1776 his lady died. In 1778, he returned home, and in 1779, he resigned all his emoluments, amounting to L. 3,500 a year. He died at London, Aug. 4, 1792.

BURGUNDIANS. See BOURGUIGNONS.

BURGUNDIONES, a branch of the ancient VINDILI or Wandili. Claverius places them about the Warta, a river of Poland: though the conjectures on the seat of these people are doubtful; and no wonder, because the Roman expeditions terminated at the Elbe. They afterwards moved to the Cisalpin, Germany, and at length to Celtic Gaul, and gave name to the ci-devant duchy of Burgundy.

BURGUNDY, a ci-devant province of France, which contained, besides the government of Burgundy, Bresse, Bugey, and the district of Gex. There are some noted mineral springs in it, with subterraneous lakes, and plenty of ochre. For ages it had dukes of its own, subordinate to the crown of France; but Louis XI. upon the failure of the heirs male, seized upon it and annexed it to his crown. The principal places are Dijon, Auxerre, Autun, and Bourbon-L'Ancy. It is now divided into 3 departments. See BOURGOGNE.

BURGUS, a village in Cornwall, near Padstow Haven.

BURWARD, or } in writers of the middle
BURWARDIUM, } age, the same with BUR-
WARK. The word is also extended to the town, and even the country about such a fortress.

To BURGYN. v. n. *obs.* To bud. *Gloss.*

* BURH, is a tower; and from that a defence or protection; so *Ewenburb* is a woman ready to assist; *Cutburr*, eminent for assistance. *Gibson's Camden.*

BURHAM, 2 villages: 1. in Kent, near Aylesford: 2. in Lincolnshire, in Goswell parish.

BURHANPOUR, a flourishing city of Indostan, the capital of Candesh. It is pleasantly situated, 225 miles E. by N. of Surat. Lon. 76. 19. E. Lat. 21. 25. N.

(r.) * BURIAL. n. s. [from *To bury*.] 1. The act of burying; sepulture; interment.—

Nor would we deign him *burial* of his men.

Shakespeare.

See my wealthy Andrew dock'd in sand,
Vailing her high top lower than her ribs,
To kiss her *burial*. *Shakesf. Merch. of Venice.*

Your body I sought, and had I found,
Design'd for *burial* in your native ground.

Dryden's Æneid.

2. The act of placing any thing under earth or water.—We have great lakes, both salt and fresh; we use them for *burials* of some natural bodies: for we find a difference of things buried in earth, and things buried in water. *Bacon.* 3. The church service for funerals.—The office of the church is performed by the parish priest, at the time of interment, if not prohibited unto persons excommunicated, and laying violent hands on themselves.

elves, by a rubrick of the *burial service*. *Ayliffe's Parergon*.

(1.) **BURIAL**, ANCIENT CUSTOMS RESPECTING. The rites of burial are looked upon in all countries, and at all times, as a debt so sacred, that such as neglected to discharge it were thought accursed: hence the Romans called them *justi*, and the Greeks *εὐστατοι*, *δίκαιοι*, *οἶκοι*, words implying the inviolable obligations laid upon the living to take care of the obsequies of the dead. Nor can we wonder, that the ancient Greeks and Romans were anxious about the interment of their deceased friends, since they were persuaded, that their souls could not be admitted into the Elysian fields till their bodies were committed to the earth; and if they never obtained burial, they were excluded from these happy mansions for 100 years. For this reason it was esteemed a duty incumbent upon all travellers who should meet with a dead body, to cast 3 handfuls of earth upon it; and particularly one upon the head. The ancients likewise considered it as a great misfortune if they were not laid in the sepulchres of their fathers; for which reason, such as died in foreign countries had usually their ashes brought home, and interred with those of their ancestors. But there were some persons whom they thought unworthy of burial; such as, 1. Public or private enemies. 2. Such as betrayed or conspired against their country. 3. Tyrants, who were always looked upon as enemies to their country. 4. Villains guilty of sacrilege. 5. Such as died in debt, whose bodies belonged to their creditors. And, 6. Some particular offenders, who suffered capital punishment. Of those who were allowed the rites of burial, some were distinguished by particular circumstances of disgrace attending their interment: thus persons killed by lightning were buried by themselves, being thought odious to the gods; those who wasted their patrimony forfeited the right of being buried in the sepulchres of their fathers; and those who were guilty of self-murder were privately deposited in the ground, without the accustomed solemnities. Among the Jews, the privilege of burial was denied only to self-murderers, who were thrown out to rot upon the ground. The place of burial among them was never particularly determined. They had graves in the town and country, upon the highways, in gardens, and upon mountains. Among the Greeks, the temples were made repositories for the dead in the primitive ages; yet the general custom in latter ages, with them, as well as with the Romans and other heathen nations, was to bury their dead without their cities, and chiefly by the highways. The primitive Christians were not, like the heathens, so concerned for their bodies, as to think it any detriment to them, if either the barbarity of an enemy, or some other accident, deprived them of this privilege. The primitive Christian church denied the more solemn rites of burial only to unbaptized persons, self-murderers, and excommunicated persons who continued obstinate and impenitent, in contempt of the church's censures. Burying in cities was not allowed for the first 300 years, nor in churches for many ages after, the dead bodies being first deposited in the atrium or churchyard, and porches and porticoes of the

church: hereditary burying-places were forbidden till the 12th century. See farther on this subject under FUNERAL RITES.

BURICK, a town of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, and the duchy of Cleves, subject to the king of Prussia. It was taken by the French in 1672, who demolished the fortifications. It is agreeably seated on the Rhine, over against Wesel, 20 miles S. of Cleves. Lon. 6. 5. E. Lat. 51. 35. N.

BURICOURT, a village in Hampshire, between Bentley and Dogmersfield.

BURIDAN, John, a native of Bethune, in Artois, was one of the most celebrated philosophers of the 14th century. He taught in the university of Paris, about A. D. 1320, with great reputation; and wrote commentaries on logic, morality, and Aristotle's metaphysics. Aventinus relates, that he was a disciple of Ockam; and that, being expelled Paris by the power of the Realists, which was superior to that of the Nominalists, he went into Germany, where he founded the university of Vienna. From him came the proverb of the *ass of Buridan*, so famous in the schools. Buridan supposed an hungry ass fixed at an exactly equal distance between two bushels of oats: or an ass, as much pressed by thirst as hunger, between a bushel of oats and a pail of water, each of them acting equally on his senses. Having made this supposition, he desired to know what the ass would do? If he was answered, that he would remain immovable, then he concluded he would die of hunger between two bushels of oats, or of both hunger and thirst, with both corn and water within his reach. This appeared absurd, and brought the laughter on his side; but if it was replied, that the ass would not be so stupid as to die of hunger or thirst in such a situation, Then, (said he,) the ass has free will, or is it possible that of two equal weights one should outweigh the other? These two consequences appeared equally absurd; and thus Buridan, by this sophism, perplexed the philosophers, and his ass became famous in the schools.

BURIENS, ST, a village in Cornwall, 5 miles from Penzance.

* **BURIER**. *n. s.* [from *bury*.] He that buries; he that performs the act of interment.—

Let one spirit of the first-born Cain
Reign in all bosoms, that, each heart being set
On bloody courses, the rude scene may end,
And darkness be the *burier* of the dead.

Shakeſp. Henry IV.

* **BURINE**. *n. s.* [French.] A graving tool; a graver.—Wit is like the graver's *burine* upon copper, or the corrodings of aquafortis, which engrave and indent the characters, that can never be defaced. *Government of the Tongue*.

BURINGHAM, a village in Lincolnshire, near the isle of Axholm.

BURIS, a name given by Avicenna, and some other old authors, to a scirrhus hernia.

BURKE, a mountainous county of North Carolina in the district of Morgan; bounded on the N. by Wilkes, on the E. by Iredell, on the S. by Rutherford, and on the W. by Buncomb, counties. It contains about 7000 free inhabitants, and 450 slaves. Morgantown is the chief town.

BURKET, a town near Shrivenham, Berks.

BURK.

BURKHAUSEN. See BURCHAUSEN.

BURKITT, William, a celebrated commentator on the New Testament, was born at Hitcham in Northamptonshire, July 25, 1650, and educated at Cambridge. He entered young upon the ministry, at Milden in Suffolk, where he continued 21 years, first as curate, and afterwards as rector of that church. In 1692, he had a call to the vicarage of Dedham in Essex, where he continued till his death, Oct. 1703. He was pious and charitable. He made great collections for the French protestants in the years 1687, &c. and procured a worthy minister to go and settle in Carolina. Among other charities, by his last will he bequeathed the house wherein he lived, with the lands belonging to it, in perpetuity, to the lecturer at Dedham. Besides his Commentary, he wrote a work intitled, *The poor man's help, and rich man's guide*.

* **TO BURL.** v. a. To dress cloth as fullers do. *Dist.*

* **BURLACE.** n. f. [corruptly written for *bun-delais*.] A sort of grape.

BURLAMAQUI, John James, an illustrious civilian, born at Geneva, and professor of civil law there. Prince Frederick of Hesse-Cassel, being his pupil, took him with him in 1734, and detained him several years. On his return to Geneva, he was named Counsellor of State, and died there in 1748. His *Principles of Natural Law*, first raised his fame; and are said to contain the essence of Puffendorf, Grotius and Barbeyrac. He wrote also *The Principles of Political Law*. Both are in French.

BURLAND, two villages; 1. in Cheshire, 8. E. of Combermere: 2. in Somersetshire, between Taunton and Combe St Nicholas.

BURLATON, in Staffordsh. near Sheriff-Hales.

BURLAW. See BY-LAW.

BURLED, *adj. obs.* Armed. *Ash.*

(1.) **BURLEIGH**, a village in Northamptonsh. one mile S. E. of Stamford.

(2.) **BURLEIGH**, Lord. See CECIL.

BURLESCOMB, a village in Devonshire, near Holcomb.

(1.) * **BURLESQUE.** *adj.* [Fr. from *burlare*, Ital. to jest.] Jocular; tending to raise a laughter, by unnatural or unsuitable language or image.—Homer, in his character of Vulcan and Thersites, in his story of Mars and Venus, in his behaviour of Irus, and in other passages, has been observed to have lapsed into the *burlesque* character, and to have departed from that serious air, essential to the magnificence of an epic poem. *Addison*.

(2.) * **BURLESQUE.** n. f. Ludicrous language, or ideas; ridicule.—When a man lays out a twelvemonth on the spots in the sun, however noble his speculations may be, they are very apt to fall into *burlesque*. *Addison on Ancient Medals*.

(3.) **BURLESQUE**, in composition, is distinguishable into burlesque that excites laughter merely, and burlesque that excites derision or ridicule. A grave subject, in which there is no impropriety, may be brought down by a certain colouring to be risible, as in *Virgil Travestie*; the author first laughs at every turn in order to make his readers laugh. *The Lutrin* is a burlesque poem of the other sort, laying hold of a low and trifling incident to expose the luxury, indolence, and conten-

tious spirit, of a set of monks. Boileau, the author, turns the subject into ridicule, by dressing it in the heroic style, and affecting to consider it as of the utmost dignity and importance. Though ridicule is the poet's aim, he always carries a grave face, and never once betrays a smile. The opposition between the subject and the manner of handling it, is what produces the ridicule; and therefore, in a composition of this kind, no image professedly ludicrous ought to be admitted, because such images destroy the contrast. Though the burlesque that aims at ridicule produces its effects by elevating the style far above the subject; yet the poet ought to confine himself to such images as are lively, and readily apprehended. A strained elevation, soaring above the ordinary reach of fancy, makes not a pleasant impression. The mind is soon disgusted by being kept long on the stretch. Machinery may be employed in a burlesque poem, such as *the Lutrin*, *the Dispensary*, or *Hudibras*, with more success and propriety than in any other species of poetry. For burlesque poems, though they assume the air of history, give entertainment chiefly by their pleases and ludicrous pictures: it is not the aim of such a poem to raise sympathy; and for that reason, a strict imitation of nature is not necessary. And hence, the more extravagant the machinery in a ludicrous poem, the more entertainment it affords.

* **TO BURLESQUE.** v. a. [from the adjective.] To turn to ridicule.—Would Homer apply the epithet divine to a modern swineherd? if not, it is an evidence, that Eumeus was a man of consequence; otherwise Homer would *burlesque* his own poetry. *Broom's Notes on the Odyssey*.

BURLESTON, a town in Dorsetshire, near Athelhamston.

BURLET, n. f. *obs.* a hood; a coif. *Ash.*

(1—3.) **BURLEY**, the name of 4 villages. 1. in the New Forest, Hampshire: 2. in Shropshire, N. of Ludlow: 3. in Yorksh. near Otley; and,

(4.) **BURLEY ON THE HILL**, in Rutlandshire, near Oakham.

BURLEY-PARK, in Leicestershire, near Loughborough.

* **BURLINESS.** n. f. [from *burly*.] Bulk, bluster.

(1.) **BURLINGTON**, a town in Shropshire, S. W. of Wem.

(2.) **BURLINGTON**, a large maritime county of the United States in New-Jersey, 55 miles in length from the mouth of Mullicus river to Trenton, and 28 in breadth. It is bounded on the N. E. by Middlesex and Monmouth counties, N. W. by Hunterdon, and Delaware river, which separates it from Pennsylvania, S. E. by the Atlantic, S. and S. W. by Gloucester county. It is divided into 11 townships, viz. Chesterfield, Nottingham, Little Egg-harbour, Evesham, New Haven, Chester, Springfield, Northampton, Marlfield, Burlington and Williamsborough. It contains 17,868 free inhabitants, and 127 slaves. The N. E. boundary of this county was the old divisional line of East and West Jersey. The interior part of the county is one extensive forest of pine trees.

(3.) **BURLINGTON**, an island of New Jersey. See N. 4.

(4.) **BURLINGTON** city, the capital of the preceding county. (N. 2.) It is situated partly on an island, and partly on the S. E. side of the Delaware, and extends, according to its charter, one mile back and 3 miles along the river. The island, which is the most populous part of the town, is a mile and a quarter in length, and $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile in breadth. It communicates with the main land by 4 bridges, and causeways. On the island are about 160 houses, 1,000 white, and 100 black inhabitants. Few of the blacks are slaves; the main streets are regular and spacious, and generally ornamented with trees in the front of the houses. The Delaware, opposite the town, is nearly a mile wide, and under shelter of Muttinicumk, and Burlington island, affords a safe and convenient harbour. It is advantageously situated for trade, but is too near Philadelphia to admit of an extensive commerce. The public buildings are two market-houses, a court-house, and jail, which is reckoned the strongest in the state; besides two houses for public worship, viz. one for Episcopalians, and one for Friends or Quakers, who are the most numerous. There are also an academy, a free school, a nail manufactory, and a large distillery. The academy has been lately established, and is under the direction of 7 trustees, and the instruction of two preceptors. The island of Burlington was laid out, and the first settlement established about the year 1677, five years after Muttinicumk or Free School island was given for the use of the island of Burlington; the yearly profits arising from it amount to L. 180, and are appropriated for the education of poor children. The city was a free port under the state government; but has been established by Congress a port of entry, and a collector appointed for it. However it carries on no foreign trade, its principal intercourse is with Philadelphia. In the charter granted by the state legislature, the mayor, recorder and aldermen had the power of holding a commercial court, when the matter in controversy was between foreigners and foreigners, or between citizens and foreigners. But these powers, are abrogated by the Federal Constitution. It is 20 miles N. E. of Philadelphia by water, and 17 by land. Lon. 75. 10. W. Lat. 40. 17. N.

(5.) **BURLINGTON**, the capital of Chittendon county, Vermont. It is beautifully situated on Lake Champlain at the confluence of Onion river, and contains about 30 houses compactly built. A law was passed by the legislature of Vermont, the 2d of November, 1791, for founding an university in this town. Large subscriptions and donations of land and other property, have been made by individuals, for the purpose of erecting convenient buildings, and establishing a fund. From the agreeableness of the situation, and the salubrity of the climate, there is little doubt but it will become an institution of much public utility. It is 130 miles N. of Bennington, 300 N. by E. of New-York, and 425 N. N. E. of Philadelphia. Lon. 1. 53. E. Lat. 44. 30. N. from Philadelphia.

(6.) **BURLINGTON**. See **BRIDLINGTON**,
BURLY. *adj.* [*Junius* has no etymology; *Senner* imagines it to come from *boorlike*, clown-like.] Great of stature; great of size; bulky; tu-

mid.—Steel, if thou turn thine edge, or cut not out the *burly* boned clown in chins of beef, ere thou sleep in thy sheath, I beseech Jove, that thou may'st be turned into hobnails. *Shakespeare*.—It was the orator's own *burly* way of nonsense. *Cowley*.—

Away with all your Carthaginian state,
 Let vanquish'd Hannibal without doors wait,
 Too *burly* and too big to pass my narrow gate.

Dryden.

—Her husband, being a very *burly* man, she thought it would be less trouble for her to bring away little Cupid. *Addison*.

BURMAH, an extensive kingdom of Asia, E. of the Ganges, sometimes called **AVA**, from the name of its capital. It is bounded by Aracan on the W. Upper Siam on the E. and Pegu on the S. and occupies both sides of the Ava, as far as the frontiers of China. This country produces some of the best *teak* timber in India. Ships built of teak upwards of 40 years old are common in the Indian seas; while a European ship is ruined there in 5 years. Burmah has several valuable mines, and abounds in elephants, horses, and other animals. The country is fertile, but little known to Europeans.

(1, 2.) **BURMAN**, Francis, a Protestant minister, and learned professor of divinity at Utrecht, was born at Leyden in 1628; and died on the 10th of November 1679, after having published a course of divinity, and several other works. His son Francis was also an author.

(3.) **BURMAN**, Peter, professor of history and eloquence, in the university of Leyden, and rector magnificus of that university. Upon quitting the rectorship, in 1720, he delivered an ironical oration "*against* the learned languages, history, eloquence and criticism, as not only *useless* but *dangerous* to the studies of law, physic, philosophy and divinity, &c. Dr Bentley styles this "a fine oration, all wrote in Lucian's manner." Burman translated Petronius Arbiter and wrote commentaries on that and Phædrus, Lucan, Virgil, Ovid, Justin and other classics. He wrote also several other works, which involved him in disputes with the literati; particularly the learned Le Clerc, whom Burman attacked with great virulence, in his preface to Petronius. Le Clerc in his reply said, "One may see that Mr Burman has profited exceedingly from the study of Petronius; and that he is perfectly free from the hypocrisy of the monks. His delicacy is observable in the promise he has made the public in the same preface; where he says, that 'he has a design, if God shall grant life and strength, not only to publish another vol. of the verses ascribed to Petronius, but also to enrich it with the *Catalecta Scaligeri*,' &c. that is, (adds Le Clerc,) Mr Burman intends with *God's blessing*, not only to publish a collection of most *barudy poems*, among which are the *Priapeia*, but also to enrich them with a commentary. These things are very unbecoming a professor of a Christian University,—not to mention his imprudence, at a time when an action was commenced against him by a young girl for debauching her." Burman died in 1740.

BURMANNIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, in the hexandria class of plants; ranked,

ranked, in the natural method, under the 10th order, Coronarie. The flower is small, and consists of three minute, ovated, oblong petals, situated at the mouth of the cup; the fruit is an involuted capsule, of a cylindraceo-trigonal figure, formed of 3 valves, with 3 cells, containing many small seeds. There are two species.

BURMASH, a village in Rumney-marsh, Kent.

BURMINGTON, S. E. of Shipton, Warwicksh.

(1.) * BURN. *n. s.* [from the verb.] A hurt caused by fire.—We see the phlegm of vitriol is a very effectual remedy against *burns*. *Boyle*.

(2.) BURN, in surgery. See SURGERY.

(3.) BURN, in the Gaelic language, signifies a rivulet, in which sense it is still used in most parts of Scotland.

(1.) * To BURN. *v. a.* preterite and participle *burned*, or *burnt*. [*bernán*, Saxon.] 1. To consume with fire.—They *burnt* Jericho with fire. *Joshua*.—The fire *burneth* the wood. *Psalms*.—

Altar of Syrian mode, whereon to *burn*

His odious offerings. *Milton*.

That where she fed his amorous desires
With soft complaints, and felt his hottest fires,
There other flames might waste his earthly part,
And *burn* his limbs where love had *burn'd* his heart. *Dryden*.

—A fleshy excrescence, becoming exceeding hard, is supposed to demand extirpation, by *burning* away the induration, or amputating. *Sharp's Surgery*. 2. To wound or hurt with fire or heat.—Hand for hand, foot for foot, *burning* for *burning*, wound for wound, stripe for stripe. *Exodus*, xxi. 25. 3. To exert the qualities of heat, as by drying or scorching.—

O that I could but weep, to vent my passion!

But this dry sorrow *burns* up all my tears. *Dryd*.

(2.) * To BURN. *v. n.* 1. To be on fire; to be kindled.—A fire devoureth before them, and behind them a flame *burneth*: the land is as the garden of Eden before them, and behind them a desolate wilderness. *Joel*.—The mount *burned* with fire. *Exodus*.—

O coward conscience! how dost thou afflict me?

The light *burns* blue—Is it not dead midnight?
Cold trembling drops stand on my trembling flesh. *Shakespeare*.

2. To shine; to sparkle.—

The barge she sat in, like a burnish'd throne,
Burnt on the water. *Shakesf*.

Oh! prince, oh! wherefore *burn* your eyes?
and why

Is your sweet temper turn'd to fury? *Rowe*.

3. To be inflamed with passion, or desire.—When I *burnt* in desire to question them farther, they made themselves air, into which they vanished. *Shakespeare*.—

I *burn*, I pine, I perish, Tranio,
If I atchieve not this young modest girl. *Shakesf*.

In Raleigh mark their every glory mix'd;
Raleigh, the scourge of Spain; whose breast
with all

The sage, the patriot, and the hero *burn'd*.

Thomson.

4. To act with destructive violence, used of the passions.—Shall thy wrath *burn* like fire? *Psalms*.

5. To be in a state of destructive commotion.—

The nations bleed where'er her steps she turns,
The groan still deepens and the combat *burns*. *Pope*.

6. It is used particularly of love.—

She *burns*, she raves, she dies, 'tis true,
But *burns*, and raves, and dies for you. *Addison*.

BURN-ANNE, a rivulet in Ayrshire, which runs into the Irvine.

BURN-BREA. See BELL, N. II.

BURNBY, two villages; 1. in Suffolk, E. of Beccles: 2. in Yorksh. near Pocklington.

BURNCHURCH, in Kilkenny, Ireland.

BURNEP, in Durham, near Cumberland.

* BURNER. *n. s.* [from *burn*.] A person that burns any thing.

BURNERE, a village in the county of Cornwall, near Padstow Haven.

BURNES, in Cumberland, N. of Kefwick.

BURNES, a parish of Scotland in the isle of Sanday, in Orkney, united to those of Cross and N. Ronaldshay. Its population, as stated by the rev. Mr Clouston in his report to Sir J. Sinclair was 390, in 1791, when there were 211 horses, 216 black cattle, 1100 sheep, and 36 swine in it. See CROSS, N. 5.

(1.) BURNET, Gilbert, bishop of Salisbury is the latter end of the 17th century, was born at Edinburgh, in 1643, of an ancient family in Aberdeen-shire. His father being bred to the law, was, at the restoration, appointed one of the lords of session, with the title of *lord Cramond*, in reward for his constant attachment to the royal party during the republic. Our author, the youngest son of his father, was instructed by him in the Latin tongue: at ten years of age he was sent to the university of Aberdeen, and was admitted M. A. before he was 14. His own inclination led him to the study of the civil and feudal law; and he used to say, that from this study he had received more just notions concerning civil society and government, than those which some divines maintain. About a year after, he changed his mind, and began to apply to divinity, to the great satisfaction of his father. He was admitted preacher before he was 18; and Sir Alexander Burnet, his cousin-german, offered him a benefice; which he refused to accept of. In 1663, about two years after the death of his father, he went into England; and after six months stay at Oxford and Cambridge, returned to Scotland; which he left in 1664, to make a tour in Holland and France. At Amsterdam, by the help of a Jewish rabbi, he perfected himself in the Hebrew language; and likewise became acquainted with the leading men of the different persuasions tolerated in that country; as Calvinists, Arminians, Lutherans, Anabaptists, Brownists, Papists, and Unitarians; amongst each of which sects, he used to declare, he met with men of such unfeigned piety and virtue, that he became fixed in a strong principle of universal charity, and an invincible abhorrence of all severities on account of religious opinions. Upon his return from his travels, he was admitted minister of Salton; in which station he served 5 years in the most exemplary manner. He drew up a memorial, in which he took notice of the principal errors in the conduct of the Scots bishops, which he observed not to be conformable to

to the primitive institution; and sent a copy of it to several of them. This exposed him to their resentments: but, to show he was not actuated with a spirit of ambition, he led a retired course of life for two years; which so endangered his health, that he was obliged to abate his excessive application to study. In 1669, he published his *Medit and free conference between a conformist and non-conformist*. He became acquainted with the duchess of Hamilton, who communicated to him all the papers belonging to her father and her uncle; upon which he drew up the *Memoirs of the dukes of Hamilton*. The duke of Lauderdale, hearing he was about this work, invited him to London, and introduced him to king Charles II. He returned to Scotland, and married the lady Margaret Kennedy, daughter of the earl of Cassillis; a lady of great piety and knowledge, highly esteemed by the presbyterians, to whose sentiments she was strongly inclined. As there was some disparity in their ages, that it might remain past dispute that this match was wholly owing to inclination, and not to avarice or ambition, the day before their marriage our author delivered the lady a deed, whereby he renounced all pretensions to her fortune, which was very considerable, and might otherwise have fallen into his hands, she herself having no intention to secure it. The same year he published his *Vindication of the authority, constitution, and laws of the church and state of Scotland*: which at that juncture was looked upon as so great a service, that he was again offered a bishopric, and a promise of the next vacant archbishopric; but did not accept of it, because he could not approve of the measures of the court, the grand view of which he saw to be the advancement of popery. His intimacy with the dukes of Hamilton and Lauderdale occasioned him to be frequently sent for by the king and the duke of York, who had conversations with him in private. But Lauderdale conceiving a resentment against him on account of the freedom with which he spoke to him, represented at last to the king, that Dr Burnet was engaged in an opposition to his measures. Upon his return to London, he perceived that these suggestions had entirely thrown him out of the king's favour, though the duke of York treated him with greater civility than ever, and dissuaded him from going to Scotland. Upon this, he resigned his professorship at Glasgow, and staid at London. About this time the living at Cripple-gate being vacant, the dean and chapter of St Paul's (in whose gift it was,) hearing of his circumstances, and the hardships he had undergone, sent him an offer of the benefice; but as he had been informed of their first intention of conferring it on Dr Fowler, he generously declined it. In 1675, at the recommendation of lord Hollis, whom he had known in France, ambassador at that court, he was, by Sir Herbottle Grimstone, master of the rolls, appointed preacher of the chapel there, notwithstanding the opposition of the court. He was soon after chosen a lecturer of St Clement's, and became one of the preachers that were most followed in town. In 1679, he published his *History of the Reformation*, for which he had the thanks of both houses of parliament. The first part of it was published in 1679, and the

2d in 1681. Next year he published an abridgement of these two parts. Dr Burnet about this time happened to be sent for to a woman in sickness, who had been engaged in an amour with the earl of Rochester. The manner in which he treated her during her illness, gave that lord a great curiosity for being acquainted with him. Whereupon, for a whole winter, he spent one evening in a week with Dr Burnet, who discoursed with him upon all those topics upon which sceptics and men of loose morals attack the Christian religion. The happy effect of these conferences occasioned the publication of his account of the life and death of that earl. In 1682, when the administration was changed in favour of the duke of York, being much resorted to by persons of all ranks and parties, in order to avoid returning visits, he built a laboratory, and went for a year through a course of chemical experiments. Not long after, he refused a living of 300l. a-year offered him by the earl of Essex, on the terms of his not residing there, but in London. When the inquiry concerning the popish plot was on foot, he was frequently sent for and consulted by king Charles, on the state of the nation. The king offered him the bishopric of Chichester, if he would engage in his interests; but he refused to accept it on these terms. He preached at the Rolls till 1684, when he was dismissed by order of the court. About this time he published several pieces. On king James's accession, having obtained leave to go out of the kingdom, he first went to Paris, and lived in great retirement, till contracting an acquaintance with brigadier Stoupe, a Protestant gentleman in the French service, he made a tour with him into Italy. He met with an agreeable reception at Rome. Pope Innocent XI. hearing of our author's arrival, sent the captain of the Swiss guards to acquaint him he would give him a private audience in bed, to avoid the ceremony of kissing his holiness's slipper. But Dr Burnet excused himself as well as he could. Some disputes which our author had here concerning religion, beginning to be taken notice of, made it proper for him to quit the city; which, upon an intimation given him by prince Borghese, he accordingly did. He pursued his travels through Switzerland and Germany. In 1688, he came to Utrecht, with an intention to settle in one of the seven provinces. There he received an invitation from the prince and princess of Orange, (to whom their party in England had recommended him,) to come to the Hague, which he accepted. He was soon made acquainted with the secret of their counsels, and advised the fitting out of a fleet in Holland sufficient to support their designs and encourage their friends. This, and the *Account of his Travels*, in which he blends Popery and tyranny together, and represents them as inseparable, with some papers reflecting on the proceedings of England, that came out in single sheets, and were dispersed in several parts of England, most of which Mr Burnet owned himself the author of, alarmed king James; and were the occasion of his writing twice against him to the princess of Orange, and insisting, by his ambassador, on his being forbid the court; which, after much importunity, was done, though he continued to

be trusted and employed as before, the Dutch minister consulting him daily. To put an end to these frequent conferences with the ministers, a prosecution for high treason was set on foot against him both in England and Scotland. But Burnet receiving the news thereof before it arrived at the States, he avoided the storm, by petitioning for, and obtaining without any difficulty, a bill of naturalization, in order to his intended marriage with Mary Scot, a Dutch lady of considerable fortune, who, with the advantage of birth, had those of a fine person and understanding. After his marriage with this lady, being legally under the protection of Holland, when Mr Burnet found king James plainly subverting the constitution, he omitted no method to promote the design the prince of Orange had formed of delivering Great Britain, and came over with him in quality of chaplain. He was soon advanced to the see of Salisbury. He declared for moderate measures with regard to the clergy, who scrupled to take the oaths, and many were displeased with him for declaring for the toleration of non-conformists. His *pastoral letter*, concerning the oaths of allegiance and supremacy to king William and queen Mary, 1689, happening to touch upon the right of conquest, gave such offence to both houses of parliament, that it was ordered to be burnt by the hands of the common executioner. In 1698 he lost his wife by the small-pox; and, as he was almost immediately after appointed preceptor to the duke of Gloucester, of whose education he took great care, this employment, and the tender age of his children, induced him the same year to supply her loss by a marriage with Mrs Berkely, eldest daughter of Sir Richard Blake, knight. In 1699, he published his *Exposition of the 39 articles*; which occasioned a representation against him in the lower house of convocation in 1701; but he was vindicated in the upper house. His speech in the house of lords in 1704, against the bill to prevent occasional conformity, was severely attacked. He died in 1715, and was interred in the church of St James, Clerkenwell, where he has a monument erected to him. He formed a scheme for augmenting the poor livings; which he pressed forward with such success, that it ended in an act of parliament passed in the 2d year of queen Anne, "for the augmentation of the livings of the poor clergy." See AUGMENTATION, § 1.

(2.) BURNET, Thomas, a learned writer in the end of the 17th century, was born in Scotland, but educated in Cambridge under the tuition of Mr Tillotson, afterwards Abp. of Canterbury. In the beginning of 1685, he was made master of Sutton's hospital in London, after which he entered into holy orders. During the reign of king James, he made a noble stand as master of the charter-house, against the encroachments of that monarch, who would have imposed one Andrew Popham, a papist, as a pensioner upon the foundation of that house. In 1680 he published his *Telluris theoria sacra*, so universally admired for the purity of the style and beauty of the sentiments, that king Charles gave encouragement to a translation of it into English. This *Theory* was however attacked by several writers. In 1692, he

his *Archæologia philosophica*, dedicated

to king William, to whom he was clerk of the closet. He died in 1715. Since his death have been published, his books *De statu mortuorum et resurgentium*, and *De fide et officiis Christianorum*.

(3.) BURNET. Thomas, a physician of Scotland, of whom nothing is recorded, except what his works set forth; viz. that he was "M. D. Medicus Regius, et Collegii Regii Medicorum Edinb. Socius." These works, however, show his merit and industry. They are entitled, *Tthesaurus Medicinæ Practicæ*, 4to. Lond. 1673; and *Hippocrates Contractus, in quo Hippocratis omnia in brevis Epitomen redacta habentur*; 8vo. Edin. 1685.

(4.) * BURNET. n. f. [*pimpinella*, Lat.] The name of a plant.—

The even mead that erst brought sweetly forth,
The freckled cowslip, burnet, and green clover.
Shakespeare.

(5.) BURNET, in botany. See POTERIUM and SANGUISORBA.

(6.) BURNET, in geography, a town in Somersetshire, 4 m. W. of Bath.

BURNETA, or BURNETUS, in middle æ writers, denotes brown cloth made of dyed wool.

BURNETON-BATTAIL, a village in Northumberland, near Bamburgh Castle.

BURNGATE, in Dorsetshire. 1 m. E. of Lulworth.

BURNHALL, S. W. of Durham.

(1.) BURNHAM, a fishing town of Essex, at the mouth of the river Crouch, which is here called BURNHAM WATER. It is 40 m. E. by N. of London; and has fairs April 25 and Sept. 4.

(2.) BURNHAM, a town in Buckinghamshire, on the Bath road, near the Thames, 3 m. E. of Maidenhead. It has fairs, Feb. 25, May 1. and Sept. 25.

(3.) BURNHAM, a town on the coast of Norfolk, with a harbour. It has a market on Saturday, and fairs March 15 and Aug. 1. On the shore, there are many little eminences, supposed to be the tombs of the Danes and Saxons killed here. It lies 29 m. N. W. of Norwich, and 125 N. E. of London. Lon. o. 48. E. Lat. 53. 4. N.

(4.) BURNHAM, a village in Somersetshire, near the Star Point in the Channel.

(5.) BURNHAM BOVENEY, and EAST BURNHAM, two villages, near BURNHAM, N. 3.

(6.) BURNHAM-DEEPALE, in the N. W. of Norfolkshire. It is famous for its salt marshes, on which sheep thrive well.

(7.) BURNHAM, EAST. See N. 5.

(8.) BURNHAM, NETHER. } Two villages in Ar-

(9.) BURNHAM, UPPER. } holm isle, Lincolnshire.

(10.) BURNHAM WATER. See N. 1. and CROUCH.
BURNHOLM, NORTH. } Two villages in
BURNHOLM, SOUTH. } Yorksh. E. of Pocklington.

(1.) * BURNING. *adj.* [from the participle.] Vehement; powerful.—

These things sting him
So venomously, that burning shame detains him
From his Cordelia. Shakespeare.

I had a glimpse of him; but he shot by me
Like a young hound upon a burning scent.

Dryden.

(2.) * BURNING. n. f. [from burn.] Fire; flame; fire.

state of inflammation.—The mind surely, of itself, can feel none of the *burnings* of a fever. *South.*—

In liquid *burnings*, or on dry to dwell,

Is all the sad variety of hell. *Dryden.*

(3.) BURNING, considered philosophically, is the action of fire on some pabulum or fuel, by which the minute parts thereof are put into a violent motion, and some of them assuming the nature of fire themselves, fly off *in orbem*, while the rest are dissipated in form of vapour or reduced to ashes. See IGNITION.

(4.) BURNING is also applied to the action of many substances, which appear to be cold, or not to contain fire; such as aquafortis, vitriol, &c.

(5.) BURNING, in antiquity, was a method of disposing of the dead much practised by the ancient Greeks and Romans, and still retained by several nations in the East and West Indies. The antiquity of this custom rises as high as the Theban war, where we are told of the great solemnity accompanying this ceremony at the pyre of Menæceus and Archemorus, who were cotemporary with Jair the 8th judge of Israel. Homer abounds with descriptions of such funeral obsequies. In the inward regions of Asia the practice was of very ancient date, and the continuance long: for we are told, that, in the reign of Julian, the king of Chionia burnt his son's body, and deposited the ashes in a silver urn. Coeval almost with the first instances of this kind in the East, was the practice in the western parts of the world. The Herulians, the Getes, and the Thracians, had all along observed it; and its antiquity was as great with the Celtæ, Sarmatians, and other neighbouring nations. The origin of this custom seems to have been out of friendship to the deceased: their ashes were preserved, as we preserve a lock of hair, a ring, or a seal, which had belonged to a deceased friend. Kings were burnt in cloth made of the asbestos, that their ashes might be preserved pure from any mixture with the fuel and other matters thrown on the funeral pile. The same method is still observed with the princes of Tartary. Among the Greeks, the body was placed on the top of a pile, on which were thrown divers animals, and even slaves and captives, besides unguents and perfumes. In Homer's account of the funeral of Patroclus we find a number of sheep and oxen thrown in; then horses followed by two dogs, and lastly by 12 Trojan prisoners. The like is mentioned by Virgil in the funeral of his Trojans; where, besides oxen, swine, and all manner of cattle, we find 8 youths condemned to the flames. The body was covered with the fat of the beasts, that it might consume the sooner; it being reckoned great felicity to be quickly reduced to ashes. For the like reason, where numbers were to be burnt at the same time, care was taken to mix with the rest some of humid constitutions, and therefore more easily to be inflamed. Thus we are assured by Plutarch and Macrobius, that with every ten men it was customary to put in one woman. Soldiers usually had their arms burnt with them. The garments worn by the living were also thrown on the pile, with other ornaments and presents; a piece of extravagance which the Athenians carried to so great a height, that some of the law-givers restrain-

ed them, by severe penalties, from defrauding the living by their liberality to the dead. In some cases, burning was expressly forbid among the Romans, and even looked upon as the highest impiety. Thus infants, who died before the breeding of teeth, were intombed unburnt in the ground, in a particular place set apart for this purpose, called *suggrundarium*. The like was practised with regard to those struck dead by lightning. Some say that burning was denied to suicides. The manner of burning among the Romans was not unlike that of the Greeks: the corpse, being brought out without the city, was carried directly to the place appointed for burning it; which, if it joined to the sepulchre, was called *hustum*; if separate from it, *ustrina*; and there laid on the *rogus* or *pyra*, a pile of wood prepared on which to burn it, built in shape of an altar, but of different height according to the quality of the deceased. The wood used was commonly from such trees as contain most pitch or resin; and if any other were used, they split it for the more easily catching fire: round the pile they set cypress trees, probably to hinder the noisome smell of the corpse. The body was not placed on the bare pile, but on the couch or bed whereon it lay. This done, the next of blood performed the ceremony of lighting the pile; which they did with a torch, turning their faces all the while the other way, as if it were done with reluctance. During the ceremony, decessions and games were celebrated; after which came the *ossilegium*, or gathering of the bones and ashes; also washing and anointing them, and repositing them in urns.

(6.) BURNING, in medicine and surgery, denotes the application of an actual cautery, that is a red hot iron instrument, to the part affected: otherwise denominated *cauterization*.—The whole art of physic among the Japanese lies in the choice of places proper to be burnt; which are varied according to the disease. In the country of the Mogul, the colic is cured by an iron ring applied red-hot about the patient's navel. Certain it is, that some very extraordinary cures have been performed accidentally by burning. See § 8.

(7.) BURNING, or BRENNING, in our old writings, denotes an infectious disease, got in the stews by conversing with lewd women, and supposed to be the same with what we now call the *venereal disease*. In a MS. of the vocation of John Bale to the bishopric of Ossory, written by himself, he speaks of Dr Hugh Weston, who was dean of Windsor in 1556, but deprived by cardinal Pole for adultery; thus: "At this day is lecherous Weston, who is more practised in the arts of breech-burning, than all the whores of the stews. He not long ago brent a beggar of St Botolph's parish." See STEWS.

(8.) BURNING, ACCIDENTAL CURES BY. The following case is recorded in the Memoirs of the Academy of sciences by M. Homberg. A woman of about 35 became subject to a headach, which at times was so violent, that it drove her out of her senses, making her sometimes stupid and foolish, at other times raving and furious. The seat of the pain was in the forehead, and over the eyes, which were inflamed, and looked violently red and sparkling; and the most violent fits of it were

attended with nausea and vomiting. In the time of the fits, she could take no food; but, at all other times, had a very good stomach. M. Homberg had in vain attempted her cure for 3 years with all kinds of medicines: only opium succeeded; and that but little, all its effect being only to take off the pain for a few hours. The redness of her eyes was always the sign of an approaching fit. One night, feeling a fit coming on, she went to lie down upon the bed; but first walked up to the glass with the candle in her hand, to see how her eyes looked: in observing this, the candle set fire to her cap: and as she was alone, her head was terribly burnt before the fire could be extinguished. M. Homberg was sent for, and ordered bleeding and proper dressings: but the expected fit this night never came on; the pain of the burning wore off by degrees; and the patient found herself from that hour cured of the headache, which had never once returned in 4 years after, which was the time when the account was communicated.—Another case, not less remarkable was communicated to M. Homberg by a physician at Bruges. A woman, who for several years had her legs and thighs swelled in an extraordinary manner, found some relief from rubbing them before the fire with brandy every morning and evening. One evening the brandy she had rubbed herself with, took fire and slightly burnt her. She applied some brandy to her burn; and in the night all the water, her legs and thighs were swelled with, was entirely discharged by urine, and the swelling did not again return.

(9.) BURNING ALIVE, among the Romans, a punishment inflicted on deserters, betrayers of the public councils, incendiaries, coiners, and even Christians: It was called CREMATIO. The Jews had two ways of burning; the one called burning of the body, performed with wood and faggots; the other burning of the soul, *combustio animæ*, performed by pouring scalding hot lead down their throats. Incest in the ascending and descending degrees was thus punished by them. But philanthropy is shocked to reflect, for what trifling crimes this horrid punishment has been inflicted among other nations. Even in our own country, till within these 7 or 8 years, *burning alive* was the punishment of *quomen*, convicted of coining or counterfeiting *shillings*! Thus was the weaker sex punished in the most barbarous manner, for a trifling felony, which could hardly wrong any individual above the value of a few pence!

(10.) BURNING BUSH. See BUSH, N. 6.

(11.) BURNING, EXTRAORDINARY CASES OF INTERNAL. We have instances of persons burnt by a fire kindled within their own bodies. A woman at Paris, who used to drink brandy to excess, was one night reduced to ashes by a fire from within, all but her head and the ends of her fingers. Signora Cornelia Zangari, or, as others call her, *Corn. Bandi*, an aged lady, of an unblemished life, near Cesena in Romagna, underwent the same fate in March 1731. She had retired in the evening into her chamber somewhat indisposed; and in the morning was found in the middle of the room reduced to ashes, all except her face, legs, skull, and three fingers. The stockings and shoes she had on were not burnt in the least. The

ashes were light; and on pressing between the fingers, vanished, leaving behind a gross stinking moisture with which the floor was smeared; the walls and furniture of the room being covered with a moist cineritious soot, which had not only stained the linen in the chests, but had penetrated into the closet, as well as into the room overhead, the walls of which were moistened with the same viscous humour. We have various other relations of persons burnt to death in this unaccountable manner. Sig. Mondini, Bianchini, and Maffei, have written treatises express to account for the cause of so extraordinary an event: common fire it could not be, since this would likewise have burnt the bed and the room; besides that it would have required many hours, and a vast quantity of fuel, to reduce a human body to ashes; and, after all, a considerable part of the bones would have remained entire, as they were anciently found after the fiercest funeral fires. Some attribute the effect to a mine of sulphur under the house; others to a miracle; while others suspect that art or villainy had a hand in it. A philosopher of Vienna maintains, that such a conflagration might have arisen from the inflammable matters wherewith the human body naturally abounds. Sig. Bianchini accounts for the conflagration of the lady above mentioned, from her using a bath or lotion of camphorated spirit of wine when she found herself out of order. Maffei supposes it owing to lightning generated in her own body, agreeable to his own doctrine, which is, That lightning does not proceed from the clouds, but is always produced in the place where it is seen and its effects perceived. We have had a late attempt to establish the opinion, that these destroying internal fires are caused in the entrails of the body by inflamed effluvia of the blood; by juices and fermentation in the stomach; by the many combustible matters which abound in living bodies for the purposes of life; and, finally, by the fiery evaporations which exhale from the settlings of spirit of wine, brandies, and other hot liquors, in the tunica villosa of the stomach and other adipose or fat membranes; within which those spirits consider a kind of camphor, which in the night-time, in sleep, by a full respiration, are put in a stronger motion, and are more apt to be set on fire. Others ascribe the cause of such persons being set on fire to lightning; and their burning so entirely, to the greater quantity of phosphorus and other combustible matter they contained. We can by no means pretend to explain the cause of such phenomena: but for the interests of humanity we wish it could be derived from something external to the human body; for if, to the calamities of human life already known, we superadd a suspicion, that we may unexpectedly and without the least warning be consumed by an *internal* fire, the thought is too dreadful to be born.

(12.) * BURNING-GLASS. *n. f.* [from *burning* and *glass*.] A glass which collects the rays of the sun into a narrow compass, and so increases their force.—The appetite of her eye did seem to scorch me up like a *burning-glass*. *Shakespeare*.—Love is of the nature of a *burning-glass*, which, kept still in one place, fireth; changed often, it doth nothing. *Suckling*.—

O diadem, thou centre of ambition,
Where all its different climes are reconciled,
As if thou wert the *burning-glass* of glory!

Dryden.

(13.) BURNING GLASSES are made convex and commonly spherical. The small space upon which the collected rays fall, is called the *focus*; where wood, or any other combustible matter being put, will be set on fire. The term *burning glass* is also applied to those concave mirrors, whether composed of glass quick-silvered, or of metalline matters, which burn by reflection, condensing the sun's rays into a focus similar to the former. See § 15, 16.

(14.) BURNING GLASSES, ANCIENT. The use of burning glasses appears to have been very ancient. Diodorus Siculus, Lucian, Dion, Zonaras, Galen, Anthemius, Eustathius, Tzetzes, and others, attest, that by means of them Archimedes set fire to the Roman fleet at the siege of Syracuse. Tzetzes is so particular in his account of this matter, that his description suggested to Kercher the method by which it was probably accomplished. That author says, that "Archimedes set fire to Marcellus's navy, by means of a burning glass composed of small square mirrors, moving every way upon hinges; which, when placed in the sun's rays, directed them upon the Roman fleet, so as to reduce it to ashes at the distance of a bow-shot." A very particular testimony we have also from Anthemius of Lydia, who takes pains to prove the possibility of setting fire to a fleet, or any other combustible body, at such a distance. That the ancients were also acquainted with the use of catoptric or refracting burning glasses, appears from a passage in Aristophanes's comedy of the clouds, which clearly treats of their effects. The author introduces Socrates as examining Strepsiades about the method he had discovered of getting clear of his debts. He replies, that "he thought of making use of a burning glass which he had hitherto used in kindling his fire; for" says he "should they bring a writ against me, I'll immediately place my glass in the sun at some little distance from it, and set it on fire." Piny and Lactantius have also spoken of glasses that burn by refraction. The former calls them *balls or globes of glass or crystal*, which, exposed to the sun, transmit a heat sufficient to set fire to cloth, or corrode the dead flesh of those patients who stand in need of caustics; and the latter, after Clemens Alexandrinus, takes notice that fire may be kindled by interposing glasses filled with water between the sun and the object, so as to transmit the rays to it. It seems difficult to conceive how they should know such glasses would burn without knowing they would magnify, which it is granted they did not, till towards the close of the 13th century, when spectacles were first thought on. For as to those passages in Plautus which seem to intimate the knowledge of spectacles, M. de la Hire observes, they do not prove any such thing; and he solves this, by observing, that their burning glasses being spheres, either solid or full of water, their foci would be one fourth of their diameter distant from them. If then their diameter were supposed half a foot, which is the most we can allow, an object must

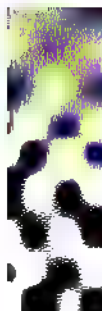
be only at an inch and a half distance to perceive it magnified; those at greater distances do not appear greater, but only more confused through the glass than out of it. It is no wonder, therefore, the magnifying property of convex glasses was unknown, and the burning one known. It is more wonderful that there should have been 300 years between the invention of spectacles and telescopes. Among the ancients, the burning mirrors of Archimedes (§ 16.) and Proclus are famous. By the latter the navy of Vitellius besieging Byzantium, according to Zonaras, was burnt to ashes.

(15.) BURNING GLASSES, MODERN. Among the moderns, the most remarkable burning mirrors are those of Settala, Vilette, Tschirnhausen, Buffon, Trudaine, and Parker. Settala, canon of Padua, made a parabolic mirror, which, according to Schottus, burnt pieces of wood at the distance of 15 or 16 paces. The following things are noted of it in the *Acta Eruditorum*. 1. Green wood takes fire instantaneously, so as a strong wind cannot extinguish it. 2. Water boils immediately; and eggs in it are presently edible. 3. A mixture of tin and lead, three inches thick, drops presently; and iron and steel plate becomes red-hot presently, and a little after burns into holes. 4. Things not capable of melting, as stones, bricks, &c. become soon red-hot, like iron. 5. Slate becomes first white, then a black glass. 6. Tiles are converted into a yellow glass: and shells into a blackish yellow one. 7. A pumice stone, emitted from a volcano, melts into white glass. 8. A piece of crucible also vitrifies in 8 minutes. 9. Bones are soon turned into an opaque glass, and earth into a black one. The breadth of this mirror is near 3 Leipzig ells, its focus 2 ells from it; it is made of copper, and its substance is not above double the thickness of the back of a knife. Vilette, a French artist of Lyons, made a large mirror, which was bought by Tavernier, and presented to the king of Persia; a 2d bought by the king of Denmark; a 3d presented by the French king to the royal academy; a 4th has been in England, where it was publicly exposed. The effects hereof, as found by Dr Harris and Dr Desaguliers, are, that a silver six-pence is melted in 7" and $\frac{1}{2}$, a halfpenny in 16", and runs with a hole in 34". Tin melts in 3", cast iron in 16", slate in 3"; a fossil shell calcines in 7"; a piece of Pompey's pillar at Alexandria vitrifies the black part in 50", the white in 54"; copper ore in 8"; bone calcines in 4", vitrifies in 33". An emerald melts into a substance like a torquois stone; a diamond weighing 4 grains loses seven 8ths of its weight: the asbestos vitrifies; as all other bodies will do, if kept long enough in the focus; but when once vitrified, the mirror can go no farther with them. This mirror is 47 inches wide, and is ground to a sphere of 76 inches radius; so that its focus is about 38 inches from the vertex. Its substance is a composition of tin, copper, and tin glass. Every lens, whether convex, plano-convex, or convexo-convex, collects the sun's rays, dispersed over its convexity, into a point by refraction; and is therefore a burning glass. The most considerable of this kind is that made by M. de Tschirnhausen: the diameters of his lenses are 3 and 4 feet, the focus

focus at the distance of 12 feet, and its diameter an inch and a half. To make the focus the more vivid, it is collected a second time by a second lens parallel to the first, and placed in that point where the diameter of the cone of rays formed by the first lens is equal to the diameter of the second; so that it receives them all; and the focus, from an inch and a half, is contracted into the space of 8 lines, and its force increased proportionably. This glass vitrifies tiles, slates, pumice-stones, &c. in a moment. It melts sulphur, pitch, and all resins, under water; the ashes of vegetables, woods, and other matters, are transmuted into glass; and every thing applied to its focus is either melted, turned into a calx, or into smoke. Tschirnhausen observes, that it succeeds best when the matter applied is laid on a hard charcoal well burnt. Sir Isaac Newton presented a burning-glass to the royal society, consisting of 7 concave glasses, so placed, as that all their foci join in one physical point. Each glass is about 11 inches and a half in diameter: six of them are placed round the seventh, to which they are all contiguous; and they form a kind of segment of a sphere, whose subtense is about 34 inches and a half, and the central glass lies about an inch farther in than the rest. The common focus is about 22 inches and a half distant, and about an inch in diameter. This glass vitrifies brick or tile in 1", and melts gold in 30". It appears that glass quicksilvered is a more proper material for burning glasses than metals; for the effects of that speculum where-with Mr Macquer melted the platina, seem to have been superior to those above mentioned, though the mirror itself was much smaller. The diameter of this glass was only 22 inches, and its focal distance 28. Black flint, when exposed to the focus, being powdered to prevent its crackling and flying about, and secured in a large piece of charcoal, bubbled up and ran into transparent glass in less than half a minute. Hessian crucibles, and glass-house pots, vitrified completely in 3 or 4 seconds. Forged iron smoked, boiled, and changed into a vitrescent scoria as soon as it was exposed to the focus. The gypsum of Montmartre, when the flat sides of the plates or leaves, of which it is composed, were presented to the glass, did not show the least disposition to melt; but, on presenting a transverse section of it, or the edges of the plates, it melted in an instant, with a hissing noise, into a brownish yellow matter. Calcareous stones did not completely melt: but there was detached from them a circle more compact than the rest of the mass, and of the size of the focus; the separation of which seemed to be occasioned by the shrinking of the matter which had begun to enter into fusion. The white calx of antimony, commonly called *diaphoretic antimony*, melted better than the calcareous stones, and changed into an opaque pretty glossy substance like white enamel. It was observed, that the whiteness of the calcareous stones and the antimonial calx was of great disadvantage to their fusion, by reason of their reflecting great part of the sun's rays; so that the subject could not undergo the full activity of the heat thrown upon it by the burning glass. The case was the same with metallic bodies, which melted so much the

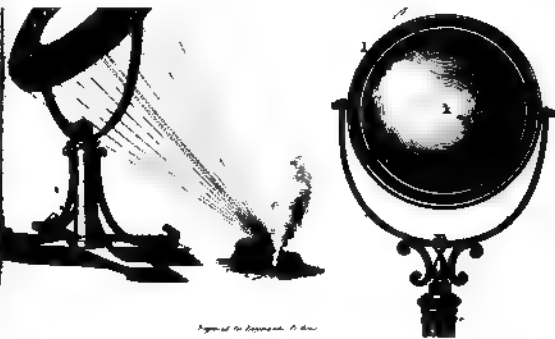
more difficultly as they were more white and polished; and this difference was so remarkable, that in the focus of this mirror, so fusible a metal as silver, when its surface was polished, did not melt at all. M. Trudaine, a French gentleman, constructed a burning lens on a new principle. It was composed of two circular segments of glass, each 4 feet in diameter, applied with their concave sides towards each other. The cavity was filled with spirit of wine, of which it contained 20 pints. It was presented by the maker to the royal academy of sciences, but was, not long after, broken by accident. The expence of constructing it amounted to about 1000 l. sterling. After this, it does not appear that the effects of this lens were very great. Mr Magellan informs us, that it could only coagulate the particles of platina in 12 minutes, while Mr Parker's lens entirely melted them in less than two. See § 17.

(16.) BURNING GLASSES OF M. BUFFON. Plate XLV. Fig. 5. represents M. BUFFON's burning mirror, which he with great reason supposed to be of the same nature with that of Archimedes. It consists of a number of small mirrors of glass quicksilvered, all of which are held together by an iron frame. Each of these small mirrors is moveable by a contrivance on the back part of the frame, that so their reflections may all coincide in one point. By this means they are capable of being accommodated to various heights of the sun, and to different distances. The adjusting them in this manner takes up a considerable time; but after they are so adjusted, the focus will continue unaltered for an hour or more. In 1747 he constructed a machine of this kind, with 140 small mirrors; each about 4 inches long, and 3 broad; these were fixed about a quarter of an inch distant from each other, upon a large wooden frame, of about 6 feet square. The experiment was first tried with 24 mirrors, which readily set on fire a combustible matter, prepared of pitch and tar, and laid on a deal board, at the distance of 10 French feet. He then put together a kind of polyhedron, consisting of 168 pieces of plain reflecting glass, each being 6 inches square; and by means of this some boards of beech were set on fire, at the distance of 150 feet, in the month of March, and a silver plate was melted at the distance of 60 feet. This machine, besides other advantages; may be easily moved, so as to burn downwards or horizontally; and it burns either at its distant focus, or in any nearer interval, which our common burning glasses cannot do, because their focus is wholly fixed. This machine, in the next stage of its improvement, contained 360 small mirrors, each 8 inches long, and 6 broad, mounted on a frame 8 feet high, and 7 broad. With 10 of these mirrors, light combustible matters were kindled at the distance of 20 feet; at the same distance, a large tin vessel was melted with 40, and a thin piece of silver with 117. When the whole machine was employed, all the metals and metallic minerals were melted at the distance of 25, and even of 40 feet. Wood was kindled in a clear sky, at the distance of 210 feet. The focus, at the distance of 50 feet, is about 1 foot broad; and at the distance of 240 feet, it becomes 2 feet in diameter. Buffon afterwards constructed a machine

[illegible]

Parker's Burning Lens

Plate XLV.





a machine which contained 400 mirrors, each half a foot square, with which he could melt lead and tin at the distance of 140 feet. *Fig. 4.* represents a contrivance of M. Buffon's for diminishing the thickness of very large refracting lenses. He observes, that in large lenses of this kind, which are most convenient for many purposes, the thickness of the glass in the middle is so great, as very much to diminish their force. For this reason he proposes to form a burning glass of concentric or circular pieces of glass, each resting upon the other, as represented in the figure. His method is to divide the convex arch of the lens into 3 equal parts. Thus, suppose the diameter to be 26 inches, and the thickness in the middle to be 3 inches: By dividing the lens into 3 concentric circles, and laying the one over the other, the thickness of the middle piece needs be only one inch; at the same time that the lens will have the same convexity, and almost the same focal distance, as in the other case; while the effects of it must be much greater, on account of the greater thinness of the glass.

(17.) **BURNING GLASS OF MR PARKER.** A large burning lens for the purpose of fusing and vitrifying such substances as resist the fires of ordinary furnaces, and especially for the application of heat in vacuo, and in other circumstances in which heat cannot be applied by any other means, has long been a desideratum among persons concerned in philosophical experiments: And it appears now to be in a great degree accomplished by Mr PARKER. His lens is 3 feet in diameter, made of flint glass, and, which, when fixed in its frame, exposes a surface 2 feet 8½ inches in the clear. In the *ELEVATION* represented on *Plate XLV, fig. 1.* A is the lens of the diameter mentioned; thickness in the centre, 3¼ inches: weight 212 pounds; length of the focus, 6 feet 8 inches; diameter of ditto, 1 inch. B, a second lens, whose diameter in the frame is 16 inches, and shows in the clear 15 inches: thickness in the centre, 1½ inches: weight 21 pounds: length of focus 29 inches: diameter of ditto, ¾ of an inch. When the two above lenses are compounded together, the length of the focus is 5 feet 3 inches: diameter of ditto, half an inch. C, a truncated cone, composed of 21 ribs of wood: at the larger end is fixed the great lens A, at the smaller extremity the lesser lens B: near the smaller end is also fixed a rack, D, passing through the pillar L, moveable by a pinion turning in the said pillar, by means of the handle E, and thus giving a vertical motion to the machine. F, a bar of wood, fixed between the two lower ribs of the cone at G; having, within a chaced mortice in which it moves, an apparatus H, with the iron plate, I, fixed thereto; and this part turning on a ball and socket, K, a method is thereby obtained of placing the matter under experiment, so as to be acted upon by the focal rays in the most direct and powerful manner. L L, a strong mahogany frame, moving on castors, M M, immediately under the table N are three friction wheels, by which the machine moves horizontally. O, a strong iron bow, in which the lens and the cone hang. *SECTION. Fig. 2.* a, The great lens marked A in the elevation. b, The frame which contains the lens. c, The small lens marked B. d, The frame which contains the small lens. e, The

truncated cone, marked C. f, The bar on which the apparatus marked F moves. g, The iron plate marked I. h, The cone of rays formed by the refraction of the great lens a, and falling on the lens c. i, The cone of rays formed by the refraction of the lens c. *FRONT VIEW. Fig. 3.* k, The great lens. l, The frame containing it. m, The strong iron bow in which it hangs. From a great number of experiments made with this lens, in the presence of many scientific persons, the following are selected as specimens of its powers.

Substances fused, with their weight and time of fusion.	Weight in Grains.	Time in Seconds.
Gold, pure, - - -	20	4
Silver, do. - - -	20	3
Copper, do. - - -	33	20
Platina, do. - - -	10	3
Nickell, - - -	16	3
Bar iron, a cube, - -	10	12
Cast iron, a cube, - -	10	3
Steel, a cube, - - -	10	12
Scoria of wrought iron, -	12	2
Kearsh, - - -	10	3
Cauk, or terra ponderosa, -	10	7
A topaz, or chrysolite, -	3	45
An oriental emerald, - -	2	25
Crystal pebble, - - -	7	6
White agate, - - -	10	30
Flint oriental, - - -	10	30
Rough cornelian, - - -	10	75
Jasper, - - -	10	25
Onyx, - - -	10	20
Garnet, - - -	10	17
White Rhomboidal spar, -	10	60
Zeolites, - - -	10	23
Rotten stone, - - -	10	80
Common slate, - - -	10	2
Asbestos, - - -	10	10
Common lime-stone, - -	10	55
Pumice stone, - - -	10	24
Lava, - - -	10	7
Volcanic clay, - - -	10	60
Cornish moor-stone, - -	10	60

(18.) **BURNING LENS.** See § 15, 17.

(19.) **BURNING MIRRORS.** See § 13—16.

(20.) **BURNING MOUNTAINS.** See *ÆTNA, ETNA, HECLA, VESUVIUS, and VOLCANO*, with the plates accompanying them.

(21.) **BURNING OF COLOURS, among painters.** There are several colours that require burning; as, 1. Lamp-black, which is a colour of so greasy a nature, that, except it is burnt, it will require a long time to dry. The method of burning, or rather drying, lamp-black, is as follows; Put it into a crucible over a clear fire, letting it remain till it be red hot, or so near it that there is no manner of smoke arises from it. 2. Umber, which if it be intended for colour for a horse, or to be a shadow for gold, then burning fits it for both purposes. In order to burn umber, you must put it into the naked fire, in large lumps, and not take it out till it is thoroughly red hot; if you have a mind to be more curious, put it into a crucible, and keep it over the fire till it be red hot. 3. Ivory also must be burnt to make black, thus: Fill two crucibles with shavings of ivory, then clap their two mouths together, and bind them fast with an iron wire, and

and lute the joints close with clay, salt, and horse dung, well beaten together; then set it over the fire, covering it all over with coals: let it remain in the fire till the matter inclosed is thoroughly red hot: then take it out, but do not open the crucibles till they are perfectly cold; for were they opened while hot, the matter would turn to ashes; as it will still do, if the joints are not luted close.

(22.) BURNING OF LAND, called also DENSHIRING, from Devonshire, a county in which it has been long practised, is a method of preparing and fertilizing barren, sour, heathy, or rushy lands, for corn or pasture; by paring off the turf, and burning it on the ground.

(23.) BURNING OF METALS is either performed by fire, or by corrosive salts; which last method is also denominated CEMENTATION. The first preparation of most ores is by burning, to dispose them for fusion. This is usually performed by exposing them, without addition, to the naked fire; sometimes fixed alkalis and absorbents are added, to hinder the avolation of the metalline particles. The baser metals, tin and lead, may be burnt like plants to ashes.

(24.) BURNING PLANT. See EUPHORBIA.

(25.) BURNING SPRINGS. Of these there are many in different parts of the world; particularly one in France in the department of Isere, near Grenoble; another near Hermanstadt in Transylvania; a 3d at Chermay, a village near Switzerland; a 4th in the canton of Friburg; and a 5th not far from the city of Cracow in Poland. There also is, or was, a famous spring of this kind at Wigan in Lancashire, which, upon the approach of a lighted candle, would take fire and burn like spirit of wine for a whole day. But the most remarkable one, or at least that of which we have the minutest description, was discovered in 1711, at Brosely in Shropshire. The following account of this remarkable spring was given by the rev. Mr Mason Woodward, professor at Cambridge, dated Feb. 18th 1746. "The well for 4 or 5 feet deep is 6 or 7 feet wide; within that is another less hole of like depth dug in the clay, in the bottom whereof is placed a cylindric earthen vessel, of about 4 or 5 inches diameter at the mouth, having the bottom taken off, and the sides well fixed in the clay rammed close about it. Within the pot is a brown water, thick as puddle, continually forced up with a violent motion beyond that of boiling water, and a rumbling hollow noise, rising or falling by fits 5 or 6 inches; but there was no appearance of any vapour rising, which perhaps might have been visible, had not the sun shone so bright. Upon putting a candle down at the end of a stick, at about a quarter of a yard distance, it took fire, darting and flashing after a very violent manner for about half a yard high, much in the manner of spirits in a lamp, but with great agitation. It was said, that a tea-kettle had been made to boil in about 9 minutes, and that it had been left burning for 48 hours without any sensible diminution. It was extinguished by putting a wet mop upon it; which must be kept there for a little time, otherwise it would not go out. Upon the removal of the mop there arises a sulphureous smoke lasting about a second and yet the water is very cold to the touch. In 1755, this well totally disappeared by

the sinking of a coal-pit in its neighbourhood. The cause of the inflammable property of such waters, is with great probability supposed to be their mixture with petroleum, which is one of the most inflammable substances in nature, and has the property of burning on the surface of water.

(26.) BURNING WELL. See ANCLIFF.

BURNINGHAM, a village in Suffolk, 4 miles N. E. of Holt.

(1.) * To BURNISH. *v. a.* [*burner*, Fr.] To polish; to give a gloss to.—

Dislike me not for my complexion,
The shadow'd livery of the *burnish'd* sun,
To whom I am a neighbour, and near bred.

Shakespeare.

—Make a plate of them, and *burnish* it as they do iron. *Bacon.*—

The frame of *burnish'd* steel, that cast a glare
From far, and seem'd to thaw the freezing air.

Dryden.

(2.) * To BURNISH. *v. n.* To grow bright or glossy.—

I've seen a snake in human form,
All stain'd with infamy and vice,
Leap from the dunghill in a trice,
Burnish, and make a gawdy show,
Become a gen'ral, peer, and beau.

Swift.

(3.) * To BURNISH. *v. n.* [of uncertain etymology.] To grow; to spread out.—

This they could do, while Saturn fill'd the throne,
Ere Juno *burnish'd*, or young Jove was grown.

Dryden.

To shoot, and spread, and *burnish* into air.

Dryden.

—Mrs Primley's great belly she may lace down before, but it *burnishes* on her hips. *Congreve.*

(1.) * BURNISHER. *n. s.* [from *burnish*.] 1. The person that burnishes or polishes. 2. The stick with which bookbinders give a gloss to the leaves of books: it is commonly a dog's tooth set in a stick.

(2.) BURNISHERS, for gold and silver, were formerly made of the teeth of dogs or wolves, set in the end of iron or wooden handles; but a long time past, agates have been introduced and are found preferable. In most cases polished metal answers equally well, as it gives a very good lustre. These are of different forms; straight, or curved, &c. The steel burnishers used by engravers and copper are formed to serve with one end to burnish, and with the other to scrape out errors and scratches.

BURNISHING, the art of smoothing or polishing a metalline body, by a brisk rubbing of it with a burnisher. Book-binders burnish the edges of their books, by rubbing them with a dog's tooth.

BURNISTON, 2 villages in Yorkshire, viz. 1. between Bedal and Thirsk: 2. N. of Scarisdale.

BURNLEY, a town of Lancashire, in a healthy situation, 35 m. S. E. of Lancaster, and 208 N. N. W. of London. It has a market on Sat. and fairs—March 6. Easter eve, May 13, July 10, and Oct. 11. Lon. 2. 15. W. Lat. 53. 46. N.

BURNS, Robert, the latest and one of the most eminent of our modern Scots poets, was born in Ayrshire. Of this extraordinary genius, we have not met with a better account than the following.

Drummond.

drawn up by Mr Reid, bookseller in Glasgow. " Robert Burns was literally a ploughman, but neither in that state of servile dependance nor degrading ignorance, which the situation might be-
 speak in this country. He had the common edu-
 cation of a Scotch peasant, perhaps something more,
 and that spirit of independence, which is sometimes
 to be found, in a high degree, in the humblest
 classes of society. He had genius starting beyond
 the obstacle of poverty, and which would have
 distinguished itself in any situation. His early days
 were occupied in procuring bread by the labour
 of his own hands, in the honourable task of culti-
 vating the earth, but his nights were devoted to
 books and the Muse, except when they were wasted
 in those haunts of village festivity, and in the in-
 dulgences of the social bowl, to which the poet
 was but too immoderately attached in every period
 of his life. He wrote not with a view to encoun-
 ter the public eye, or in the hope to procure fame
 by his productions, but to give vent to the feel-
 ings of his own genius—to indulge the impulse
 of an ardent and poetical mind. Burns, from am-
 bition, or from that restless activity, which is the
 peculiar characteristic of his countrymen, pro-
 posed to emigrate to Jamaica, in order to seek
 his fortune, by the exertion of those talents of which
 he felt himself possessed. It was upon this occa-
 sion, that one of his friends suggested to him the
 idea of publishing his poems, in order to raise a
 few pounds to defray the expence of his passage.
 This idea was eagerly embraced. A cheap edi-
 tion of his poems was first published at Kilmar-
 nock. They were soon noticed by the gentlemen
 in the neighbourhood. Proofs of such uncommon
 genius, in a situation so humble, made the ac-
 quaintance of the author eagerly sought after. His
 poems reaching Edinburgh, some extracts, and an
 account of the author, were inserted in the pe-
 riodical paper, *The Lounger*, which was at that
 time in the course of publication. The voyage of
 the author was delayed, in the hope that a suitable
 provision would be made for him by the generosi-
 ty of the public. A subscription was set on foot
 for a new edition of his works, and was forward-
 ed by the exertions of some of the first characters
 in Scotland. The subscription list contains a great-
 er number of respectable names than almost have
 ever appeared to any similar production; but as
 the book was set at a low price, we have reason
 to know that the return to the author was not
 very considerable. Burns was brought to Edin-
 burgh; for a few months every where invited
 and caressed, and at last one of his patrons pro-
 cured him the situation of an exciseman, with an
 income somewhat less than L.50 per annum. We
 believe, that no steps were taken to better this
 humble income, and he was soon disgusted with
 his situation. His talents were often obscured,
 and finally impaired by excess, and his private
 circumstances were embittered by pecuniary dif-
 ficulties. With regard to his poems, it has been just-
 ly observed, without the apologies arising from his
 situation in life, that they are fully entitled to com-
 mand our feelings, and to obtain our applause.
 Some of his productions, especially those of the
 grave style, possess a high tone of feeling, a pow-
 er and energy of expression, particularly and
 VOL. IV. PART II.

strongly characteristic of the mind and the voice
 of a poet. Of the solemn and sublime, the poems
 entitled *The Vision*, *Despondency*, *The Lament*, *Win-
 ter a Dirge*, and the *Invocation to Ruin*, afford
 striking examples. Of the tender and the moral,
 many advantageous specimens may be found, in
 the Elegiac Verses, intitled *Man was made to
 mourn*, in *The Cottar's Saturday night*, the Stanzas
to a Mouse, and those to a *Mountain Daisy*. There
 is scarcely an image more truly pastoral than that
 of the *Lark*, in the second stanza of the last men-
 tioned poem. It is one of those strokes that mark
 the pencil of the poet, which delineates na-
 ture with the delicate colouring of beauty and of
 taste. Against some passages of his poems it has
 been objected, that they breathe a spirit of liber-
 tinism and irreligion. But it ought to be consid-
 ered, that he attacks only the ignorance and fan-
 aticism of the lower class of people, a fanaticism
 of that pernicious sort which sets *faith* in opposi-
 tion to *good works*. Of religion, he expresses, in
 several places, the justest sentiments, though he has
 been sometimes sufficiently open in his ridicule of
 hypocrisy. Such, we believe, is the faithful portrait
 of a man, who, in his compositions, has discover-
 ed the force of native humour, the warmth and
 tenderness of passion, the glowing touches of a
 descriptive pencil, and that honest pride and in-
 dependence of soul, which are often the Muse's on-
 ly dower. A man who was the pupil of nature,
 the poet of inspiration, and who possessed, in an
 extraordinary degree, the powers and the feelings
 of genius." It is proper to add, that Mr Burns was
 married, and had a family. The occasion of his
 marriage is hinted at by an ingenious writer
 in the *Monthly Magazine*, published by J. John-
 son, Lond. for March, 1797. As the description
 is characteristical of our bard's tender feelings, we
 shall quote the passage:—"When his heart was
 first struck by the charms of village beauty, the
 love he felt was pure, tender, simple, and sincere,
 as that of the youth and maiden in his *Cottar's
 Saturday Night*. If the ardour of his passion hur-
 ried him afterwards to triumph over the chastity
 of the maid he loved, the tenderness of his heart,
 the manly honesty of his soul, soon made him of-
 fer with eager solicitude to repair by marriage
 the injury of love."—The same writer ascribes
 Mr Burns's first attachment to poetry, to an early
 acquaintance not only with the works of *Ramsay*,
Milton, *Beattie*, *Thomson*, *Blair*, *Gray*, &c. but
 also to the poems of *Robert Ferguson*, and other
 original writers in *Rudiman's Weekly Magazine*,
 a periodical work then in universal circulation.
 The benefit which Mr Burns himself had derived
 from such sources, he wished to communicate as
 much as possible to others. A strong evidence of
 this is on record in *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* vol.
 III. p. 598, where a letter from Burns, addressed
 to Sir John, is inserted, giving an account of the
 establishment of a reading society, among a num-
 ber of country people, under the Patronage of
 Mr Riddell of Glenriddell. After mentioning some
 of their principal books, such as Robertson's and
 Hume's histories, Blair's sermons, the *Spectator*,
Idler, *Adventurer*, *Mirror*, &c. he concludes thus;
 "A peasant, who can read and enjoy such books,
 is certainly a much superior being to his neigh-
 bour."

bour, who perhaps stalks behind his team, very little removed, except in shape, from the brutes he drives." Mr Burns died at Dumfries, and having been a member of the Royal Dumfries Volunteers, was interred with military honours, on Monday 25th July 1796, in Dumfries church yard. We cannot conclude our account of this celebrated poet better than by subjoining his epitaph, long ago written by himself.

I.

Is there a whim-inspired fool,
Owre fast for thought, owre hot for rule;
Owre blate to seek, owre proud to snoul?
Let him draw near;
And owre this grassy heap sing dool,
And drap a tear.

II.

Is there a bard of rustic song,
Who, noteless, steals the crowds among,
That weekly to this area throng?
O pass not by!
But with a frater-feeling strong,
Here, heave a sigh.

III.

Is there a man whose judgment clear,
Can others teach the course to steer,
Yet runs, himself, life's mad career,
Wild as the wave?
Here pause—and, through the starting tear,
Survey this grave.

IV.

The poor Inhabitant below
Was quick to learn and wise to know,
And keenly felt the friendly glow,
And softer flame;
But thoughtless follies laid him low,
And stain'd his name.

V.

Reader, attend.—Whether thy soul
Soars fancy's flights beyond the pole,
Or darkling grubs this earthly hole,
In low pursuit;
Know, prudent, cautious, self-controul
Is Wisdom's root.

BURNSAL, a village in Yorkshire, on the Wharfe, between Settle and Paitley Bridge.

BURNSWARK, a hill of Dumfries-shire, in the parish of Hoddum, remarkable for its form, which, from its smoothness and regularity, has all the appearance of art; as well as for the extensive view which it commands, and for the vestiges of Roman works, which may be distinctly traced on its sides and top. Mr Gordon, in his *Itinerary*, has given a particular description of this hill, with a plan of the works in it.

* **BURNT**. *particip. pass.* of *burn*: applied to liquours, it means made hot.—

I find it very difficult to know,
Who, to refresh th' attendant to a grave,
Burnt claret first, or Naples bisket gave. *King.*

BURNT-ELY, a village in Suffolk, between Sudbury and Bilston.

(1.) **BURNTISLAND**, a parish of Scotland, on the coast of Fifeshire, anciently called **KING-HORN WESTER**, about 9 m. N. by W. from Leith; extending about 3 miles every way. The climate

is healthy and warm, owing to the surrounding hills: The soil is rich, and produces excellent crops of wheat, barley and beans. The coast abounds in shell fish. The population, as stated by the rev. Mr Wemyss, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was about 1100, in 1791, and had decreased 290 since 1755.

(2.) **BURNTISLAND**, a royal burgh and sea port town in the above parish, (No. 1.) seated on the frith of Forth, 9 m. N. by W. of Edinburgh. It has the best harbour on the coast, formed by a rocky isle eked out with piers. It is very capacious and of great depth, although it is dry at low water. Docks might be established in it for receiving the largest ships of war. The church is square, with a steeple rising in the centre, and was built by the inhabitants, in 1592, at their own expence, without the aid of the heritors. The old castle, built by the *Durios*, commanded both town and harbour. The place has a natural strength, which, with the conveniency of a port opposite to the capital, made it, during the troubles of 1560, a most desirable post. The French, allies to the queen regent, fortified it strongly. Last century, it held out against Cromwell, till he was obliged to enter into conditions with the inhabitants; part of which were, that he should repair the streets and harbour; in consequence of which the quays, as they now stand, were built by him; and the streets have never been repaired since. In 1715, the town was surprised and possessed by the rebels, who formed the bold design of passing over a body of troops to the opposite shore; which was in part executed under the command of brigadier Macintosh, notwithstanding all the efforts of the men of war. The government of the burgh is vested in 21 persons, viz. 14 guild counsellors, out of whom are chosen 3 bailies; and 7 trades counsellors. A provost is also elected annually, sometimes from among the counsellors, and sometimes from the neighbouring nobility and gentry, in which case he is a supernumerary. This town had a great trade before the union, but it fell off totally after it. It has now, however, a sugar house belonging to a Glasgow company and a vitriol works. Ship building is also carried on by a few hands; and about 12 or 15 tons of kelp are annually made. The advantages of Burntisland for trade and manufactures are immense, if they were properly improved. Lon. 3. 5. W. Lat. 56. 3. N.

BURN TURK, a small district of Fifeshire, about 8 m. from the frith of Forth, abounding in coals.

BURNTWOOD, a town of Essex, situated on a hill, Lon. 0. 25. E. Lat. 51. 38. N.

BURPH, a town N. of Bridport, Dorsetshire.

BURPHAM, in Suffex, N. E. of Arundel.

BURPHANTS, in Surry, S. E. of Woking.

(1.) * **BURR**. *n. f.* The lobe or lap of the cr. *Dit.*

(2.) **BURR**, among huntsmen, the round knob of a horn next a deer's head.

(1.) **BURRA**, an island of Scotland, in the county of Shetland, joined to that of House by a bridge, containing, along with the isles of Havra and Papa, 379 inhabitants, in 1792. See No. 1.

(2.) **BURRA**

(2.) BURRA, a parish in the above island, (N. 1.) united with those of Bressay and Quarff. See BRESSAY, No. 2.

BURRAMPOOTER, the name of a river in India, the magnitude and course of which were scarcely explored till very lately; and of which the following account is given by J. Rennel, Esq; in the 71st volume of the Philosophical Transactions: "The Burrampooter, which has its source from the opposite side of the mountains that give rise to the Ganges, first takes its course eastwards through the country of Thibet, where it is named Sanpoo or Zancu, which bears the same interpretation as the Ganga of Hindostan, namely the river. After winding with a rapid current through Thibet, it washes the border of the territory of Lassa, and then deviating from an E. to a S. W. course, it approaches within 120 miles of Yunan, the most westerly province of China. Here it appears as if undetermined whether to attempt a passage to the sea by the Gulf of Siam, or by that of Bengal; but seemingly determining on the latter, it turns suddenly to the N. W. through Assam, and enters Bengal on the N. E. I have not been able to learn the exact place where it changes its course; but as the people of Assam call it *Burrampoot*, it would appear that it takes this name on entering that country. After its entry into Bengal it makes a circuit round the western point of the Garrow mountains, and then altering its course to S. it meets the Ganges about 40 miles from the sea. On tracing this river in 1765, I was no less surprised to find it rather larger than the Ganges, in its course previous to its entering Bengal. This I found to be from the E.; though all the former accounts represented it as from the N.; and this unexpected discovery soon led to inquiries, which furnished me with an account of its general course, to within 100 miles of the place where the geographer Du Halde left the Sanpoo. I could then no longer doubt, that the Burrampooter and Sanpoo were one and the same river; and to this were added the positive assurances of the Assamers, "That their river came from the northward through the Boutan mountains." The river, during a course of 400 miles through Bengal, bears so near a resemblance to the GANGES, except in one particular, that one description may serve for both. The exception I mean is, that during the last 60 miles before its junction with the Ganges, it forms a stream which is regularly from 4 to 5 miles wide, and but for its freshness might pass for an arm of the sea. I have endeavoured to account for the singular breadth of the Megna, (Burrampooter,) by supposing that the Ganges once joined it where the Issamurty now does; and that their joint waters there scooped out its present bed. The present junction of these two mighty rivers, below Luckipour, produces a body of running fresh water, hardly to be equalled in the old hemisphere, and perhaps not to be excelled in the new. It now forms a gulf interspersed with islands, some of which rival in size and fertility our Isle of Wight. The water at ordinary times is hardly brackish at the extremities of these islands; and in the rainy season, the sea, or at least the surface of it, is fresh to the distance of many leagues out. The quantity of water discharged by the

Ganges, in one second of time during the dry season, is 80,000 cubic feet; but in the place where the experiment was made, the river, when full, has thrice the quantity of water in it, and its motion is also accelerated in the proportion of 5 to 3; so that the quantity discharged in a second at that time is 405,000 cubic feet. If we take the medium the whole year through, it will be nearly 180,000 cubic feet in a second." Mr Rennel, however, does not inform us, whether the experiment was made above or below the junction of the Ganges and Burrampooter. He informs us that in the mouths of the Ganges, particularly the Hugueley or Calcutta river, there is a remarkable bore, or sudden and abrupt influence of the tide into a narrow strait or river; so that boats which lie near the shore immediately quit that station, and make towards the stream of the river as fast as possible. At Calcutta it sometimes rises 5 feet almost instantaneously. In the channels between the islands in the mouth of the Burrampooter, it sometimes rises more than 12 feet, and is so terrible that no boat will venture to pass at spring tide.

BURRANESS, a place in Orkney, where there is an ancient Pictish castle of a circular form, without any entrance but from the top.

BURRANT, EAST, } two villages in the county of Hampshire.
BURRANT, WEST, }

* BURRAS PIPE, [With surgeons.] An instrument or vessel used to keep corroding powers in, as vitriol, precipitate. *Harris.*

BURRA-VOE, a good harbour on the coast of Shetland.

(1.) BURRAY, an island of Scotland on the S. coast of Orkney, 4 m. long and one broad. In 1792, it contained 312 inhabitants.

(2.) BURRAY, an ancient parish in the above island, now united to that of S. Ronaldsay. See RONALDSAY.

BURRE, BOURREE, or BOREE, a kind of dance composed of three steps joined together in two motions, begun with a crotchet rising. The first couplet contains twice 4 measures, the second twice 8. It consists of a balance and coupee.

(1.) BURREL, a village in Yorkshire, 3 miles N. of Snape, and W. of Bedal.

(2.) * BURREL. *n. f.* A sort of pear, otherwise called the red *butter pear*, from its smooth, delicious, and soft pulp. *Philips.*

(3.) * BURREL-FLY. [from *bourreler*, Fr. to execute, to torture.] An insect, called also *oxfly*, *gad-bee*, or *breeze*. *Dict.*

(4.) * BURREL SHOT. [from *bourreler*, to execute, and *shot*.] In gunnery, small bullets, nails, stones, pieces of old iron, &c. put into cases, to be discharged out of the ordnance; a sort of case-shot. *Harris.*

BURRELL. See BURELL.

BURRELS, a village of Westmoreland, S. of Appleby.

BURKINGTON, two villages in Devonshire, 1. N. of Cumleigh: 2. N. of Plympton.

BURRIS. See BORRIS, No. 2.

BURRISALEIGH, a village of Ireland, in Tipperary, Munster, 78 m. from Dublin.

BURROBY, in Yorksh. 3 m. from Thirsk.

* BURROCK. *n. f.* A small wear or dam, where

where wheels are laid in a river for catching of fish. *Philips.*

BURRODEN, a village in Northumberland, near the two Treweths.

BURRON HILL, in Dumfries-shire. The vestiges of an ancient camp, with a strong double fosse, are still visible on it.

(1.) BURROUGH, a town in Norfolk, between Fakenham and Holt.

(2.) BURROUGH. See BOROUGH, § 2.

BURROUGHS'S MACHINE, an invention by Mr Burroughs of Southwark, for which the society for the encouragement of arts gave him a premium of L. 70. See Plate XLIV. fig. 8 and 10. This machine consists of a cog-wheel, A, fig. 8; 12 feet in diameter, carrying 72 cogs; which turn a trundle-head B, one foot 4 inches in diameter and furnished with 8 rounds; and also an horizontal spur-wheel C, of 12 cogs, and one foot 8 inches in diameter. The trundle-head B turns a spur-wheel D of 10 cogs, and 2 feet 8 inches in diameter. This spur-wheel has two cranks, *a*, *b*, in its shaft; one of which, *a*, gives motion to a wooden frame, *e*, about 34 inches long and 19 broad. On the under side of this frame are fastened by screws 12 pieces of polished metal, $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, and 3 broad, covered with leather; and underneath these polishers, a glass plate cemented in another frame, is placed on the bench, *d*, and polished with tripoli by the motion given to the upper frame of the crank, *e*. The nuts of the screws, which fasten the polishers to the upper frame, are not screwed close to the wood, in order to give the frame room to play; by which contrivance the perpendicular rise of the crank is avoided, and the motion of the polishers always parallel and equal. The under frame may be moved by the hand in any direction without stopping the machine; by which means the plate, when larger than the polishing frame can cover in its motion, will be equally polished in every part. The other crank, *b*, gives motion to two other polishers, marked *n*, *o*, which have an alternate motion by the bending of the crank; they move upon the same plate, and have an equal number of polishers, as that already described. The same crank also gives motion to a contrivance represented at *e*, for polishing spectacle glasses. It consists of two segments of the same sphere; one concave and the other convex. On the latter the glasses are cemented; and polished by the former, which is moved by the crank *b*. The convex segment may be moved by the hand without stopping the machine, so that all the glasses on its superficies will be equally polished. The other spur-wheel C, by means of a crank in its shaft, gives motion to another frame, *g*, employed in grinding the glass plates. The rod, *h*, extended from the crank *f*, to the frame *g*, is fastened to the latter by means of a pivot, in order to admit of a rotatory motion, as well as that given it by the crank in a longitudinal direction. This rotatory motion is effected by means of a rod of iron *i*, called a *trigger*, sharp at the extremity next the frame, where it touches the teeth of an horizontal spur-wheel, or circular piece of wood, fixed to the grinding plate, while the other end is extended 3 feet 2 inches, to the centre of the

motion. But this contrivance, in which the merit of the machine principally consists, will be much better conceived from a small delineation of it by itself, fig. 9. where F is the crank marked *f* in fig. 8. and turned by the spur-wheel C in the same figure. G is the trigger, 3 feet 2 inches long. I, a roll fixed on the trigger for the rod to slide on. H, the horizontal spur-wheel, 11 inches in diameter, fixed on the grinding plate; the teeth of which is touched by the trigger; but with a very unequal force, as it will wholly depend upon the grinding plate being farther from, or nearer to, the centre of motion of the trigger. By this simple contrivance, the grinding plate has a very compound motion, never moving exactly in the same tract, and therefore must grind the plates equally in every part. Several attempts have been made by others for producing the same effect; but without success; the grinding plate always follows the same tract, and consequently the plates are ground unequally.

(1.) * BURROW, BERG, BURG, BURGH. *s. f.* [derived from the Saxon *burg*, *hürrg*, a city, tower, or castle, *Gibson's Camden.*] 1. A corporate town, that is not a city, but such as sends burgesses to the parliament. All places that, in former days, were called *boroughs*, were such as were fenced or fortified. *Coaruel.*—

King of England shalt thou be proclaim'd
In ev'ry burrow, as we pass along. *Shake.*
—Possession of land was the original right of election among the commons; and *burrows* were entitled to sit, as they were possessed of certain tracts. *Temple.* 2. The holes, made in the ground by conies.—When they shall see his crest up again, and the man in blood, they will out of their *burrows*, like conies after rain, and revel all with him. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) BURROW, Sir James, master of the crown office, was elected F. R. S. and F. A. S. 1751. On the death of Mr West, in 1773, he was prevailed on to fill the president's chair at the Royal Society till the anniversary election, when he resigned it to Sir John Pringle: and Aug. 10, 1773, when the society presented an address to the king, he was knighted. He published two volumes of Reports in 1766: two others in 1771 and 1776; and a volume of Decisions of the Court of King's Bench, upon settlement cases from 1732 to 1772, (to which was subjoined An Essay on Punctuation,) in 3 parts 4to, 1768, 1772, 1776. The Essay was also printed separately in 4to, 1773. He published, without his name, "A few Anecdotes and Observations relating to Oliver Cromwell and his family, serving to rectify several errors concerning him:" published by Nicol. Corn. Papadopolis, in his *Historia Gymnasii Patavini*, 1763, 4to. He died in 1782.

(3—5.) BURROW; 3 villages; viz. 1. S. of Lancaster: 2. in Leicestershire, near Billeston: and, 3. in Norfolk, near Alesham.

* To BURROW. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To make holes in the ground; to mine, as conies or rabbits.—Some strew sand among their corn, which they say, prevents mice and rats *burrowing* in it; because of its falling into their ears. *Mortimer.*—Little sinuses would form, and *burrow* underneath. *Sharp.*

BURROWAN, a place in Dunfermline, in Culro's parish, where there are the remains of an old Danish camp.

BURROWBRIDGE, a town in Yorkshire, seated on the river Ure. See **BOROUGHBRIDGE**.

BURROW-DUCK, an English name given the *Anas Tadorna*. See **ANAS**, N° 36.

BURROW-GREEN, 2 miles from Cambridge and 1 from Newmarket.

BURROW-HILL, near Daventry, Northamptonshire.

BURROWMUIR, a district in the county of Linlithgow, where Edward I. lay with his vast army, the night before the battle of Falkirk. Though now inclosed, it still retains its ancient name.

(1.) * **BURR PUMP**. [In a ship.] A pump by the side of a ship, into which a staff 7 or 8 feet long is put; having a burr or knob of wood at the end, which is drawn up by a rope fastened to the middle of it, called also a *bilge-pump*. *Harris*.

(2.) **BURR-PUMP**, or **BILGE-PUMP**, differs from the common pump, in having a staff 6, 7, or 8 feet long, with a bar of wood, whereto the leather is nailed, and this serves instead of a box. Two men, standing over the pump, thrust down this staff, to the middle whereof is fastened a rope, for 6, 8, or 10 men to hale by, thus pulling it up and down.

BURR REED. See **SPARGANJUM**.

(1.) **BURSA**, **BURSE**, originally signifies a purse. In writers of the middle age it is more particularly used for a little college, or hall in an university, for the residence of students, called *burgales* or *burgarii*. In some universities it still denotes a foundation for the maintenance of poor scholars in their studies. The nomination to burse is in the hands of the patrons and founders thereof. The burse of colleges are not benefices, but mere places assigned to certain countries and persons. A burse becomes vacant by the burser's being promoted to a cure.

(2.) **BURSA**, or **PURSA**, the capital of Bithynia in Asia Minor, situated in a fine fruitful plain, at the foot of mount Olympus, about 100 miles S. of Constantinople. It is one of the largest and finest cities of Asiatic Turkey, and contains about 10,000 Turks, besides 300 families of Greeks, 400 of Jews, and 500 of Armenians. It was the capital of the Turkish empire, before the taking of Constantinople. Part of it stands on several small hills at the foot of Olympus. The plain is covered with mulberry and various other fruit trees. The mosques and caravanseras are elegant; and so many springs proceed from Olympus that every house has its fountain. The bazaar contains all the commodities of the East. See **BAZAR** and **BE-SISTAN**. It also abounds in their own manufactures; the best workmen in Turkey residing in this town, and being excellent imitators of the French and Italian artists; particularly in tapestry. Lon. 29. 5. E. Lat. 39. 22. N.

BURSA MUCOSA. See **ANATOMY**, *Index*.

BURSALES. See **BURSA**, N° 1.

(1.) **BURSA PASTORIS**, in botany. See **THLASPI**.

(2.) **BURSA PASTORIS MINOR**. See **DRABA**.

(1.) * **BURSAR**. *n. f.* [*burgarius*, Lat.] 1. The treasurer of a college. 2. Students sent as exhibi-

tioners to the universities in Scotland by each presbytery, from whom they have a small yearly allowance for four years.

(2.) **BURSARS** or **BURERS** also denote those to whom stipends are paid out of a burse or fund appointed for that purpose.

BURSARIA, the bursary, or exchequer of collegiate and conventual bodies; or the place of receiving, paying, and accounting by the burser.

BURSARII, 1. Butlers of a college: 2. Privileged students. See **BURSA**, N° 1. and **BURSAR**.

BURSARY. See **BURSERY**.

BURSCOMB, a village in Lancashire, near Latham and Ormskirk.

(1.) * **BURSE**. *n. f.* [*bourse*, Fr. *burfa*, Lat. a purse; or from *byrsa*, Lat. the exchange of Carthage.] An exchange where merchants meet, and shops are kept; so called, because the sign of the purse was anciently set over such a place; the Exchange in the Strand was termed Britain's Burse by James I. *Philips*.

(2.) **BURSE**, Guiccardin assures us, was first applied to a commercial edifice at Bruges, and took its rise from an hotel, built by a lord of the family de la Bourse, whose arms, which are 3 purses, are still found on the crowning over the portal of the house. Catel's account is somewhat different, viz. that the merchants of Bruges bought a house to meet in, at which was the sign of the purse. From this city the name was afterwards transferred to similar places in Antwerp, Amsterdam, Bergen in Norway, London, &c. This last, anciently known by the name of the *common burse of merchants*, had the denomination since given it by queen Elizabeth, of the *royal exchange*. The most considerable burse is that of Amsterdam, which is a large building, 230 feet long and 130 broad, round which runs a peristyle 20 feet wide. The columns of the peristyle, which are 46, are numbered, for the conveniency of finding people. It will hold 4500 persons. The ancient Romans had public places for the meetings of merchants in most of their trading cities; that built at Rome, A. U. C. 259. under the consulate of Appius Claudius and Publius Servilius, was denominated the *college of merchants*; some remains of it are still to be seen, and are known by the modern Romans under the name *loggia*. The Hans towns, after the example of the Romans, gave the name of *colleges* to their burse.

BURSELEY, a village in Worcestershire, 4 m. S. E. of Broomsgrove.

BURSER. See **BURSAR**.

BURSERIA, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the hexandria class of plants. The calyx is triphyllous; the corolla tripetalous; the capsule carnos, trivalved, and monospermous. There is but one species; viz.

BURSERIA GUMMIFERA, or gum elemi. It is frequent in woods in most of the Bahama islands, and grows speedily to a great height and thickness. The bark is brown, and very like the birch of Britain. The wood is soft and useless, except when pieces of the limbs are put into the ground as fences, when it grows readily, and becomes a durable barrier. The leaves are pinnate; the middle rib 3 or 6 inches long, with the pinnæ set opposite, on footstalks half an inch long. It has yellow

yellow flowers, male and female on different trees. These are succeeded by purple-coloured berries bigger than large peas, hanging in clusters on a stalk of about 5 inches long, to which each berry is joined by a footstalk half an inch long. The seed is hard, white, and of a triangular figure, inclosed within a thin capsule, which divides in 3 parts, and discharges the seed. The fruit, when cut, discharges a clear balsam, esteemed a good vulnerary, particularly for horses. On wounding the bark, a thick milky liquor is obtained, which soon concretes into a resin no way different from the *gum elemi* of the shops. See *AMYRIS*, § 5. Dr Browne, and after him Linnæus, have, according to Dr Wright, mistaken the bark of the root for the *SIMAROUBA*, which is a species of *QUASSIA*. See *Plate XLII. fig. 18.*

BURSERY, 1. A privilege to attend a college in Scotland, without paying fees: 2. A salary bestowed for that purpose at the disposal of some patron: 3. The treasury of a college or monastery.

BURS-HOLDER. See *BOROUGH-HEAD*.

BURSLEM, a village in Staffordshire, 3 m. from Newcastle under Line.

(1.) * **BURST**. *BURSTEN*. *particip. adj.* [from *burst*.] Diseased with a hernia, or rupture.

(2.) * **BURST**. *n. s.* [from the verb.] A sudden disruption; a sudden and violent action of any kind.—

Since I was man,
Such sheets of fire, such *burst* of horrid thunder,
Such groans of roaring wind and rain, I never
Remember to have heard. *Shakef.*

Down they came, and drew
The whole roof after them, with *burst* of thunder,
Upon the heads of all. *Milton.*

Imprison'd fires, in the close dungeons pent,
Roar to get loose, and struggle for a vent,
Eating their way, and undermining all,
Till with a mighty *burst* whole mountains fall. *Addison.*

(1.) * *To BURST*. *v. n.* I *burst*; I have *burst*, or *bursten*. [*burstan*, Saxon.] 1. To break, or fly open; to suffer a violent disruption.—So shall thy barns be filled with plenty, and thy presses shall *burst* out with new wine. *Prov. iii. 10.*—It is ready to *burst* like new bottles. *Joh.*—

Th' egg that soon
Burbling with kindly rupture, forth disclos'd
The callow young. *Milton.*

2. To fly asunder.—

Yet am I thankful; if my heart were great,
'Twould *burst* at this. *Shakef.*

3. To break away; to spring.—

You *burst*, ah cruel! from my arms,
And swiftly shoot along the Mall,
Or softly glide by the Canal. *Pope.*

4. To come suddenly.—

A resolved villain,
Whose bowels suddenly *burst* out; the king
Yet speaks, and peradventure, may recover. *Shakespeare.*

If the worlds
In worlds inclos'd shou'd on his senses *burst*,
He wou'd abhorrent turn. *Thomson.*

5. To come with violence.—

Well didst thou, Richard, to suppress thy voice;
For had the passions of thy heart *burst* out,

I fear, we should have seen decypher'd there
More ranc'rous spight. *Shakef.*

—Where is the notable passage over the river Euphrates, *bursting* out by the vallies of the mountain Antitaurus; from whence the plains of Mesopotamia, then part of the Persian kingdom, begin to open themselves? *Kuolles.*—

Young spring protrudes the *bursting* gems. *Thomson.*

6. To begin an action violently or suddenly.—She *burst* into tears, and wrung her hands. *Arbutnot.*

(2.) * *To BURST*. *v. a.* To break suddenly; to make a quick and violent disruption.—

My breast I'll *burst* with straining of my courage,
And from my shoulders crack my arms asunder,
But I will chastise this high-minded strumpet. *Shakespeare.*

He fasten'd on my neck, and bellow'd out,
As if he would *burst* heav'n. *Shakef.*

—I will break his yoke from off thy neck, and will *burst* thy bonds. *Jer. xxx. 8.*—Moses said also, the fountains of the great abyss were *burst* asunder, to make the deluge; and what means this abyss, and the *bursting* of it, if restrained to Judea? what appearance is there of this disruption there? *Burnet's Theory.*—If the juices of an animal body were, so as by the mixture of the opposites, to cause an ebullition, they would *burst* the vessels. *Arbutnot.*

BURSTALL, 3 villages; 1. N. E. of Leicester on the Stour: 2. in Suffolk, W. of Ipswich: 3. in Yorks. between Huddersfield and Leeds.

BURSTALL-GARTH, in Holderness, Yorks.

BURSTED, GREAT, } two villages in Essex,
BURSTED, LITTLE, } near Billericay.

BURSTEN. See **BURST**, N. 2, and **RUPTURE**.

* **BURSTENNESS**. *n. s.* [from *burst*.] A rupture, or hernia.

BURSTOCK, a village in Dorsetshire, W. of Bemerston.

BURSTON, 5 villages; viz. 1. in Bucks, N. E. of Aylesbury: 2. in Dorsetsh. 4 m. W. of Bournemouth: 3. in Norfolk, 1 m. from Diss: 4. in ditto, 4 m. S. of Holt: and, 5. in Staffordsh. N. E. of Newcastle under Line.

BURSTOW, in Surry, near E. Grinstead.

BURSTWICK, in Holderness, Yorkshire.

(1.) * **BURSTWORT**. *n. s.* [from *burst* and *wort*; *herniaria*, Latin.] An herb good against ruptures. *Diët.*

(2.) **BURST-WORT**. See **HERNIARIA**.

* **BURT**. *n. s.* A flat fish of the turbot kind.

BURTFORD, a town near Salisbury, Wilts.

(1.) * **BURTHEN**. *n. s.* See **BURDEN**.—

Sacred to ridicule his whole life long,
And the sad *burthen* of some merry song. *Pope.*

(2.) **BURTHEN OF A SHIP**. See **BURDEN**, +

* *To BURTHEN*. *v. a.* See *To BURDEN*.

BURTHORP, a village in Gloucestershire, near Lechlade.

BURTICK, a fort in Livonia.

BURTLE HOUSE, near Bridgewater.

(1.) **BURTON**, a town of Lincolnshire, seated on a hill near the Trent; 30 m. N. of Lincoln, and 164 N. by W. of London; also called **BURTON-STATHER**. Lon. 0. 30. W. Lat. 53. 40. N.

(2.) **BURTON**, a town of Westmoreland, seated in a valley near a large hill, called *Farther*.

bill. It is pretty well built, and lies on the great road from Lancaster to Carlisle. Lon. 2. 35. W. Lat. 54. 10. N.

(3.) ^o BURTON. *n. f.* [In a ship.] A small tackle to be fastened any where at pleasure, consisting of two single pulleys, for hoisting small things in or out. *Philips.*

(4.) BURTON, Henry, one of the sufferers under the civil and ecclesiastical tyranny of last century, was born at Birstall, in Yorkshire, in 1579; educated at Cambridge; and took his degrees of M. A. and B. D. there and at Oxford. He was first tutor to lord Carey's sons;—afterwards clerk of the closet to prince Henry and prince Charles; and next appointed to attend the latter into Spain, in 1623: but, probably from speaking too freely of the bishops, was set aside, after his goods were partly shipped. In 1625, he presented a letter to king Charles remonstrating against Dr Laud and Dr Neil, as being popishly affected; for which he was prohibited the court. About this time, however, he obtained the rectory of St Matthews, London, where he preached with so much freedom, that, in 1636, he was summoned before commissioner Duck, to answer for what he had said in two sermons on the 5 Nov. preceding. He appealed to the king, but was suspended by the high commission court; whereupon he absconded, but published his sermons, with reasons for his appeal. He was soon after apprehended by warrant from that state inquisition, the star-chamber; incarcerated in Fleet prison along with the celebrated Prynne and Bastwick, and all his papers seized. They were charged with writing seditious, schismatical, and libellous books, against the church and government. They gave in answers, but the court expunged the greater part of them, and sentenced them to pay a fine of L. 5000 each; and Burton besides to be degraded from his office and degrees, deprived of his benefice, set on the pillory, there to have his ears cut off, and to be afterwards imprisoned for life, denied the use of paper, pens, and ink, and debarred the access of all persons except the keeper,—not even his wife being permitted to see him. After 12 weeks close confinement in Lancaster jail, he was removed in 1637, to Cornet castle in Guernsey, where he was shut up for 3 years, till 1640, when the House of Commons reversed the sentence as illegal, annulled the fine, restored him to his degrees and benefice, and voted him L. 6000 as a compensation for his imprisonment and the loss of his ears. From the confusion of the times, however, he never received this sum, though he was restored to his living. He died in Jan. 1648.

(5.) BURTON, John, D. D. a worthy and learned divine, born in 1696, at Wembworth, in Devonshire, and educated at Oxford. In 1725, being then pro-rector, he spoke a Latin oration, entitled "*Heli; or, An instance of a magistrate's erring through unseasonable lenity;*" written and published with a view to encourage the salutary exercise of academical discipline; and afterwards treated the same subject still more fully in 4 Latin sermons before the university, and published them with appendixes. He also introduced into the schools Locke, and other eminent modern philosophers, as suitable companions to Aristotle; and

printed a double series of philosophical questions; for the use of the younger students; from which Mr. Johnson of Magdalene college, Cambridge, took the hint of his larger work of the same kind, which has gone through several editions. When the settling of Georgia was in agitation, in 1732, Dr Burton preached before the society, and published his sermon, with an appendix on the state of that colony; and he afterwards published an account of the designs of the associates of the late Dr Bray, with an account of their proceedings in that business. About the same time, on the death of Dr Edward Littleton, he was presented by Eton college to the vicarage of Maple-Derham, in Oxfordshire. Here a melancholy scene, which too often appears in the mansions of the clergy, presented itself to his view; a widow, with three infant daughters, without a home, without a fortune: from his compassion arose love, the consequence of which was marriage; for Mrs. Littleton was handsome, elegant, accomplished, ingenious, and had great sweetness of temper. In 1760, he exchanged his vicarage of Maple-Derham for the rectory of Worplesdon in Surrey. In his advanced age, finding his eyes begin to fail, he collected and published, in one volume, all his scattered pieces, under the title of *Opuscula miscellanea*; and soon after died, Feb. 11th, 1771.

(6.) BURTON, Robert, known to the learned by the name of *Democritus junior*, was the son of Ralph Burton, Esq. of Lindley in Leicestershire, and born Feb. 8, 1576. He was educated at Sutton Colefield in Warwickshire; in 1593 was sent to Oxford; and in 1599, was elected student of Christ-church. In 1616, he had the vicarage of St Thomas, in Oxford, conferred upon him by the dean and canons of Christ-church, to the parishioners of which, it is said, that he always gave the sacrament in wafers; and this, with the rectory of Segrave in Leicestershire, given him some time after by George lord Berkeley, he held to his death, in January 1639. He was a man of general learning; a great philosopher; an exact mathematician; and a very curious calculator of nativities. He was extremely studious, and of a melancholy turn; yet an agreeable companion, and very humorous. *The anatomy of Melancholy*, by *Democritus junior*, shows, that these opposite qualities were mingled in his composition. This book was printed first in 4to, afterwards in folio, in 1624, 1632, 1638, and 1642, to the great emolument of the bookseller, who, as Mr Wood tells us, got an estate by it. He died in his chamber at or very near the time which, it seems, he had some years before predicted from the calculation of his nativity; and this exactness made it whispered about, that for the glory of astrology, and rather than his calculation should fail, he had become *felo de se*. This, however, was generally discredited; he was buried with due solemnity in the cathedral of Christ-church, and had a fair monument erected to his memory. He left behind him a very choice collection of books. He bequeathed many to the Bodleian library; and 100l. to Christ-church, the interest of which was to be laid out yearly in books for their library.

(7.) BURTON, William, elder brother of Robert, (N. 6.) was born 24th Aug. 1575; educated

at Sutton-Coldfield; admitted at Oxford in 1591; graduated B. A. in 1594, and afterwards admitted a barrister in the court of common pleas. But his genius soon led him from the law, to the study of antiquities, genealogies, heraldry, &c. in which branches of science he became eminent. In 1602, he corrected Saxton's map of Leicestershire, and added 80 towns to it. In 1612, he drew up the corollary of Leland's life, prefixed to the *Collectanea*. In 1622, he published his great work, *The Description of Leicestershire*. In 1625, he compiled a folio vol. still in M. S. entitled, *Antiquitates de Dadlington*. After suffering much in the civil war, he died at Falde in Staffordshire, 6 April, 1645.

(8—30.) BURTON, the name of 23 small towns and villages; viz. 1. in Berks, near Ashbury: 2. in Buckinghamsh. 3. in Cheshire, near the Dee: 4. five m. E. of Chester: 5. in Dorsetsh. near Bridport: 6. in ditto, W. of Wareham: 7. in Hampshire, between Lymington and Christ-church: 8. in Herefordsh. N. E. of Pembridge: 9. in Kent, near Ashbridge: 10. in ditto, near Tunbridge: 11. in Lincolnsh. between Grantham and Market-Deeping: 12. N. W. of Lincoln: 13. in Norfolksh. 3 m. S. E. of Wurstead: 14. in Northumberland, S. of Bamburgh castle: 15. four m. from Nottingham: 16. in Shropsh. S. of Wenlock: 17. in ditto, between Wenlock and Shrewsbury: 18. in Somersetsh. W. of Bedminster: 19. in ditto, near Somerton: 20. in ditto, near Wyncanton: 21. in Staffordsh. near Penkridge: 22. in the Isle of Wight, near Cowes: and, 23. in Worcester-sh. near Lower Sapy. BURTON also makes part of the names of other 38 towns and villages: viz.

(31.) BURTON-AGNES, E. of Kilham, Yorksh.

(32.) BURTON-BISHOPS, N. of Beverly, Yorksh.

(33.) BURTON, BLACK, N. of Bradwell, Oxf.

(34.) BURTON-CHERRY, N. W. of Beverley, Yorkshire.

(35, 36.) BURTON-CONSTABLE, 1. N. W. of Beverly: 2. between Midlam and Richmond: both in Yorkshire. This last has a market on Frid. and St Mary Magdalen's eve and day.

(37.) BURTON-DORSET, in Warwickshire, 3 m. from Kyneton.

(38—42.) BURTON, EAST; 5 villages; viz. 1. in Nottinghamsh. 3 m. from Gainsborough: 2. in Sussex, between Petworth and Arundel: 3. in Westmoreland, E. of Appleby: 4. in Yorksh. in Holderness: and, 5. in Yorksh. 4 m. N. E. of Richmond.

(43.) BURTON-GRANGE, near Barnsley, York.

(44.) BURTON, GREAT, N. of Dorchester.

(45.) BURTON-HASTINGS, in Warwickshire, between Coventry and Leicester.

(46.) BURTON-HILL, S. of Malmesbury, Wilts.

(47.) BURTON IN BISHOPSDALE, S. W. of Midlam, Yorksh.

(48.) BURTON-LATIMER, in Northampton, S. W. of Kettering.

(49.) BURTON-LAZERS, S. of Melton-Mowbray, in Leicestersh.

(50.) BURTON-LEONARD, in Yorkshire, W. of Boroughbridge.

(51.) BURTON, LITTLE, near Great B. N. 44.

(52.) BURTON, LONG, N. of the White Hart, in Dorsetshire.

(53.) BURTON MAGNA, S. of Branbury, Oxford.

(54.) BURTON, NORTH, N. W. of Bridlington.

(55.) BURTON ON THE WATER, in Gloucestersh.

(56.) BURTON-OVERY, near Hallaton, Leicestersh.

(57.) BURTON PAVA, S. E. of Magna, N. 55.

(58.) BURTON-PIDSEY, in Holderness.

(59.) BURTON-SALMON, N. of Pontefract, in the W. Riding of Yorkshire.

(60.) BURTON-STATHER. See N. 1.

(61.) BURTON SUPER MONTEM, in Gloucestershire, W. of Morton in Marsh.

(62.) BURTON UPON OLDON, in Leicestershire.

(63.) BURTON UPON TRENT, a town of Staffordshire. It had formerly a large abbey; and over the Trent it has a famous bridge of free stone, about a quarter of a mile in length, supported by 37 arches. It consists chiefly of one long street, reaching from the place where the abbey stood to the bridge; and has a good market for corn and provisions. Burton ale is reckoned the best of any brought to London. It lies N. E. of Litchfield, and 124 m. N. N. W. of London. Lon 1. 40. W. Lat. 52. 48. N.

(64—68.) BURTON, WEST, 5 villages, near the 5 East Burtons. See N. 38—42.

(69.) BURTON-WOOD, in W. Derby.

BURWARTON, near Brownlee hill, Salop.

BURWASH, a town in the county of Suff., on the river Rother, N. of Rotherbridge, 8 m. from Battle-Abbey. Fairs, May 12, and Sept. 4.

(1.) BURWELL, a town in the county of Cambridgesh., 3 m. N. of Newmarket Heath. A melancholy event happened in this place, in 1727, at the exhibition of a puppet show, in a barn; where 160 people being assembled, the barn and scenery took fire, and only 5 or 6 persons escaped. The bodies of the dead were so mangled and disfigured, by the fire, and the fall of the roof, that their friends could not recognize them; and they were promiscuously buried in one large grave. *Walker's Gazetteer*.

(2, 3.) BURWELL, two villages; 1. in Hampshire near Hambledon: 2. in Lincolnshire near Althorp.

(4.) BURWELL'S GREEN, N. W. of Ware Park, Hertfordshire.

BURWOOD, in Surry, S. of Walton upon Thames.

(1.) * BURY. *n. f.* [from *burg*, Sax.] A dwelling-place; a termination still added to the names of several places; as, *Aldermanbury*, *St Edmundsbury*; sometimes written *bery*. *Phil.*

(2.) * BURY. *n. f.* [corrupted from *borough*.] It is his nature to dig himself *buries*, as the country doth; which he doth with very great celerity. *Grew*.

(3.) BURY is applied to the holes or dens of such animals as live under ground; such as moles, tortoises, &c. The grillotalpa, or mole-cricket, digs itself a bury with its fore-feet, which are made broad and strong for that purpose. Naturalists speak of a kind of urchins in the island of Mariana, which have two entries to their buries, one towards the N. the other to the S. which they open and shut alternately as the wind happens to lie.

(4.) BURY, in geography, a town of Lincolnshire, seated on the Irwell, famous for its manufactures.

plauded wit in his scholars, even when it reflected on himself. This great man, after a long and healthy life, the effect of temperance, died in 1695, aged 89; and was buried in Westminster abbey, where there is a fine monument erected for him, with a Latin inscription. He composed several books for the use of his school.

BUSCA, } or Busch, in old records, under-
BUSCAS. } wood, or brushwood.

BUSDORPH, a town of Germany in Westphalia; one of the scenes of the French operations under general Kleber, in June 1796.

BUSELAPHUS, in zoology, the name of an animal of the goat kind, called also MOSCHELAPHUS. It is of a middle shape between the stag and ox kind. Its head and ears are long, its legs and feet small, its tail about a foot long, resembling that of a heifer; its upper part reddish and very naked, its lower covered with long hairs. The hair of its whole body is of a tawny colour; its horns are black, smooth at the top, and round every where else. It has two teats, and is tame and fond of play. It is extremely swift in running, and in most respects, except in size, resembles the common antelope. *Ray*.

BUSELINUM. See SELINUM.

(1.) * BUSH. *n. f.* [*bois*, Fr.] *f.* A thick shrub. Eft through the thick they heard one rudely rush,

With noise whereof, he, from his lofty steed,
Down fell to ground, and crept into a bush,
To hide his coward head from dying dread.

Fairy Queen.

—The poller, and exacter of fees, justifies the resemblance of the courts of justice to the bush, whereunto while the sheep flies for defence from the weather, he is sure to lose part of the fleece. *Bacon's Essays*.—

Her heart was that strange bush, whose sacred fire,

Religion did not consume, but inspire
Such piety, so chaste use of God's day,
That what we turn to feast, she turn'd to pray.

Donne.

f With such a care,
As roses from their stalks we tear,
When we would still prefer them new,
And fresh as on the bush they grew. *Waller.*

The sacred ground

Shall weeds and pois'nous plants refuse to bear;
Each common bush shall Syrian roses wear?

Dryden.

2. A bough of a tree fixed up to a door, to shew that liquours are sold there.—If it be true, that good wine needs no bush, 'tis true that a good play needs no epilogue. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) BUSH, a term used for several shrubs of the same kind growing close together: thus we say, a furze-bush, bramble-bush, &c. Bush is sometimes used, in a more general sense, for any assemblage of thick branches interwoven and mixed together.

(3.) BUSH, Paul, the first bishop of Bristol, became a student in Oxford about 1513, and in 1518 took the degree of B. A. He afterwards became a brother of the order of *Bons-hommes*; of which, after studying some time among the friars of St Austin, (now Wadham college,) he was elected provincial. In that station he lived many years; till

Henry VIII. being informed of his great knowledge in divinity and physic, made him his chaplain, and in 1542 appointed him to the new episcopal see of Bristol: but having in the reign of Edward VI. taken a wife, he was, on the accession of Mary, deprived of his dignity, and spent the remainder of his life at Bristol, where he died in 1558, aged 68. Wood says, that while he was a student at Oxford, he was numbered among the celebrated poets of that university; and Pitts gives him the character of a faithful catholic. He wrote, 1. An exhortation to Margaret Burges, wife to John Burges, clothier of King's-wood, in the county of Wilts. 8vo. 2. Notes on the Psalms. 3. Treatise in praise of the cross. 4. Answer to certain queries concerning the abuses of the mass. Records, N^o 25. 5. Dialogues between Christ and the Virgin Mary. 6. Treatise of salves and curing remedies. 7. *The extirpation of ignorance*, &c. in verse, Lond. by Pinson, 4to. 8. *Carmes diversa*.

(4.) BUSH, among huntsmen, a fox's tail.

(5.) BUSH, among wheel-wrights. See BUSHEL, § 1. *def.* 3.

(6.) BUSH, BURNING, the bush wherein the Lord appeared to Moses at the foot of mount Horeb, as he was feeding his father-in-law's flock. As to the person that appeared in the bush, the text says, "That the angel of the Lord appeared unto him in a flame of fire, out of the middle of the bush;" but whether it was a created angel, speaking in the person of God, or God himself, or (as the most received opinion is,) Christ the Son of God, has been matter of some controversy among the learned. Those who suppose it no more than an angel, seem to think that it would be a diminution of the majesty of God, to appear upon every occasion, especially when he has such a number of celestial ministers. But considering that God is omni-present, the notification of his presence by some outward sign in one determinate place, (which is all that is meant by his appearance,) is in our conception less laborious (if any thing laborious could be conceived of almighty power,) than a delegation of angels upon every occasion; and seems to illustrate rather than debase the glory of his nature and existence. But however this be, it is plain that the angel here spoken of was no created being, from the whole context, and especially from his saying, "I am the Lord God, the Jehovah," &c. since this is not the language of angels, who are always known to express themselves in such humble terms as that, "I am sent from God; I am thy fellow servant," &c. It is a vain pretext to say, that an angel, as God's ambassador, may speak in God's name and person; for what ambassador of any prince ever yet said, "I am the king?" Since therefore no angel could assume these titles; and since neither God the Father, nor the Holy Ghost, are ever called by the name of angel, *i. e.* "messenger, or person sent," whereas God the Son is called by the prophet Malachi, (chap. iii. 1.) "The angel of the covenant;" it seems to follow, that this angel of the Lord was God the Son, who might very properly be called an angel, because in the fulness of time he was sent into the world in our flesh, as a messenger from God, and might therefore make use

these his temporary apparitions, presages, and forerunners, as it were, of his more solemn mission. The emblem of the burning bush is used as the seal of the church of Scotland, with this motto; "Though burning, it is never consumed."

* *To BUSH. v. n.* [from the noun.] To grow thick.—

The roses *bushing* round
About her glow'd, half stooping to support
Each flow'r of tender stalk. *Milton.*

A gushing fountain broke
Around it, and above, for ever green,
The *bushing* alders form'd a shady scene.
Pope's Odyssey.

BUSHAM, a town, in Sussex, S. of Arundel.

BUSHBURY, a village in Staffordshire, between Brewood and Walsall.

(1.) BUSHBY, a village in Renfrewshire, where there are two cotton mills.

(2.) BUSHBY, N. of Whartleton Castle, Yorksh.

(3.) BUSHBY PARVA, S. of Stokesley, Yorkshire.

(1.) * *BUSHEL. n. f.* [*boisseau*, Fr. *buffellus*, low Lat.] 1. A measure containing 8 gallons; a strike.—His reasons are as two grains of wheat hid in two *busbels* of chaff; you shall seek all day ere you find them, and when you have them they are not worth the search. *Shak.* 2. It is used, in common language, indefinitely for a large quantity.—The worthies of antiquity bought the rarest pictures with *busbels* of gold, without counting the weight or the number of pieces. *Dryden.* 3. *Busbels* of a cart-wheel. Irons within the hole of the nave, to preserve it from wearing. [from *bouche*, Fr. a mouth.] *Diſ.*

(2.) *BUSHEL*, a measure of capacity for things dry; as grains, pulse, dry fruits, &c. containing 4 pecks, or $\frac{1}{2}$ of a quarter. Du Cange derives the word from *buffellus*, *buffellus*, or *biffellus*, a diminutive of *bux*, or *buxa*, used in the corrupt Latin for the same thing; others derive it from *BUSSULUS*, an *urn*, wherein lots were cast; which seems to be a corruption from *BUXULUS*. *BUSSELLUS* appears to have been first used for a liquid measure of wine, equal to 8 gallons. *Octo libræ faciunt galonem vini, & octo galones vini faciunt buscelum London, quæ est octava pars quarterii.* It was soon after transferred to the dry measure of corn of the same quantity—*Pondus octo librarum framenti facit buscelum, de quibus octo consistit quarterium.* By 12 Hen. VII. cap. 5. a bushel is to contain 8 gallons of wheat; the gallon 8 pounds of wheat troy weight; the pound 12 ounces troy weight; the ounce 20 lb. and the sterling 32 grains, or corn of wheat, growing in the midst of the ear. This standard bushel is kept in the exchequer; when, being filled with the common spring water, and the water measured before the house of commons in 1696, in a regular parallelopiped, it was found to contain 2145,6 solid inches; and the said water being weighed, amounted to 1131 ounces and 14 penny weights troy. Besides the standard or legal bushel, we have several local bushels, of different dimensions in different places. At Abingdon and Andover, a bushel contains 9 gallons; at Appleby and Penrith, a bushel of pease, rye, and wheat, contains 16 gallons; of barley, big, malt, mixt malt, and oats, 20 gallons. A bushel contains, at Carlisle, 24 gallons; at Chester, a bushel of wheat, rye, &c. contains 32 gallons, and of oats

40; at Dorchester, a bushel of malt and oats contains 10 gallons; at Falmouth, the bushel of stricken coals is 16 gallons, of other things 20, and usually 21 gallons; at Kingston upon Thames, the bushel contains $8\frac{1}{2}$; at Newbury, 9; at Wycomb and Reading, $8\frac{1}{4}$; at Stamford 16 gallons.

(3.) *BUSHELS, FRENCH, &c.* At Paris, the bushel is divided into 2 half bushels; the half bushel into 2 quarts: the quart into 2 half quarts; the half quart into 2 litrons; and the litron into 2 half litrons. The bushel should be 8 inches $2\frac{1}{2}$ lines high, and 10 inches in diameter; the quart 4 inches 9 lines high, and 6 inches 9 lines wide; the half quart 4 inches 3 lines high, and 5 inches in diameter; the litron $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches high, and 3 inches 10 lines in diameter. Three bushels make a minot, six a mine, 12 a septier, and 144 a muid. In other parts of France the bushel varies: 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ bushels of Amboise and Tours make the Paris septier: 20 bushels Avignon make 3 Paris septiers: 20 bushels of Blois make one Paris septier: 2 bushels of Bourdeaux make one Paris septier: 32 bushels of Rochel make 19 Paris septiers. Oats are measured in a double proportion to other grains; so that 20 bushels of oats make a septier, and 248 a muid. The bushel of oats is divided into 4 picotins, the picotin into 2 half quarts, or 4 litrons. For salt 4 bushels make one minot, and 6 a septier. For coals 8 bushels make one minot, 16 a mine, and 320 a muid. For lime, 3 bushels make a minot, and 48 minots a muid. See MEASURE and WEIGHT.

BUSHFORD, a town in Somersetshire, near Dulverton.

BUSH-HILL, near Edmondton, Middlesex.

* *BUSHINESS. n. f.* [from *bushy*.] The quality of being bushy.

BUSHLEY, near Tewksbury, Worcestershire.

BUSH-MEAD, near Eaton, Bedfordshire.

* *BUSHMENT. n. f.* [from *bush*.] A thicket; a cluster of bushes.—Princes thought how they might discharge the earth of woods, briars, *bushments*, and waters, to make it more habitable and fertile. *Raleigh.*

BUSH-MILLS, a village of Ireland in the county of Antrim, Ulster.

BUSHTON, in Clavepepper parish, Wilts.

(1.) * *BUSHY. adj.* [from *bush*.] 1. Thick; full of small branches, not high.—

The gentle shepherd sat beside a spring,
All in the shadow of a *bushy* brier. *Spenser.*
—Generally the cutting away of boughs and suckers at the root and body, doth make trees grow high; and, contrariwise, the polling and cutting of the top, make them spread and grow *bushy*. *Bacon.* 2. Thick like a bush.—Statues of this god, with a thick *bushy* beard, are still many of them extant in Rome. *Addis.* 3. Full of bushes.

The kids with pleasure browse the *bushy* plain;
The show'rs are grateful to the swelling grain.

Dryden.

(2, 3.) *BUSHY*, two villages; viz. 1. in Hertfordsh. near Watford: 2. two m. from Leicester.

(4.) *BUSHY-HALL*, N. W. of Watford.

(5.) *BUSHY-LEASE*, a village in Hampshire, in the parish of Fackham, has fairs in April and Oct.

(6.) *BUSHY-PARK*, near Hampton Court.

* *BUSINESS. adj.* [from *buſs*.] At leisure; without business; unemployed.—

Some squire perhaps you take delight to rack,

Who visits with a gun, presents with birds,

Then gives a smacking *buff*.

Pope.

A boat for fishing. [*bufse*, German.] If the king could enter towards building such a number of boats and *buffs*, as each company could easily manage, it would be an encouragement both of honour and advantage. *Temple.*

(1.) BUSS, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) is a small sea vessel, used by us and the Dutch, in the herring fishery, commonly from 48 to 60 tons burden, and sometimes more: a buss has two small sheds or cabins, one at the prow and the other at the stern; that at the stern serves for a kitchen. Every buss has a master, an assistant, a mate, and seamen in proportion to the size of the vessel; the master commands in chief, and without his express orders the nets cannot be cast nor taken up; the assistant has the command after him; and the mate next, whose business is to see the seamen manage their rigging in a proper manner, to mind those who draw in their nets, and those who kill, gut, and cure the herrings, as they are taken out of the sea: the seamen generally engage for a whole voyage in the buss. The provision, which they take on board the busses, consist commonly in biscuit, oat meal, and dried or salt fish; the crew being content for the rest with what fresh fish they catch. See FISHING.

* To BUSS. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To kiss; to salute with the lips.—

Yonder walls, that partly front your town,
Yond towers, whose wanion tops do *buss* the clouds,

Must kiss their feet. *Shakespeare.*

Go to them with this bonnet in thy hand,
Thy knee *buffing* the stones; for in such business,
Action is eloquence. *Shakespeare.*

BUSSA, a large sort of vessel of war, in use in the middle age, spoke of by antiquaries and historians under the denominations of *buffa*, *bufcia*, *burua*, *buza*, *bucca*, and *bucia*.

BUSSAGE, a hamlet of Bisley, Gloucestershire.

BUSSARA, or BASSORA. See BASSORA.

BUSSELLUS. See RUSHEL.

BUSSORES, from Bassora, whence they were originally brought, a name given by some to that species of pigeon called the carrier.

BUSSULUS. See BUSHEL, § 2.

BUSSY, Roger Rabutin, count of. See RABUTIN.

(1.) * BUST. *n. f.* [*buſto*, Ital.] A statue representing a man to his breast.—Agrippa, or Caligula, a common coin, but a very extraordinary *bust*; and a Tiberius, a rare coin, but a common *bust*. *See on Italy.*—

Ambition ligh'd: she found it vain to trust
The faithless column, and the crumbling *bust*.

Pope.

(2.) BUST, or BUSTO, in sculpture, denotes the figure or portrait of a person in relieve, showing only the head, shoulders, and stomach, the arms being lopped off; ordinarily placed on a pedestal or console. In speaking of an antique, we say the head is marble, and the bust porphyry, or bronze, that is, the stomach and shoulders. Fea observes, that though in painting, one may say a figure appears in busto, yet it is not proper-

ly called a *bust*, that word being confined to things in relieve. The bust is the same with what the Latins called HERMA, from the Greek Hermes, Mercury, the image of that god being frequently represented in this manner among the Athenians.

(3.) BUST is also used, especially by the Italians, for the trunk of a human body, from the neck to the hips.

(1.) BUSTA GALLICA, was a place in ancient Rome, wherein the bones of the Gauls, who first took the city, and were slain by Camillus, were deposited. It differed from

(2.) BUSTA GALLORUM, a place on the Apennines, so called from many thousands of Gauls being killed there by Fabius

BUSTAH, a town of Orkney, in Fair Isle.

(1.) * BUSTARD. *n. f.* [*hifarde*, Fr.] A wild turkey.—His sacrifices were phenicopters, peacocks, *buffards*, turkeys, pheasants; and all these were daily offered. *Hakewill.*

(2.) BUSTARD, in ornithology. See OTIS.

BUSTA VOE, a harbour on the coast of Shetland.

BUSTELLUS. See BUSHEL, § 2.

* BUSFLE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A tumult; a hurry; a combustion.—

Wisdom's self

Of seeks to sweet retired solitude:

She plumes her feathers, and lets grow her wings,

That in the various *buffle* of resort,

Were all too ruff'd.

Milton.

—This is the creature that pretends to knowledge, and that makes such a noise and *buffle* for opinions. *Glauville.*—Such a doctrine made a strange *buffle* and disturbance in the world, which then sat warm and easy in a free enjoyment of their lusts. *South.*—If the count had given them a pot of ale after it, all would have been well, without any of this *buffle*. *Spectator.*

* To BUSTLE. *v. n.* [of uncertain etymology; perhaps from *busy*.] To be busy; to stir; to be active.—

Come, *buffle*, *buffle*—caparison my horse. *Shak.*

God take king Edward to his mercy,

And leave the world for me to *buffle* in. *Shakes.*

—Sir Henry Vane was a busy and *buffling* man, who had credit enough to do his business in all places. *Clarendon.*—

A poor abject worm,

That crawl'd a while upon a *buffling* world,

And now am trampled to my dust again.

Southerne.

Ye sov'reign lords, who sit like gods in state,
Awing the world, and *buffling* to be great!

Granville.

* BUSTLER. *n. f.* [from *buffle*.] An active stirring man.

BUSTLETON, two towns: 1. in Hampshire, 12 miles from Portsmouth: 2. in Northumberland, near Heydon.

BUSTO. See BUST, § 2.

BUSTON, two villages; 1. in Kent, near Maidstone: 2. in Northumberland, near Alnwick.

BUSTROPHE. See BOUSTROPHEDON.

BUSTUARIÆ MOECHÆ, in antiquity, according to some, women that were hired to accompany the funeral and lament the loss of the deceased: but others are of opinion, that they were rather

rather common prostitutes, that stood among the tombs, graves, and other such lonely places.

BUSTUARIUM, in Roman antiquity, gladiators who fought about the bustum or funeral pile of a person of distinction, that the blood which was spilt, might serve as a sacrifice to the infernal gods, and render them more propitious to the manes of the deceased. This custom was introduced in the room of the more inhuman one of sacrificing captives at the bustum, or on the tombs of warriors.

(1.) **BUSTUM**, in antiquity, denotes a pyramid or pile of wood, whereon were anciently placed the bodies of the deceased, in order to be burnt. The Romans borrowed the custom of burning their dead from the Greeks. The deceased, crowned with flowers, and dressed in his richest habits, was laid on the bustum. Some authors say, it was only called *bustum*, after the burning, *quasi beneustum*: before the burning it was more properly called *pyra*; during it, *rogus*: and afterwards, *bustum*. When the body was only burnt there, and buried elsewhere, the place was not properly called *bustum*, but *ustrina*, or *ustrinum*. *Bustum* was also figuratively applied to denote any tomb. Whence those phrases, *facere bustum*, *violare bustum*, &c.

(2.) **BUSTUM**, in the Campus Martius, was a structure whereon the emperor Augustus first, and after him the bodies of his successors, were burnt. It was built of white stone, surrounded with an iron palisade, and planted within with alder trees.

(3.) **BUSTUM OF AN ALTAR**, was the hearth or place where the fire was kindled.

BUSTWATH HILL, in Cumberland, near Burgh-Marsh.

* **BUSY**. *adj.* [*byrsian*, Sax. It is pronounced as *bissy*, or *bizzy*.] 1. Employed with earnestness.—My mistress sends you word, that she is *busy*, and cannot come. *Shakespeare*. 2. Bustling; active; meddling.—

The next thing which she waking looks upon,
On meddling monkey, or on *busy* ape,
She shall pursue it with the soul of love. *Shakespeare*.

Thus *busy* pow'r is working day and night;
For when the outward senses rest do take.

A thousand dreams, fantastical and light,
With flutt'ring wings, do keep her still awake.

Davies.

The coming spring would first appear,
And all this place with roses strow,

If *busy* feet would let them grow. *Waller*.

—All written since that time, seem to have little more than events we are glad to know, or the controversy of opinions, wherein the *busy* world has been so much employed. *Temple*.—Religious motives and instincts are so *busy* in the heart of every reasonable creature, that no man would hope to govern a society, without regard to those principles. *Addison*. 3. Troublesome; vexatiously importunate or intensive.—The Christians, sometimes valiantly receiving the enemy, and sometimes charging them again, repulsed the proud enemy, still *busy* with them. *Knolles's History of the Turks*.

* **To BUSY**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To employ; to make or keep busy.—

He in great passion all this while did dwell,
More *busy*ing his quick eyes her face to view,
Than his dull ears to hear what she did tell.

Fairy Queen.

—The pleasure which I took at my friend's picture herein, idly *busied* me thus to express the same. *Carew's Survey*.—

Be it thy course to *busy* giddy minds

With foreign quarrels. *Shakespeare*.

—While they were *busied* to lay the foundation, their buildings were overthrown by an earthquake, and many thousands of the Jews were overwhelmed. *Raleigh*.—The points which *busied* the devotion of the first ages, and the curiosity of the latter. *Decay of Piety*.—The ideas it is *busied* about, shall be natural and congenial ones, which it had in itself. *Locke*.—The learning and disputes of the schools have been much *busied* about genus and species. *Locke*.—For the rest, it must be owned, he does not *busy* himself, by entering deep into any party, but rather spends his time in acts of hospitality. *Swift*.

* **BUSYBODY**. *n. s.* [from *busy* and *body*.] A vain, meddling, fantastical person.—Going from house to house, tattlers and *busybodies*, are the canker and rust of idleness, as idleness is the rust of time. *Taylor*.—*Busybodies* and intermeddlers are a dangerous sort of people to have to do with. *L'Estrange*.—She is well acquainted with all the favourite servants, *busybodies*, dependants, and poor relations of all persons of condition in the whole town. *Spectator*.

(1.) * **BUT**. *conjunct.* [*bate*, *butan*, Saxon.] 1. Except.—An emission of immaterial virtues we are a little doubtful to propound, it is so prodigious: *but* that it is so constantly avouched by many. *Bacon*.—

Who can it be, ye gods! *but* perjur'd Lycos!
Who can inspire such storms of rage, *but* Lycos?

Where has my sword left one so black, *but* Lycos?

—Your poem hath been printed, and we have no objection *but* the obscurity of several passages by our ignorance in facts and persons. *Swift*. 2. Except then; had it not been that: in this sense we now write *but that*. See sense 11.

And *but* infirmity,

Which waits upon worn times, hath something seiz'd

His wish'd ability, he had himself

The lands and waters measur'd. *Shakespeare*.

3. Yet; nevertheless. It sometimes only enters yet.—Then let him speak, and any that shall stand without shall hear his voice plainly; *but* yet made extreme sharp and exile, like the voice of puppets: and yet the articulate sounds of the words will not be confounded. *Barrow*.—Our wants are many, and grievous to be born, *but* quite of another kind. *Swift*. 4. The particle which introduces the minor of syllogism; now.—If there be a liberty and possibility for a man to kill himself to-day, then it is not absolutely necessary that he shall live till to-morrow; *but* there is such a liberty, therefore no such necessity. *Bramhall against Hobbes*.—God will one time or another make a difference between the good and the evil. *But* there is little or no difference made

In this world: therefore there must be another world, wherein this difference shall be made.

Hart's Logick. 5. Only; nothing more than.—

If my offence be of mortal kind,
That not my service, past or present sorrows,
Can ransom me into his love again;

But to know so, must be my benefit. *Shakesp.*

What nymph foe'er his voice *but* hears,

Will be my rival, though she have *but* ears.

Ben Johnson.

No, Aurengzebe, you merit all my heart,
And I'm too noble *but* to give a part. *Dryden.*

—Did *but* men consider the true notion of God,
he would appear to be full of goodness. *Tillotson.*

—If we do *but* put virtue and vice in equal circumstances,
the advantages of ease and pleasure will be found to be on the side of religion. *Tillot-*

son.—The mischiefs or harms that come by play,
inadvertency, or ignorance are not at all, or *but*

very gently, to be taken notice of. *Locke on Edu-*

cation.—If a reader examines Horace's Art of Po-
etry, he will find *but* very few precepts in it,

which he may not meet with in Aristotle. *Addis-*

on. Prepar'd I stand: he was *but* born to try

The lot of man, to suffer and to die. *Pope.*

6. Than.—The full moon was no sooner up, and
shining in all its brightness, *but* he opened the

gate of Paradise. *Guardian.* 7. But that; with-

out this consequence that.—

Frosts that constrain the ground,
Do seldom their usurping power withdraw,
But raging floods pursue their hasty hand.

Dryden.

8. Otherwise than that.—It cannot be *but* nature
with some director, of infinite power, to guide

her in all her ways. *Hooker.*—

Who shall believe,
But you misuse the reverence of your place?

Shakespeare.

9. Not more than; even.—A genius so elevated
and unconfined as Mr Cowley's, was *but* necessary

to make Pindar speak English. *Dryden.* 10. By
any other means than.—

Bereave *but* now I left; whom pin'd with pain,
Her age and anguish from these rites detain.

Dryden.

It is evident, in the instance I gave *but* now, the
consciousness went along. *Locke.*—Out of that

will I cause those of Cyprus to mutiny: whose
purification shall come into no true taste again,

but by transplanting of Cassia. *Shakespeare.* 11.

If it were not for this; that; if it were not that.

Obsolete.—

Believe me, I had rather have lost my purse
Full of cruzades. And, *but* my noble Moor

Is true of mind, and made of no such baseness,
As jealous creatures are, it were enough

To put him to ill-thinking. *Shakespeare.*

I here do give thee that with all my heart,
Which *but* thou hast already, with all my heart

I would keep from thee. *Shakespeare.*

12. However; howbeit: a word of indeterminate
connection.—

I do not doubt *but* I have been to blame;
But, to pursue the end for which I came,

Unite your subjects first, then let us go,
And pour their common rage upon the foe.

Dryden.

13. It is used after *no doubt*, *no question*, and such
words, and signifies the same with *that*. It some-

times is joined with *that*.—They made no account,
but that the navy should be absolutely master of

the seas. *Bacon.*—I fancied to myself a kind of
ease in the change of the paroxysm; never sus-

pecting *but that* the humour would have wasted
itself. *Dryden.*—There is no question *but* the king

of Spain will reform most of the abuses. *Addison.*

14. That. This seems no proper sense in this
place.—It is not therefore impossible, *but* I may

alter the complexion of my play, to restore my-
self into the good graces of my fair criticks.

Dryden. 15. Otherwise than. *Obsolete.*

I should sin

To think *but* nobly of my grandmother.

Shakespeare.

16. A particle by which the meaning of the fore-
going sentence is bounded or restrained; only.

Thus fights Ulysses, thus his fame extends,
A formidable man, *but* to his friends. *Dryden.*

17. A particle of objection; yet it may be object-
ed: it has sometimes *yet* with it.—

But yet, madam—

I do not like *but yet*; it does allay

The good precedence; lie upon *but yet*!

But yet is as a jaylour, to bring forth

Some monstrous malefactor. *Shakespeare.*

—Must the heart then have been formed and con-
stituted, before the blood was in being? *But* here

again, the substance of the heart itself is most cer-
tainly made and nourished by the blood, which

is conveyed to it by the coronary arteries. *Bent-*

ley. 18. *But for*; without; had not this been.—

Rash man! forbear, *but for* some unbelief,
My joy had been as fatal as my grief. *Waller.*

Her head was bare,
But for her native ornament of hair,
Which in a simple knot was ty'd above.

Dryden.

When the fair boy receiv'd the gift of right,
And, *but for* mischief, you had dy'd for spite.

Dryden.

(2.) * BUT. *n. f.* [*bout*, French.] A boundary.

—*But*, if I ask you what I mean by that word,
you will answer, I mean this or that thing, you

cannot tell which; but if I join it with the words
in construction and sense, as, *but* I will not, a *but*

of wine, *but* and boundary, the ram will *but*,
shoot at *but*, the meaning of it will be as ready

to you as any other word. *Holder.*

(3.) * BUT. *n. f.* [In sea language.] The end of
any plank which joins to another on the outside

of a ship, under water. *Harris.*

BUTADÆ. See ATHENS, § 9.

(1.) * BUTCHER. *n. f.* [*boucher*, Fr.] 1. One
that kills animals to sell their flesh.—The shep-

herd and the *butcher* both may look upon one
sheep with pleasing conceits. *Sidney.*—

Hence he learnt the *butcher's* guile,
How to cut your throat, and smile;

Like a *butcher* doom'd for life
In his mouth to wear his knife. *Swift.*

2. One that is delighted with blood.—Honour and
renown are bestowed on conquerors, who, for

the most part, are but the great *butchers* of man-
kind. *Locke.*

(2.) BUTCHERS, in antiquity. Among the an-
cient

cient Romans, there were three kinds of established butchers, whose office it was to furnish the city with the necessary cattle, and to take care of preparing and vending their flesh. The *suarii* provided hogs; the *pecuarii* or *boarii*, other cattle, especially oxen; and under these was a subordinate class, whose office was to kill, called *lanarii*, and *carnifices*. To exercise the office of butcher among the Jews with dexterity, was of more reputation than to understand the liberal arts and sciences. They have a book concerning shamble-constitution; and in case of any difficulty, they apply to some learned rabbi for advice: nor was any allowed to practise this art, without a licence in form; which gave the man, upon evidence of his abilities, a power to kill meat, and others to eat what he killed; provided he carefully read every week for one year, and every month the next year, and once a quarter during his life, the constitution above mentioned.

(3.) BUTCHERS, LAWS RESPECTING. For preventing the abuses committed by butchers, he that sells swine's flesh mangled, or dead of the murrain, for the first offence shall be amerced; for the 2d, pilloried; for the 3d, imprisoned and fined; and for the 4th, he must abjure the town. Butchers not selling meat at reasonable prices, shall forfeit double the value, leviable by two justices of the peace. No butcher shall kill any flesh in his scalding-house, or within the walls of London, on pain to forfeit for every ox so killed, 12d. and for every other beast, 8d. to be divided betwixt the king and the prosecutor.

* *To BUTCHER.* *v. a.* [from the noun.] To kill; to murder.—

In suffering thus thy brother to be slaughter'd,
Thou shewest the naked pathway to thy life,
Teaching stern murder how to *butcher* thee.

Shakespeare.

Uncharitably with me have you dealt,
And shamefully by you my hopes are *butcher'd*.

Shakespeare.

—The poison and the dagger are at hand to *butcher* a hero, when the poet wants brains to save him. *Dryden.*

BUTCHER BIRD. See LANIUS.

* BUTCHERLINESS. *n. f.* [from *butcherly*.] A brutal, cruel, savage, butcherly manner.

* BUTCHERLY. *adj.* [from *butcher*.] Cruel; bloody; barbarous.—There is a way which, brought into schools, would take away this *butcherly* tear in making of Latin. *Ascham.*—

What stratagems, how fell, how *butcherly*,
This deadly quarrel daily doth beget. *Shakesf.*

(1.) * BUTCHER'S-BROOM, or KNEEHOLLY. *n. f.* [*rufcus*, Lat.] The roots are sometimes used in medicine, and the green shoots are cut and bound into bundles, and sold to the butchers, who use it as besoms to sweep their blocks; from whence it had the name of *butcher's broom*. *Miller.*

(2.) BUTCHER'S-BROOM. See RUSCUS.

BUTCHER'S ISLAND, in the East Indies, a small island about two miles long and scarce one broad. It has its name from cattle being kept there for the use of Bombay, from which it is about three miles distant. It has a small fort, but of very little consequence.

* BUTCHERY. *n. f.* [from *butcher*.] 1. The trade of a butcher.—Yet this man, so ignorant of modern *butchery*, has cut up half an hundred heroes, and quartered five or six miserable lovers, in every tragedy he has written. *Pope.* 2. Murder; cruelty; slaughter.—

If thou delight to view thy heinous deeds,
Behold this pattern of thy *butcheries*. *Shakesf.*
—The *butchery*, and the breach of hospitality, is represented in this fable under the mask of friendship. *L'Esrange.*—

Can he a son to soft remorse incite,
Whom goals, and blood, and *butchery* delight? *Dryden.*

3. The place where animals are killed; where blood is shed.—

There is no place, this house is but a *butchery*;
Abhor it, fear it, do not enter it. *Shakesf.*

BUTCOMB, a village in Somersetshire, S. E. of Winton.

(1.) BUTE, an island lying to the W. of Scotland, being separated from Cowal in Argyleshire, only by a narrow channel. In length it is about 18 miles; the broadest part from E. to W. is about 5. Part of it is rocky and barren; but from the middle southwards, the ground is cultivated, and produces pease, oats, and barley. Here is a quarry of red stone, which the natives have used in building a fort and chapel in the neighbourhood of Rothsay, which is a very ancient town, borough, head town of the shire of Bute and Arran; but very thinly peopled, and maintained chiefly by the herring fishery, with the profits of which all the rents of this island are chiefly paid. On the N. side of Rothsay are the ruins of an ancient fort, with its draw-bridge, chapel, and barracks. It has likewise the remains of some Danish towers. The natives are healthy and industrious, speak the Erse and the dialect of the Lowlands indifferently, and profess the Protestant religion. The island is divided into two parishes, accommodated with 4 churches; and belongs chiefly to the earl of Bute, who possesses an elegant seat near Rothsay. The name has in different periods, been very differently written: *Bote*, *Both*, *Bothe*, *Boot*, but now generally *Bute*. Our ancient writers suppose that it derived its name from a cell erected therein by St. Brendan, an Irish abbot who flourished in the 6th century, because in his language such a cell was called *Both*. It is, however, probable, that this name was of greater antiquity, since we find it designated *Botis* by the anonymous geographer of Ravenna. It was from very early times part of the patrimony of the Stuarts: large possessions of it were granted to Sir John Stuart, son of Robert II. by his beloved mistress Elizabeth More; and it has continued in that line to the present time.

(2.) BUTE, a shire of Scotland, comprehending the island, (N. 1.) with those of Arran, the two Cumbrays, and Inchmarnock. This county and that of Caithness send a member to parliament alternately. The earl of Bute is admiral of the county, by commission from his majesty; and is way dependent on the lord high admiral of Scotland: so that if any maritime case occurs within his jurisdiction (even crimes of as high a nature as

murder or piracy), he is judge, by virtue of his powers as admiral, or he may delegate his authority to any deputies.

(3.) BUTE, John, Earl of. See STEWART.

(4.) BUTE, VEILS OF, a safe harbour in the island, N. Y.

* BUT END. *n. s.* [from *but* and *end*] The blunt end of any thing; the end upon which it rests.—The reserve of foot galled their foot with several volleys, and then fell on them with the *but-end* of their muskets. *Clarendon*.—Thy weapon was a good one when I wielded it, but the *but-end* remains in my hands. *Arbuthnot*.—Some of the soldiers accordingly pushed them forwards with the *but-ends* of their pikes, into my reach. *Swift*.

BUTEO, in ornithology, the trivial name of a genus of FALCO.

BUTES. See ATHENS, § 9.

BUTHNA. See BOTHENA.

BUTHOE, or } an island of Dalmatia. See
BUTHOECE, } BATUA and BUDOA.

BUTROTUM. See BUTRINTO, N. 2.

BUTHYSIA, [*βουθυσια*], in antiquity, a sacrifice of the greatest kind; such were the hecatombs. See SACRIFICE and HECATOMB. The Greeks frequently prefixed the particle *βου* to words, to denote things of extraordinary magnitude, as alluding to the bigness of oxen.

BUTIGA, an inflammation of the whole face.

(1.) BUTLER, Charles, a native of Wycomb in Bucks, and M. A. in Magdalen college, Oxford, published a book, “The principles of music singing and setting; with the two-fold use thereof, ecclesiastical and civil:” 4to. Lond. 1636. He was a person of singular learning and ingenuity, which he manifested in sundry other works enumerated by Wood in the *Athen. Oxon.* Among the rest is an English grammar, published in 1633, in which he proposes a scheme of regular orthography, and makes use of characters, some borrowed from the Saxon, and others of his own invention, so singular, that we want types to exhibit them: and of this supposed improvement he appears to have been so fond, that all his tracts are printed in the same manner with his grammar. The consequence has been an almost general disgust to all that he has written. His Principles of music is, however, a very learned, curious, and entertaining book; and, by the help of the advertisement prefixed to it, explaining the powers of the characters used by him, may be read to great advantage, and may be considered as a judicious supplement to Morley’s introduction.

(2.) BUTLER, Joseph, bishop of Durham, a man distinguished by his piety and learning, was the youngest son of Mr Thomas Butler, a respectable shop keeper at Wantage, in Berkshire, where he was born in 1692. His father, who was a Presbyterian, observing that he had a strong inclination to learning, sent him to an academy in Gloucestershire, to qualify him for a dissenting minister; and while there, he wrote some remarks on Dr Clerk’s first sermon at Boyle’s lecture. Afterwards, resolving to conform to the established church, he studied at Oriel college, where he contracted an intimate friendship with Mr Edward Talbot, brother to the lord chancellor, who laid the foundation of his subsequent advancement.

VOL. IV. PART II.

He was first appointed preacher at the Rolls, and rector of Haughton and Stanhope, two rich benefices in the bishopric of Durham. He quitted the Rolls in 1726; and published in 8vo a volume of sermons, preached at that chapel. After this he constantly resided at Stanhope, in the regular discharge of all the duties of his office, till 1733, when he was called to attend the lord chancellor Talbot as his chaplain, who gave him a prebend in the church of Rochester. In 1736, he was appointed clerk of the closet to queen Caroline, whom he attended every day, from 7 to 9 in the evening. In 1738 he was appointed bishop of Bristol; and not long afterwards dean of St Paul’s, London. He now resigned his living of Stanhope. In 1746, he was made clerk of the closet to the king; and in 1750, was translated to Durham. This rich preferment he enjoyed but a short time; for he died at Bath, June 16th, 1752. His corpse was interred in the cathedral at Bristol; where there is a monument, with an inscription, erected to his memory. He died a bachelor. His deep learning and comprehensive mind appear sufficiently in his writings; particularly in that excellent treatise intitled, *The Analogy of religion, natural and revealed, to the constitution and course of nature*, published in 8vo, 1736.

(3.) BUTLER, Samuel, a celebrated poet of the last century, was the son of a reputable Worcester-shire farmer, and born in 1612. He passed some time at Cambridge, but was never matriculated. Returning to his native country, he lived some years as a clerk to a justice of peace; where he found time to apply himself to history, poetry, and painting. Being recommended to Elizabeth countess of Kent, he enjoyed in her house, not only the use of all kinds of books, but the conversation of the great Mr Selden, who often employed Butler to write letters, and translate for him. He lived also some time with Sir Samuel Luke, a gentleman of an ancient family in Bedfordshire, and a famous commander under Oliver Cromwell: and he is supposed at this time to have wrote, or at least to have planned, his celebrated *Hudibras*; and under that character to have ridiculed the knight. The poem itself furnishes this key; where, in the first canto, Hudibras says,

“ ’Tis sung, there is a valiant mamaluke

“ In foreign land velp’d — — —

“ To whom we oft have been compar’d

“ For person, parts, address, and beard.”

After the restoration, Mr Butler was made secretary to the earl of Carbury, lord president of Wales, who appointed him steward of Ludlow castle, when the court was revived there. No one was a more generous friend to him than the earl of Dorset, to whom it was owing that the court tasted his *Hudibras*. He had promises of a good place from the earl of Clarendon, but they were never accomplished; though the king was so much pleased with the poem, as often to quote it in conversation. It is indeed said, that Charles ordered him the sum of 3000l. but the sum being expressed in figures, somebody through whose hands it passed, by cutting off a cypher, reduced it to 300l. which, though it passed the offices without fees, proved not sufficient to pay what he then owed; so that Butler was not a shilling

the better for the king's bounty. He died in 1680: and though he met with many disappointments, was never reduced to any thing like want, nor did he die in debt. Mr Granger observes, that Butler "stands without rival in burlesque poetry. His Hudibras (says he) is, in its kind, almost as great an effort of genius, as the Paradise Lost itself. It abounds with uncommon learning, new rhimes, and original thoughts. Its images are truly and naturally ridiculous. There are many strokes of temporary satire, and some characters and allusions which cannot be discovered at this distance of time."

(4.) * BUTLER. *n. s.* [*bouteiller*, Fr. *boteler*, or *botiller*, old English, from *bottle*; he that is employed in the care of bottling liquors.] A servant in a family employed in furnishing the table.—*Butlers* forget to bring up their beer time enough. *Swift*.

(5.) BUTLER was also the name anciently given to an officer in the court of France, similar to that of the ci-devant grand echançon, or great cup-bearer; now abolished with the other appendages of royalty.

(6.) BUTLERS, BUTICULARI, among the Normans, denote wine-tasters, appointed to examine liquors, and see that they be right and legal.

(1.) * BUTLERAGE. *n. s.* [from *butler*.] The duty upon wines imported, claimed by the king's butler.—Those ordinary finances are casual or uncertain, as be the escheats, the customs, *butlerage*, and impost. *Bacon*.

(2.) BUTLERAGE is a duty of 2s. for every ton of wine imported by merchants strangers; being a composition in lieu of the liberties and freedoms granted to them by king John and Edward I. by a charter called *charta mercatoria*. Butlerage was originally the only custom that was payable upon the importation of wines, and was taken by virtue of the regal prerogative, for the proper use of the crown. But for many years past, parliament having granted subsidies to the kings of England, and the duty of butlerage not repealed, but confirmed, they have granted it away to some nobleman, who, by virtue of such grant, is to enjoy the full benefit thereof, and may cause it to be collected in the same manner that the kings themselves were formerly wont to do.

BUTLER'S BRIDGE, a town of Ireland, in Cavan.

BUTLER'S COURT, near Bodington, Gloucester.

* BUTLERSHIP. *n. s.* [from *butler*.] The office of a butler.

BUTLER'S STONE, a medicinal preparation, of which the ancient chemists relate wonders. See *Boyle's Works Abr.* vol. i. p. 50. The inventor, from whom it takes its name, was a Scotsman, in great favour with king James I. and is said to have done wonders with it, not only in the speedy cure of the most dangerous distempers, but in the making of gold out of lead and quicksilver. The preparation of this stone is given by Morley. *Collect. Chym. Leyd. cap.* 375.

(1, 2.) BUTLEY, 3 villages; 1. in Chesh. near Prestbury: 2. in Somerseth. between Bruton and Bridgewater: and,

(3.) BUTLEY-ABLEY, 4 m. from Oxford, Suffolk.

(1.) * BUTMENT. *n. s.* [*aboutement*, Fr.] That

* of the arch which joists it to the upright pier.

—The supporters or *butments* of the said arch cannot suffer so much violence, as in the precedent flat posture. *Wotton*.

(2.) BUTMENTS of arches are the same with buttresses. They answer to what the Romans call *publicas*, the French *culees* and *buttes*.

(3.) BUTMENTS, or ABUTMENTS, of a bridge, denote the two massives at the end of a bridge, whereby the two extreme arches are sustained and joined with the shore on either side.

BUTO. See BUTUS.

BUTOMUS, the FLOWERING RUSH, or WATER GLADIOLE; a genus of the hexagynia order, in the enneandria class of plants; ranking, in the natural method, under the 5th order, Tripetaloideæ. There is no calyx, but it has six petals, and as many monospermous capsules. There is but one species, viz.

BUTOMUS UMBELLATUS; of which there are two varieties, the one with a white, the other with a rose-coloured, flower. Though common plants, they are very pretty, and are worth propagating in a garden where there is conveniency for an artificial bog, or where there are ponds of standing water, as is many times the case. Where these conveniences are wanting, they may be planted in cisterns, which should be kept filled with water, with about a foot thickness of earth in the bottom; and in this earth the roots should be planted, or the seeds sown as soon as they are ripe.

BUTORIUS, in zoology, a name given by some to the bittern. See ARDEA, N. 10.

BUTRAGO, a town of Spain in New Castile.

(1.) BUTRINTO, a lake of Epirus.

(2.) BUTRINTO, anciently called BUTHROTUM, a port town of Epirus, or Canina, in Turkey in Europe, situated opposite to the island of Corfu on the lake, (N. 1.) at the entrance of the gulph of Venice. It is 22 m. S. of Chimera. Lon. 20. 9. E. Lat. 39. 49. N.

BUTRO, a synonyme of the Bison. See BEEVE, N° IV. § i.

BUTSBURY, a town in Essex, near Ingatestone.

* BUTSHAFT. *n. s.* [from *but* and *shaft*.] An arrow.—

The blind boy's *butshaft*. *Shakspeare*

(1.) * BUTT. *n. s.* [*but*, Fr.] 1. The place to which the mark to be shot at is placed.—

He calls on Bacchus and propounds the prize;

The groom his fellow groom at *butts* denies,

And bends his bow, and levels with his eyes. *Drayton*

2. The point at which the endeavour is directed.—

Be not afraid though you do see me weapon'd;

Here is my journey's end; here is my *butt*,

The very sea-mark of my journey's end. *Shakspeare*

3. The object of aim; the thing against which an attack is directed.—The papists were the *butt* and common-place, and the *butt* against whom all the arrows were directed. *Clarendon*. 4. A man upon whom the company breaks their jests.—I paid a sentence or two at my *butt*, which I thought very smart, when my ill genius suggested to me such a reply as got all the laughter on his face. *Spectator*. 5. A blow given by a horned animal.

6. A stroke given in fencing.—

If disputes arise

Among the champions for the prize ;

To prove who gave the fairer *butt*,

John shews the chalk on Robert's coat. *Prior.*
(2.) * **BUTT.** *n. f.* [*butt*, Saxon.] A vessel; a barrel containing 126 gallons of wine; a butt contains 28 gallons of beer; and from 1500 to 2,200 weight of a butt of currans.—I escaped upon a *butt* of sack, which the sailors heaved over-board. *Shakespeare.*

(3.) **BUTT** of wine (§ 2.) is also called **PIPE**.

(4.) **BUTT**, or **BUTTEND**. See **BUT**, § 3. Butts in great ships are most carefully bolted; for if any one of them should spring or give way, the ship would be very dangerous and difficult to stop.

(5.) **BUTTS**, in archery. See § 1—3. *def.* 1. and **ARCHERY**, § 5.

(6.) **BUTTS**, in husbandry, are the short pieces of land in arable ridges and furrows.

* **To BUTT.** *v. a.* [*botten*, Dutch.] To strike with the hand.—

Come, leave your tears : a brief farewell: the
beast

With many heads *butts* me away. *Shakespeare.*

Nor wars are seen,

Unless upon the green,

Two harmless lambs are *butting* one the other.

Wotton.

A snow-white steer, before thy alter led,

Butts with his threatening brows, and bellowing
stands. *Dryden's Aeneid.*

—A ram will *butt* with his head though he be
brought up tame, and never saw that manner of
going. *Ray.*

BUTTELAND, a village in Northumberland,
near Billingham.

BUTTEND. See **BUTEND**, and **BUTT**, § 4.

1.) * **BUTTER.** *n. f.* [*buttere*, Sax. *butyrum*,
Lat.] 1. An unctuous substance made by agi-
tating the cream of milk, till the oil separates from
the whey.—And he took *butter* and milk, and the
oil which he had dressed, and set before them.

Gen. xviii. 8. 2. *Butter of Antimony.* A chymi-
cal preparation made by uniting the acid spirits
of sublimate corrosive with regulus of antimony.
It is a great caustick. *Harris.* 3. *Butter of tin*, is
made with tin and sublimate corrosive. This pre-
paration continually emits fumes. *Harris.*

2.) **BUTTER**, in chemistry, is a name given to
several preparations, on account of their con-
sistence resembling that of butter; as butter of
antimony, &c. See § 1. *def.* 2, 3, and **CHEMIS-
TRY**, INDEX.

(3.) **BUTTER**, ANCIENT USES OF. Butter ap-
pears to have been long unknown to the an-
cient Greeks. Their poets make no mention of
it, though they frequently speak of milk and cheese.
The Romans used butter no otherwise than as a
medicine, never as food. The ancient Christians
of Egypt burnt butter in their lamps instead of
oil; and in the Roman churches, it was anciently
allowed, during Christmas time, to burn butter
instead of oil, on account of the great consump-
tion of it otherwise.

4. **BUTTER**, FIRST STATE AND FORMATION

1.) Butter is the fat, oily, and inflammable part
of the milk. This kind of oil is naturally distribu-
ed through all the substance of the milk in very

small particles, which are interposed betwixt the
caseous and serous parts, amongst which it is sus-
pended by a slight adhesion, but without being
dissolved. It is in the same state in which oil is
in emulsions: hence the same whiteness of milk
and emulsions; and hence, by rest, the oily parts
separate from both these liquors to the surface,
and form a cream. See **EMULSION**. When but-
ter is in the state of cream, its proper oily parts
are not yet sufficiently united together to form an
homogeneous mass. They are still half separated
by the interposition of a pretty large quantity of
serous and caseous particles. The butter is com-
pletely formed by pressing out these heterogene-
ous parts by means of continued percussion. It
then becomes an uniform mass.

(5.) **BUTTER**, GENERAL PROPERTIES, &c. OF.
Fresh butter which has undergone no change, has
scarcely any smell; its taste is mild and agreeable,
it melts with a weak heat, and none of its prin-
ciples are disengaged by the heat of boiling water.
These properties prove, that the oily part of but-
ter is of the nature of the fat, fixed, and mild oils
obtained from many vegetable substances by ex-
pression. See **OILS**. The half fluid consistence
of butter, as of most other concrete oily matters,
is thought to be owing to a considerable quantity
of acid united with the oily part; which acid is
so well combined, that it is not perceptible while
the butter is fresh and has undergone no change;
but when it grows old, and undergoes some kind
of fermentation, then the acid is disengaged more
and more; and this is the cause that butter, like
oils of the same kind, becomes rancid by age. But-
ter is constantly used in food, from its agreeable
taste; but to be wholesome, it must be very fresh,
free from rancidity, and not fried or burnt; other-
wise its acrid and even caustic acid, being disen-
gaged, disorders digestion, renders it difficult and
painful, excites acrid empyreumatic belchings,
and introduces much acrimony into the blood.
Some persons have stomachs so delicate, that they
are even affected with these inconveniences by
fresh butter and milk. This observation is also
applicable to oil, fat, chocolate, and in general
to all oleaginous matters.

(6.) **BUTTER**, METHODS OF MAKING. When
it has been churned, open the churn, and with
both hands gather it well together, take it out of
the butter-milk, and lay it into a very clean bowl,
or earthen pan; and if the butter be designed to
be used sweet, fill the pan with clear water, and
work the butter in it to and fro, till it is brought
to a firm consistence of itself, without any moisture.
When this has been done, it must be scotched
and sliced over with the point of a knife, every
way as thick as possible, in order to fetch out the
smallest hair, mote, bit of rag, strainer, or any
thing that may have happened to fallen into it.
Then spread it thin in a bowl, and work it well
together, with a proper quantity of salt, and make
it up into dishes, pounds, half pounds, &c. In
the *Georgical Essays* vol. V. p. 209. we have the
following method of making well-tasted butter,
from the milk of cows fed on turnips: "Let the
bowels, either lead or wood, be kept constantly
clean, and well scalded with boiling water before
using. When the milk is brought into the dairy,

to every 8 quarts mix one quart of boiling water; then put up the milk into the bowels to stand for cream." The following directions concerning the making and management of butter, including the Epping method, are extracted from the 3d volume of the Bath Society Papers. In general it is to be observed, that the greater the quantity made from a few cows, the greater will be the farmer's profit; therefore he should never keep any but what are esteemed good milkers. A bad cow will be equally expensive in keeping, and will not perhaps (by the butter and cheese that is made from her) bring in more than from L.3 to L.6 a year; whereas a good one will bring from L.7 to L.10 per annum: therefore it is obvious that bad cows should be parted with, and good ones purchased in their room. When such are obtained, a good servant should be employed to milk them; as, through the neglect and mismanagement of servants, it frequently happens that the best cows are spoiled. No farmer should trust entirely to servants, but should himself often see that the cows are milked clean; for if any milk is suffered to remain in the udder, the cows will daily give less, till at length she will become dry before the proper time, and the next season she will scarce give milk sufficient to pay for keeping her. It sometimes happens that some of a cow's teats may be scratched or wounded so as to produce foul or corrupted milk; when this is the case, we should by no means mix it with the sweet milk, but give it to the pigs; and that which is conveyed to the dairy-house should remain in the pail till it is nearly cool, before it be strained, that is, if the weather be warm; but in frosty weather it should be immediately strained, and a small quantity of boiling water may be mixed with it, which will cause it to produce cream in abundance, and the more so if the pans or vats have a large surface. During the hot summer months, it is proper to rise with or before the sun, that the cream may be skimmed from the milk ere the dairy becomes warm; nor should the milk at that season stand longer in the vats, &c. than 24 hours, nor be skimmed in the evening till after sun-set. In winter milk may remain unskimmed for 36 or 48 hours; the cream should be deposited in a deep pan, which should be kept during the summer in the coolest part of the dairy; or in a cool cellar where a free air is admitted, which is still better. Where people have not an opportunity of churning every other day, they should lift the cream daily into clean pans, which will keep it cool, but they should never fail to churn at least twice in the week in hot weather; and this work should be done in a morning before the sun appears, taking care to fix the churn where there is a great draught of air. If a pump churn be to be used, it may be plunged a foot deep into a tub of cold water, and should remain there during the whole time of churning, which will very much harden the butter. A strong rancid flavour will be given to butter, if we churn so near the fire as to heat the wood in winter. After the butter is churned, it should be immediately washed in many different waters till it is perfectly cleansed from the milk; but here it must be remarked, that a warm water will soften it, and make it appear greasy, so

that it will be impossible to obtain the best price for it. The cheesemongers use two pieces of wood for their butter; and if those who have a very hot hand were to have such, they might wash the butter so as to make it more saleable. The Epping butter is made up into long rolls, weighing a pound each; in the county of Somerset, they dish it in half pounds for sale; but it is not forgot to rub salt round the inside of the rolls, which will be difficult to work it so as to make it appear handsome. Butter will require and endure more working in winter than in summer; but it is to be marked, that no person whose hand is weak in nature makes good butter. Those who use a pump churn must endeavour to keep a regular stroke; nor should they admit any person to assist them, except they keep nearly the same rate; for if they churn more slowly, the butter will be winter go back, as it is called; and if the churn be more quick and violent in the summer, it will cause a fermentation, by which means the butter will imbibe a very disagreeable flavour. Where people keep many cows, a barrel churn is to be preferred; but if this be not kept very clean, the same effects will be discovered in the butter; nor must we forget to shift the situation of the churn when we use it, as the seasons alter, so as to fix it in a warm place in winter, and where there is a free air in summer. In many parts of this kingdom, they colour their butter in winter, but this adds nothing to its goodness; and it rarely happens that the farmers in or near Epping use any colour, but when they do, it is very innocent. To procure some sound carrots, whose juice they express through a sieve, and mix with the cream when it enters the churn, which makes it appear like May butter: nor do they at any time use much salt, though a little is absolutely necessary.—As they make in that country very little whey butter, so very little whey butter is made; nor should any person make it, except for present use, as it will not keep more than two days; and the whey will turn to better account to fatten the cattle with. The foregoing rules will suffice for making good butter in any country; but as some persons are partial to the west country method, it shall also be described as briefly as possible. 1. They deposit their milk in earthen pans in their dairy house, and (after they have stood 12 hours in summer, and double that space in the winter) remove them to stoves made for that purpose, which stoves are filled with hot embers; or they remain till bubbles rise, and the cream changes its colour, it is then deemed heated enough. This they call *scalded cream*; it is afterwards moved steadily to the dairy, where it remains 12 hours more, and it is then skimmed from the milk and put into a tub or churn; if it be put into a tub, it is beat well with the hand, and they obtain butter; but a cleaner way is to use a churn. Some scald it over the fire, but then the smoke is apt to affect it; and in winter, if the pans touch the fire, they will crack and fly, and the milk and cream will be wasted.

(7.) BUTTER, METHOD OF MANAGING, &c. The Cambridgeshire salt butter is held in the highest esteem, and is made nearly after the same method as the Epping; and by washing and washing

the salt from it the cheesemongers in London often sell it at a high price for fresh butter. They deposit it when made into wooden tubs or firkins, which they expose to the air for 2 or 3 weeks, and often wash them; but a readier way is to wash them with unslacked lime, or a large quantity of salt and water well boiled will do: with this they must be scrubbed several times, and afterwards thrown into cold water, where they should remain 3 or 4 days, or till they are wanted; then they should be scrubbed as before, and well rinsed with cold water; but before they receive the butter, care must be taken to rub every part of the firkin with salt: then, if the butter be properly made, and perfectly sweet, it may be gently pressed into the firkin; but it must be well salted when it is made up, and the salt should be equally distributed through the whole mass, and a good quantity of salt must be spread on the top of the butter before it is heated, after which the head should be immediately put on. They pursue nearly the same method in Suffolk and Yorkshire; nor is the butter that is made in these counties much inferior to that made in Cambridgeshire; indeed it is often sold in London for Cambridge butter: and no people make more butter from their cows than the Yorkshire farmers do, which is certainly owing to the care they take of their cows in the winter; as at that season they house them all, feed them with good hay, and never suffer them to go out, (except to water,) but when the weather is very serene; and when their cows calve, they give them comfortable malt mashes for 2 or 3 days after; but these cows never answer if they are removed to other counties, except the same care and attendance be given them, and then none answer better. Land whereon cows feed very often affects the butter. If wild garlic, charlock, or May-weed, be found in a pasture ground, cows should not feed therein till after they have been mown, when such pernicious plants will appear no more till the following spring; but those cows that give milk must not partake of the hay made therefrom, as that will also diffuse its bad qualities. Great part of the Epping butter is made from cows that feed during the summer months in Epping forest, where the leaves and shrubby plants contribute greatly to the flavour of the butter. The mountains of Wales, the Highlands of Scotland, and the moors, commons, and heaths in England, produce excellent butter where it is properly managed; and though not equal in quantity, yet far superior in quality to that which is produced from the richest meadows: and the land is often blamed when the butter is bad through mismanagement, slothfulness, or inattention. Turnips and rape affect milk and butter, but brewers grains are sweet and wholesome food, and will make cows give abundance of milk; yet the cream thereon will be thin, except good hay be given at the same time, after every meal of grains. Coleworts and cabbages are also excellent food; and if these and fuchs were cultivated for this purpose, the farmers in general would find their account in it. Cows should never be suffered to drink improper water; stagnated pools, water wherein frogs spawn, com-

mon sewers, and ponds that receive the drainings of stables, are improper.

(8.) BUTTER, SHOWER OF. Naturalists speak of showers and dews of a butyraceous substance. In 1695, there fell in Ireland, during the winter and following spring, a thick yellow dew, which had the medicinal properties of butter.

(9.) BUTTER, TRADE IN. The trade in butter is very considerable. Some compute 50,000 tons annually consumed in London. It is chiefly made within 40 miles round the city: 50,000 firkins are said to be sent yearly from Cambridge and Suffolk alone; each firkin containing 56 lbs. Uttoxeter in Staffordshire is a market famous for good butter, inasmuch that the London merchants have established a factory there for that article. It is bought by the pot, of a long cylindrical form, weighing 14 lb. But no butter is esteemed equal to that which is made in Essex, well known by the name of *Epping butter*, and which, in almost every season of the year, yields at London from 1 sh. to 14 d. per pound averdupoise.

(10.) BUTTER, TRICKS OF DEALERS IN. Many abuses are committed in the packing and salting of butter, to increase its bulk and weight, against which we have a statute express. Pots are frequently laid with good butter for a little depth at the top, and with bad at the bottom; sometimes the butter is set in rolls, only touching at top, and standing hollow at bottom. To prevent these cheats, the factors at Uttoxeter keep a surveyor, who, in case of suspicion, tries the pots with an iron instrument called a *butter bore*, made like a cheese-taster, to be struck in obliquely to the bottom.

* To BUTTER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To smear, or oil with butter.—'Twas her brother, that, in pure kindness to his horse, *buttered* his hay. *Shakesp.*—Words *butter* no parsnips. *L'Estr.* 2. To encrease the stakes every throw, or every game: a cant term among gamblers.—It is a fine simile in one of Mr Congreve's prologues, which compares a writer to a *buttering* gamester, that stakes all his winning upon one cast; so that if he loses the last throw, he is sure to be undone. *Addis.*

* BUTTERBUMP. *n. s.* A fowl: the same with *bittourn*.

(1.) * BUTTERBUR. *n. s.* [*petasites*, Lat.] A plant used in medicine, and grows wild in great plenty by the sides of ditches. *Miller.*

(2.) BUTTER-BUR, in botany. See TUSILAGO.

BUTTERBY, a town near Brambeth, Durham.

BUTTER-CRAB, near New Milton, Yorksh.

BUTTER-FISH, a small fish, common in Cornwall, shaped somewhat like an eel, and distinguished by two rows of black spots along its back, and called GUNELLUS.

(1.) * BUTTERFLOWER. *n. s.* A yellow flower, with which the fields abound in the month of May.—

Let weeds, instead of *butterflowers*, appear,
And meads, instead of daisies, hemlock bear.
Gay.

(2.) BUTTER-FLOWER is a species of crow-foot. See RANUNCULUS.

(1.) BUTTERFLIES, METHOD OF MAKING PICTURES OF. To those, whose sensibilities are so callous,

callous, that they feel nothing for the tortures of the insect tribe, or who are so thoughtless, as not to reflect, that,

—"Ev'n the poor worm they tread on

In corporeal anguish feels a pain as great,

As giants when they die,"

Mr Edwards, in his *History of Birds*, vol. ii, p. 122, gives the following directions, for making pictures of butterflies. "Take butterflies or field moths, either those caught abroad, or such as are taken in caterpillars and nursed in the house till they be flies; clip off their wings very close to their bodies, and lay them on clean paper, in the form of a butterfly when flying; then have ready prepared gum arabic that hath been some time dissolved in water, and is pretty thick; if you put a drop of ox-gall into a spoonful of this, it will be better for the use; temper them well with your finger, and spread a little of it on a piece of thin white paper, big enough to take both sides of your fly; when it begins to be clammy under your finger, the paper is in proper order to take the feathers from the wings of the fly, then lay the gummed side on the wings, and it will take them up; then double your paper so as to have all the wings between the paper; then lay it on a table, pressing it close with your fingers; and you may rub it gently with some smooth hard thing; then open the paper and take out the wings, which will come forth transparent: the down of the upper and under side of the wings, sticking to the gummed paper, form a just likeness of both sides of the wings in their natural shapes and colours. The nicety of taking off flies depends on a just degree of moisture of the gum'd paper: for if it be too wet, all will be blotted and confused; and if too dry, your paper will stick so fast together, that it will be torn in separation. When you have opened your gum'd papers, and they are dry, you must draw the bodies from the natural ones, and paint them in water colours: you must take paper that will bear ink very well for this use; for sinking paper will separate with the rest, and spoil all."—With a little skill in drawing, and half the attention required by Mr Edward, any young person may make pictures of butterflies, equally beautiful, by a close imitation of nature or of good prints. Thus barbarity will be avoided and real genius exerted.

(2.) BUTTERFLIES, METHOD OF PRESERVING. See INSECTS.

(3.) * BUTTERFLY. *n. f.* [*butterflege*, Saxon.] A beautiful insect, so named because it appears in the beginning of the season for butter.—

Eftsoons that damsel, by her heav'nly might,
She turned into a winged *butterfly*,

In the wide air to make her wail'd'ring flight.

Spenser.

Tell old tales, and laugh

At gilded *butterflies*: and hear poor rogues

Talk of court news.

Shakespeare.

And so besel, that as he cast his eye

Among the colworts on a *butterfly*,

He saw false Reynard.

Dryden.

—That which seems to be a powder upon the wings of a *butterfly*, is an innumerable company of extreme small feathers, not to be discerned but a microscope. *Grew.*

BUTTERFLY. See PAPILIO.

BUTTERFLY-FISH, a name given by some to the BLENNUS, or BLENNIUS; from a spot in the fin, which resembles those in the wings of some butterflies.

BUTTERFLY-SHELL, in natural history. See VOLUTA.

BUTTER-HAUGH, a village in Northumberland, near the source of the Tyne.

* BUTTERIS. *n. f.* An instrument of steel set in a wooden handle, used in paring the foot, or cutting the hoof of a horse. *Farrier's Dictionary.*

BUTTERLEY, two English villages: viz. 1. in Derbyshire, near Codnor Castle: 2. in Devonshire, near Collumpton

BUTTERMERE WATER, a lake of Cumberland, near the source of the Cocker.

(1.) * BUTTERMILK. *n. f.* [from *butter* and *milk*.] The whey that is separated from the cream when butter is made.—A young man, fallen into an ulcerous consumption, devoted himself to *buttermilk*, by which sole diet he recovered. *Harter.*—The scurvy of mariners is cured by acids; as fruits, lemons, oranges, *buttermilk*; and alkaline spirits hurt them. *Arbutnot.*

(2.) BUTTER-MILK is more accurately defined, the milk which remains after the butter is obtained by churning. Butter-milk is esteemed an excellent food, in the spring especially, and is particularly recommended in hectic fevers. Some make curds of butter-milk, by pouring into it a quantity of new milk hot.

BUTTER-NUT, a fruit in New England whose kernel yields a great quantity of sweet oil.

BUTTER OF ANTIMONY, &c. See BUTTER, § 1, def. 2. and CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

BUTTER OF STONE, a kind of mineral drug found on the highest mountains, and hardest rocks of Siberia, being drawn by the heat of the sun, in transudation, from the dry substance of the stones themselves, and adhering to the surface thereof like a sort of calx, which, having received its full coction, is scraped off by the inhabitants under the name of *kamine massa*. The Russians ascribe many virtues to it. It is much used for the dysentery and venereal diseases; but its operation is so violent, however corrected by other ingredients, that none but the Russians dare use it.

* BUTTERPRINT. *n. f.* [from *butter* and *print*.] A piece of carved wood, used to mark butter.—A *butterprint*, in which were engraven figures of all sorts and sizes, applied to the lump of butter, left on it the figure. *Locke.*

BUTTERSIDE, a town near Askrig, Yorkshire.

BUTTERSTONE LOCH, a lake in Perthshire.

BUTTERSWICK, a town near Newsum, Yorkshire.

BUTTERTON, two small towns; viz. 1. S. E. of Leek: 2. S. W. of Stafford.

* BUTTERTOOTH. *n. f.* [from *butter* and *tooth*.] The great broad foreteeth.

(1—3.) BUTTERWICK; 1. in Durham, between Durham and Stockton: 2. in Herefordshire, near St Albans: 3. in Lincolnshire, N. E. of Boston.

(4.) BUTTERWICK, EAST, } 2 English villages

(5.) BUTTERWICK, WEST, } E. of Axholm.

BUTTERWIKKE, in Dorsetshire, 1 m. S. of Poole.

* BUTTERWOMAN. *n. f.* [from *butter* and *woman*.] A woman that sells butter.—Tongue, I must put you into a *butterwoman's* mouth, and buy

buy myself another of Bajazet's mute, if you prat-
tle me into these perils. *Shakespeare.*

(1.) * BUTTERWORT. *n. f.* A plant: the
fine with *sanicle*.

(2.) BUTTERWORT, in botany. See PINGUI-
CULA.

(1.) * BUTTERY. *adj.* [from *butter*.] Having
the appearance or qualities of butter.—Nothing
more convertible into hot cholerick humours than
its *buttery* parts. *Harvey*.—The best oils, thicken-
ed by cold, have a white colour; and milk itself
has its whiteness from the caseous fibres, and its
buttery oil. *Floyer*.

(2.) * BUTTERY. *n. f.* [from *butter*; or, accord-
ing to *Skinner*, from *bouter*, Fr. to place or lay up.]
The room where provisions are laid up.—

Go, sirrah, take them to the *buttery*,
And give them friendly welcome every one.

Shakespeare.

—All that need a cool and fresh temper, as cellars,
pantries, and *butteries*, to the north. *Wotton*.—

My guts ne'er suffer'd from a college-cook,
My name ne'er enter'd in a *buttery* book.

Bramston.

(3.) BUTTERY, ROYAL. The officers in the
king's *buttery*, are a gentleman yeoman, and 3
rooms of the *buttery*.

BUTTEVANT, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

BUTTLEDON, a village in Warkworth, Nor-
thumberland.

(1.) * BUTTOCK. *n. f.* [supposed, by *Skinner*,
to come from *aboutir*, Fr. inserted by *Junius* with-
out etymology.] The rump; the part near the tail.
—It is like a barber's chair that fits all *buttocks*.
Shakespeare.—Such as were not able to stay themselves,
would be holden up by others of more strength,
sitting behind them upon the *buttocks* of the horse.
Lucilius.—The tail of a fox was never made for the
buttocks of an ape. *L'Estrange*.

(2.) BUTTOCK OF A SHIP, is that part of her
which is her breadth right astern, from the tack
pwards; and a ship is said to have a broad or a
arrow buttock, according as she is built broad
or narrow at the transum.

BUTTOLPH, a town near Bramber, Suffex.

(1.) * BUTTON. *n. f.* [*bottawn*, Welch; *bouton*,
Fr. 1. A catch, or small ball, by which the dress
of a man is fastened.—

Pray you, undo this *button*. *Shakespeare*.

I mention those ornaments, because of the sim-
ilarity of the shape, want of ornaments, *buttons*,
tops, gold and silver lace, they must have been
dearer than ours. *Arbutnot*. 2. Any knob or
ball fastened to a smaller body.—We fastened to
the marble certain wires, and a *button*. *Boyle*.—

Fair from its humble bed I rear'd this flow'r,
Suckled and chear'd, with air, and sun and
show'r;

Soft on the paper ruff its leaves I spread,
Bright with the gilded *button* tipt its head. *Pope*.

The bud of a plant.—

The canker galls the infants of the spring,
Too oft before their *buttons* be disclos'd. *Shak.*

(II.) * BUTTON. *n. f.* [*echinus marinus*.] The
sea urchin, which is a kind of crabfish that has
spikes instead of feet. *Ainsworth*.

(III.) BUTTON, in botany, (§ I. *def.* 3.) is chiefly
used in speaking of vines and roses.

(IV.) BUTTON, in building, denotes a slight fast-
ening for a door or window, made to turn on a
nail.

(V.) BUTTON, in chemistry, signifies the metal
which is collected in a roundish mass at the bot-
tom of a crucible after fusion, or which remains
in the cupels after cupellation; more generally
called a BEAD.

(VI.) BUTTON, in dress, an article whose form
and use are too well known to need description.
Buttons are made of various materials, as mohair,
silk, horse-hair, metal, &c.

(1.) BUTTONS, COMMON, METHOD OF MAKING.
Common buttons are generally made of mohair;
some indeed are made of silk, and others of thread;
but the latter are of a very inferior sort. To make
a button, the mohair must be previously wound
on a bobbin; and the mould fixed to a board by
means of a bodkin thrust through the hole in the
middle of it. This being done, the workman
wraps the mohair round the mould in 3, 4, or 6
columns, according to the pattern. See farther, § 5.

(2.) BUTTONS, GOLD TWIST. The mould of
these buttons is first covered in the same manner
with that of common buttons. This being done,
the whole is covered with a thin plate of gold or
silver, and then wrought over of different forms,
with purple and gimp. The former is a kind of
thread composed of silk and gold wire twisted to-
gether; and the latter, capillary tubes of gold or
silver, about the tenth of an inch long. These
are joined together by means of a fine needle, fill-
ed with silk, thrust through their apertures, in the
same manner as beads or bugles.

(3.) BUTTONS, HORSE-HAIR. The moulds of
horse-hair buttons are covered with a kind of stuff
composed of silk and hair; the warp being bella-
dine silk, and the shoot horse-hair. This stuff is
wove with two selvages, in the same manner and
in the same loom as ribbands. It is then cut into
square pieces proportional to the size of the but-
ton, wrapped round the moulds, and their sel-
vages stitched together, which form the under
part of the button. See farther, § 5.

(4.) BUTTONS, METAL, METHOD OF MAKING.
The metal with which the moulds are intended
to be covered is first cast into small ingots, and
then flattened into thin plates or leaves, of the thick-
ness intended, at the flattening mills; after which it
is cut into small round pieces proportionable to
the size of the mould they are intended to cover,
by means of proper punches on a block of wood
covered with a thick plate of lead. Each piece of
metal thus cut out of the plate is reduced into the
form of a button, by beating it successively in several
cavities, or concave moulds, of a spherical form,
with a convex puncheon of iron, always beginning
with the shallowest cavity or mould, and proceed-
ing to the deeper, till the plate has acquired the
intended form: and the better to manage so thin
a plate, they form 10, 12, and sometimes 24, to
the cavities or concave moulds at once; often
reheating the metal during the operation, to make
it more ductile. The plate is generally called by
workmen the *cap of the button*. The form being
thus given to the plates or caps, they strike the in-
tended impression on the convex side, by means
of a similar iron puncheon, in a kind of mould en-
closed in a wooden frame.

graven en creux, either by the hammer or the press used in coining. The cavity or mould, wherein the impression is to be made, is of a diameter and depth suitable to the sort of button intended to be struck in it; each kind requiring a particular mould. Between the puncheon and the plate is placed a thin piece of lead, called by workmen a *hob*, which greatly contributes to the taking off all the strokes of the engraving; the lead, by reason of its softness, easily giving way to the parts that have relieve, and as easily infiquating itself into the traces or indentures. The plate thus prepared makes the cap or shell of the button. The lower part is formed of another plate, in the same manner, but much flatter, and without any impression. To the last or under plate is soldered a small eye made of wire, by which the button is to be fastened. The two plates being thus finished, they are soldered together with soft solder, and then turned in a lathe. Generally indeed they use a wooden mould, instead of the under plate; and in order to fasten it, they pass a thread or gut across, through the middle of the mould, and fill the cavity between the mould and the cap with cement, in order to render the button firm and solid; for the cement entering all the cavities formed by the relieve of the other side, sustains it, prevents its flattening, and preserves its boss.

(5.) **BUTTONS, METHOD OF CLEANSING.** Buttons, made of silk, mohair, &c. are not finished when they come from the maker's hands; the superfluous hairs and hubs of silk must be taken off, and the buttons rendered glossy and beautiful before they can be sold. This is done in the following manner: A quantity of buttons are put into a kind of iron sieve, called by workmen a *fingeing box*. Then a little spirit of wine being poured into a shallow iron dish, and set on fire, the workman moves and shakes the fingeing box, containing the buttons, briskly over the flame of the spirit, by which the superfluous hairs, hubs of silk, &c. are burnt off, without damaging the buttons. Great care, however, must be taken that the buttons in the fingeing box be kept continually in motion; for if they are suffered to rest over the flame, they will immediately burn. When all these loose hairs, &c. are burnt off by the flame of the spirit, the buttons are taken out of the fingeing box, and put, with a proper quantity of the crumbs of bread, into a leather bag, about 3 feet long, and of a conical shape; the mouth or smaller end of which being tied up, the workman takes one of the ends in one hand and the other in the other, and shakes the bag briskly with a particular jerk. This operation cleanses the buttons, renders them very glossy, and fit for sale.

(VII.) **BUTTON**, in fencing, signifies the tip of a foil, made roundish, and usually covered with leather, to prevent contusions or wounds.

(VIII.) **BUTTON**, in the manege. Button of the reins of a bridle, is a ring of leather, with the reins passed through it, which runs all along the length of the reins. To put a horse under the button, is when a horse is stopped without a rider upon his back, the reins being laid on his neck, and the button lowered so far down that the reins bring in the horse's head, and fix it to the true posture or carriage. Not only the horses managed

in the hand must be put under the button; but the same method must be taken with such horses as are bred between two pillars, before they are backed.

(IX.) **BUTTON OF A LOCK** denotes a round head serving to move the bolt.

* **To BUTTON**. *v. a.* [from the noun] 1. To dress; to clothe.—One whose hard heart is button'd up with steel. *Shakesp.*—He gave his arm, and breast, to his ordinary servant, to button and dress him. *Hutton.* 2. To fasten with buttons; as, he *buttons* his coat.

BUTTON-ANTENNE, a name given by naturalists to those horns or feelers of butt flies, which are terminated at the top by a sort of button. The French naturalists, from Reaumur, call them *antennes a boutons*.

* **BUTTONHOLE**. *n. f.* [from *button* and *hole*] The loop in which the button of the clothes is caught.—

Let me take you a *buttonhole* lower. *Shakesp.*

I'll please the maids of honour, if I can:

Without black velvet breeches, what is war?

I will my skill in *buttonholes* display,

And brag, how oft I shift me ev'ry day. *Bray.*

BUTTON-MAKER, *n. f.* one who manufactures buttons. We have been credibly informed that the greatest personage in the nation has long amused himself with button-making; and that many of the most beautiful patterns manufactured at Birmingham have often been of His Majesty's invention. It would have been happy for mankind in all ages and nations, if monarchs had always amused themselves with making improvements in the mechanic arts, instead of cultivating the art of war.

BUTTON-MAKING, *n. f.* the art of making buttons. See **BUTTON**, § VI, 1—5.

BUTTON'S BAY, the N. part of Hudson's Bay in North America, whereby Sir Thomas B. attempted to find out a N. W. passage to the Indies. It lies between 80° and 100° W. longitude and between 60° and 66° Lat. N.

BUTTON-STONE, in natural history, a figured stone, so denominated from its resemblance to the button of a garment. Dr Hook gives the figure of 3 sorts of button-stones, which indeed have been nothing else but the filling up of the holes of shells. They are all very hard flints; and it is in common, that they consist of two bodies, which seem to have been the filling up of the holes or vents in the shell. Dr Plot describes a species finely striated from the top, after the manner of some hair buttons. This name is also applied to a peculiar species of slate found in the north of Scotland, in a mountain called *Fucla*, which is extremely different from the common sorts of slate, in that it runs with great ease through glass in 5 or 6 hours, without the addition of salt or other foreign substance, to promote its trifurcation. It contains in itself all the principles of glass, and really has mixed in its substance all the things necessary to be added to promote the fusion of other stony bodies. The Swedes and Germans make buttons of the glass produced from it, which is very black and shining, and it has been named *button-stone*. They make several other things also of this glass, as the handles of knives and

like, and send a large quantity of it unwrought in round cakes as it cools from the fusion into Holland.

BUTTON-TREE, in botany. See CONOCARPUS.

BUTTON-WEED. See SPERMATOCOE.

BUTTON-WOOD. See CEPHALANTHUS.

(1.) * BUTTRESS. *n. f.* [from *aboutir*, Fr.]

1. A prop; a wall built to support another wall; and standing out.—

No jutting frize,

Buttress, not coigne of vantage, but this bird,
Hath made his pendant bed, and procreant
cradle. *Shakesp.*

—Fruit trees, set upon a wall against the sun, between elbows or *buttresses* of stone, ripen more than upon a plain wall. *Bacon.*—

But we inhabit a weak city here,

Which *buttresses* and props but scarcely bear.

Dryden.

1. A prop; a support.—It will concern us to examine the force of this plea, which our adversaries are still setting up against us, as the ground pillar, and *buttress* of the good old cause of non-conformity. *South.*

(2.) BUTTRESS is a kind of butment built arch-wise, or a mass of stone or brick, serving to prop or support the sides of a building, wall, &c. on the outside, where it is either very high, or has any considerable load to sustain on the other side, as a bank of earth, &c.—Buttresses are used against the angles of steeples and other buildings of stone, &c. on the outside, and along the walls of such buildings as have great and heavy roofs, which would be subject to thrust the walls out, unless very thick, if no buttresses were placed against them. They are also placed for a butment against the feet of some arches, that are turned across great halls in old palaces, abbeys, &c.

(3.) BUTTRESS, in farriery. See BUTTERIS.

* To BUTTRESS. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To prop; to support.

BUTT'S ASH, a village in the New Forest; Hampshire.

BUTUA. See BATUA and BUDOA.

BUTUS, or BUTH, in ancient geography, a town of Lower Egypt, on the W. side of the branch of the Nile, called *Thermuthiacus*; towards the mouth called *Ostium Sebennyticum*. In this town stood an oracle of Latona. Ptolemy places Butus in the Nomos Phthenotes. It had temples of Apollo and Diana, but the largest was at of Latona, where the oracle stood.

* BUTWINK. *n. f.* The name of a bird. *Dist.*

* BUTYRACBOUS. *adj.* [*butyrum*, Lat. butter.] Having the qualities of butter.—Chyle has the same principles as milk; a viscosity from the feculous parts, and an oiliness from the *butyraceous* parts. *Floyer.*

* BUTYROUS. *adj.* [*butyrum*, Lat.] Having the properties of butter.—Its oily red part is from the *tyrous* parts of chyle. *Floyer.*

BUTZAW, a town of lower Saxony, in Germany; seated on the river Varnow, on the road from Schwerin to Rostock. Lon. 23. 12. E. Lat. 55. N.

BUTZBACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, where the Austrians were camped in July 1796.

VOL. IV. PART. II.

BUVETTE, or BEUVETTE, in the ci-devant French laws, an established part in every court, where the lawyers and counsellors used to retire, warm themselves, and take a glass of wine, at the king's charge. There was also one for each court of parliament, for the members of that body.

BUXBAUMIA, in botany, a genus of the order mulci, belonging to the Cryptogamia class of plants: ranking under the same order, *musci*, or mosses, in the natural method.

BUXBURN, a rapid stream of Aberdeenshire, which runs through the parish of Newhills.

BUXEL, a river of Transylvania, which runs through Buremland.

BUXENTUM, or PYRUS, a town of Lucania, first built by the people of Messina, but afterwards deserted. A Roman colony was sent thither, and when found still thin of inhabitants, a new colony was sent by a decree of the senate. Its name is from *buxis*, the box tree, growing plentifully there. Strabo says, the name *Pyxus* includes a promontory, port, and river, under one. It is now called POLICASSERO. Lon. 15. 40. E. Lat. 40. 20. N.

BUXEOUS, *adj.* made of boxwood. *Scott.*

BUXHALL, a village in Suffolk between Bileston and Wulpet.

BUXIFEROUS, *adj.* bearing box. *Ash.*

BUXION, *n. f. obs.* a bud. *Chauc.*

To BUXIONEN. *v. n. obs.* To bud. *Chauc.*

BUXLOW, a town near Dunwick, Suffolk.

* BUXOM. *adj.* [*bucsum*, Sax. from *bugan*, to bend. It originally signified *obedient*, as *John de Trevisa*, a clergyman, tells his patron, that he is *obedient and buxom to all his commands*. In an old form of marriage used before the reformation, the bride promised to be *obedient and buxom in bed and at board*; from which expression, not well understood, its present meaning seems to be derived.] 1. Obedient; obsequious.—He did tread down, and disgrace all the English, and set up and countenance the Irish; thinking thereby to make them more tractable and *buxom* to his government. *Spenser.*—

He, with broad sails,

Winnow'd the *buxom* air.

Milton.

2. Gay; lively; brisk.—

I'm born

Again a fresh child of the *buxom* morn,
Heir of the sun's first beams.

Craik.

Zephyr, with Aurora playing,

As he met her once a maying,

Fill'd her with thee, a daughter fair,

So *buxom*, blithe, and debonnaire.

Milton.

Sturdy swains,

In clean array, for ruttick dance prepare,

Mixt with the *buxom* damiels hand in hand.

Philips.

3. Wanton; jolly.—

Almighty Jove descends, and pours

Into his *buxom* bride his fruitful shower's. *Dryd.*

She feign'd the rites of Bacchus! cry'd aloud,

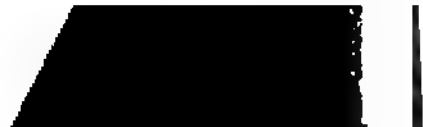
And to the *buxom* god the virgin vow'd. *Dryd.*

* BUXOMLY. *adv.* [from *buxom*.] Wantonly; amorously.

* BUXOMNESS. *n. f.* [from *buxom*.] Wantonness; amorosity.

X x x

BUXTEAD,



as well known above 200 years ago. They were brought into great credit by Dr Jones, in 1572, and by George earl of Shrewsbury, who erected a building over the bath, then composed of 9 springs. This building was afterwards pulled down, and a more commodious one erected at the expence of the earl of Devonshire. In doing this, however, the ancient register of cures drawn up by the bath-warden, or physician attending the baths, and subscribed by the hands of the patients, was lost. The warm waters of Buxton are, the bath, consisting of 9 springs, St Ann's well, and St Peter's or Bingham well. St Ann's well rises at the distance of somewhat more than 32 yards N. E. from the bath. It is chiefly supplied from a spring on the N. side out of a rock of black limestone or bastard marble. It formerly rose into a stone basin, shut up within an ancient Roman brick wall, a yard square within, a yard high on 3 sides, and open on the 4th. But, in 1709, Sir Thomas Delves erected an arch over it, which is 12 feet long, and as many broad, set round with stone steps on the inside. In the midst of this dome the water springs up into a stone basin two feet square. St Peter's or Bingham well rises about 20 yards S. E. of St Ann's. It is also called *Leigh's well*, from a memorable cure received from it by a gentleman of that name. It rises out of a black limestone, in a very dry ground; and is not so warm as St Ann's well. The hot water resembles that of Bristol. It has a sweet and pleasant taste. It contains the calcareous earth, together with a small quantity of sea salt, and an inconsiderable portion of a purging salt; but no iron can be discovered in it. This water taken inwardly is esteemed good in the diabetes, bloody urine, bilious cholic, loss of appetite, coldness of the stomach, inward bleedings, atrophy, contractions of the vessels and limbs, especially from age, cramps and convulsions; dry asthma without fever, and in barrenness. Inwardly and outwardly, it is said to be good in rheumatic and scorbutic complaints, the gout, inflammation of the liver and kidneys, consumptions of the lungs, old strains, hard callous tumors, withered and contracted limbs, the itch, scabs, nodes, chalky swellings, ring worms, and similar complaints.— Besides the hot water, there is also a cold chalybeate water, with a rough irony taste: It resembles the Tunbridge water in virtues. Mr Barclay says, in his *Complete Eng. Dict.* the chief wonder of these waters is now lost, this cold spring being now blended with the hot ones. For composing artificial Buxton water, or impregnating the original water with a greater quantity of its own or other gases, see **WATERS, MEDICINAL.**

BUXUS, the **BOX-TREE**: A genus of the tetrandria order, belonging to the monœcia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 38th order, Tricoccæ. The male calyx is triphyllous; the germen an embryo, or imperfect rudiment. The female calx is tetraphyllous: there are 3 petals, and as many styles: the capsule is three-beaked and trilocular, with 3 seeds. There are 3 species; viz.

1. **BUXUS ANGUSTIFOLIA**, the narrow-leaved box:

2. **BUXUS ARBORESCENS**, with oval leaves.

These two species grow in great plenty upon Box-hill near Dorking in Surry. Here were formerly large trees of that kind; but now they are few in number. There are 2 or 3 varieties of the 2d sort which are propagated in gardens; one with yellow, and the other with white striped leaves. Another hath the tips of the leaves only marked with yellow, and is called *tipped box*. Both these species may be raised from seeds, or propagated by cuttings, planted in Autumn in a shady border. The best season for removing these trees is in October; though if care be used to take them up with a ball of earth, they may be transplanted almost at any time except the middle of summer. The arborescens, or large box-tree is proper to intermix in clumps of evergreens, &c. where it adds to the variety of such plantations: they are a very great ornament to cold and barren soils where few other things will grow. Boxwood is extremely hard and smooth, and therefore well adapted to the use of the turner. Combs, mathematical instruments, knife-handles, and button moulds, are made of it. It may properly enough be substituted in default of ebony, the yellow alburnum of which it perfectly resembles. In the *Ephemerides of the Curious* there is the following account of the efficacy of boxwood in making the hair grow. "A young woman of Gunberg in Lower Silesia, having had a malignant dysentery, which occasioned the falling-off of all her hair, was advised by a person, some time after her recovery, (as her hair was not likely to grow again of itself, her head being then as bare as the hand,) to wash it all over with a decoction of boxwood; which she readily did, without the addition of any other drug. Hair of a chestnut-colour grew on her head, as she was told it would do; but having used no precaution to secure her neck and face from the lotion, they became covered with red hair to such a degree, that she seemed little different from an ape or a monkey." This decoction has been recommended by some as a powerful sudorific, preferable even to guaiacum; but the taste readily discovers that it wants the qualities of that wood. Neither the wood nor the leaves of the box-tree at present are used for any other medicinal purpose than the distillation of an empyreumatic oil; and an oil of nearly the same quality is obtained from almost every other wood.

3. **BUXUS SUFRUTICOSA**, dwarf or Dutch box, commonly used for bordering flower-beds: It is increased by parting the roots, or planting the slips; but as it makes a great increase of itself, and easily parts, it is hardly worth while to plant the slips that have no roots. For borders to flower-plots, it far excels any other plant; being subject to no injuries from cold or heat. It is of long duration; is easily kept handsome; and, by the firmness of its rooting, keeps the mould in the border from washing into the gravel walks more effectually than any plant whatever.

BUY, **BUIS**, or **BUYS**, a town of France, on the Oreze, in the department of Drome, 30 m. S. of Die. See **BUIS**, (N. 2.) Lon. 5. 20. E. Lat. 44. 25. N.

(1.) * To **BUY**. v. a. preter. I *bought*; I have *bought*. [*bicgean*, Sax.] 1. To purchase; to acquire by paying a price; to obtain for money, or something

thing equivalent; to procure by sale, not gift or theft.—They must *buy* up no corn growing within twelve miles of Geneva, that so the filling of their magazines may not prejudice there market. *Addison*. 2. To procure some advantage by something that deserves it, or at some price.—

I have *bought*

Golden opinions from all sorts of people.

Shakespeare.

Pent to linger

But with a grain a day, I would not *buy*
Their mercy at the price of one fair word.

Shakespeare.

Pleasure with praise, and danger they would
buy,

And with a foe that would not only fly.

Denham.

3. To regulate by money; in this sense it has particles annexed.—

You, and all the kings of christendom,
Are led so grossly by this meddling priest,
Dreading the curse that money may *buy* out.

Shakespeare.

—What pitiful things are power, rhetorick, or riches, when they would terrify, dissuade or *buy* off conscience? *South.*

(2.) * *To Buy*. v. n. To treat about a purchase. —I will *buy* with you, sell with you, talk with you, walk with you, and so following. *Shakeff.*

* *BUYER*. n. s. [from *To buy*.] He that buys; a purchaser.—When a piece of art is set before us, let the first caution be, not to ask who made it, lest the fame of the author do captivate the fancy of the *buyer*. *Wotton.*

(1.) *BUYING*, the act of making a purchase, or of acquiring the property of a thing for a certain price. *Buying* differs from borrowing or hiring, as in the former the property of the thing is alienated for perpetuity, which in the latter is not. By the civil law, persons are allowed to buy hope, *speciè præcio emere*, that is, to purchase the event or expectation of any thing; *E. gr.* The fish or birds a person shall catch, or the money he shall win in gaming. There are different species of buying in use among traders: as, 1. on one's own account, 2. on commission, 3. for ready money, 4. on credit, and 5. on delivery, all of which are intelligible by the most illiterate.

(2.) *BUYING THE REFUSAL* is giving money for the right or liberty of purchasing a thing at a fixed price, in a certain time to come; chiefly used in dealing for shares in stock. This is also called by a cant name, *buying the bear*.

(3.) *BUYING THE SMALL-POX* is an appellation given to a method of procuring that disease by an operation similar to *INOCULATION*; frequent in South Wales, where it has obtained time out of mind. It is performed either by rubbing some of the *pūs* taken out of a pustule of a variculous person on the skin, or by making a puncture in the skin with a pin dipped in such *pūs*.

* *BUYS*. See *BUYS*, N. 1. and 2. and *BUY*.

(1.) *BUZ*, the son of Nahor by Milcah, progenitor of the *BUZITES*, an ancestor of Elihu, the youngest and most judicious of Job's friends.

(2.) *Buz*, in ichthyology, the name of a fish more commonly known by that of *ALBULA*, and caught in the German lakes.

BUZANCOIS, a small town of France, in the department of Indre, and ci-devant province of Berry. Lon. 1. 29. E. Lat. 46. 38. N.

BUZANCY, a town of France, in the department of Ardennes. Lon. 5. 5. E. Lat. 49. 23. N.

BUZBACH, a town of Germany, in Weteravia and the county of Holmes, on the confines of Hanau. Lon. 10. 51. E. Lat. 50. 22. N.

BUZET, a small town of France, in the department of Upper Garonne, and ci-devant province of Languedoc, seated on the river Tarn. Lon. 1. 45. E. Lat. 43. 47. N.

BUZIDAN, in the materia medica of the ancients, a name given by Avicenna, and others, to a wood produced in Africa, which had the same virtues with the ben root.

(1.) *BUZITES*, a tribe of Arabs, the descendants of Buz, who inhabited a district of Arabia Deserta, and were at last enslaved by Nebuchadnezzar.

(2.) *BUZITES*. See *BUSITES*.

BUZO, in old records, the shaft of an arrow, before it is feathered.

* *BUZZ*. n. s. [from the verb.] A hum; a whisper; a talk.—The hive of a city or kingdom is in the best condition when there is least noise or *buzz* in it. *Bacon*.—Where I found the whole outward room in a *buzz* of politicks. *Addison*.

(1.) * *To Buzz*. v. a. To whisper; to spread secretly.—

Where doth the world thrust forth a vanity,
That is not quickly *buzz'd* into his ears? *Shaks.*

I will *buzz* abroad such prophecies,
That Edward shall be fearful of his life. *Shaks.*

Did you not hear

A *buzzing* of a separation

Between the king and Catherine? *Shaks.*

—They might *buzz* and whisper at one another, and, tacitly withdrawing from the presence of the apostles, they then lift their voices, and noise about the city. *Bentley*.

(2.) * *To Buzz*. v. n. [*bizzes*, Teut. to growl. *Junius*.] 1. To hum; to make a noise like bees, flies, or wasps.—

And all the chamber filled was with flies,
Which *buzzed* about, and made such sound.
That they encumber'd all men's ears and eyes,
Like many swarms of bees assembled round.

Spenser.

There be more wasps, that *buzz* about his nose,

Will make this sting the sooner. *Shaks.*

For still the flowers ready stand,

One *bizzes* round about,

One lights, one tastes, gets in, gets out. *Saunders.*

What though no bees around your cradle flew,
Nor on your lips distill'd their golden dew;
Yet have we oft discover'd, in their stead,
A swarm of drones that *buzz'd* about your head.

Pope.

—We join, like flies and wasps, in *buzzing* about wit. *Swift*. 2. To whisper; to prate to.—

There is such confusion in my pow'rs,
As after some oration fairly spoke

By a beloved prince, there doth appear

Among the *buzzing* multitude. *Shaks.*

3. To sound heavy and low.—Herewith arose a *buzzing*

zing noise among them, as if it had been the stinging sound of the sea afar off. *Hayward.*

(1.) * BUZZARD. *n. f.* [*busard*, Fr.] 1. A desperate or mean species of hawk.—

More pity that the eagle should be mawl'd,
While kites and buzzards prey at liberty. *Shakes.*

The noble buzzard ever pleas'd me best;
Of small renown, 'tis true: for, not to lie,
We call him but a hawk by courtesy. *Dryden.*
A blockhead; a dunce.—Those blind buzzards, who, in late years, of wilful maliciousness, could neither learn themselves, nor could teach others any thing at all. *Ascham.*

(2.) BUZZARD, in ornithology, the name of several species of the hawk kind. See FALCO.

BUZZARD DIKES, a place in Perthshire, about 8 m. S. E. of Dunkeld, where the ancient Pictonians entrenched themselves during the Roman invasion under Agricola. "The buzzard dike or vallum, (says Mr Ritchie,) is still in many places 8 or 10 feet high." *Stat. Acc. Vol. IX. p. 262.*

* BUZZER. *n. f.* [from *buzz*.] A secret whisperer.—

Her brother is in secret come from France,
And wants not buzzers to infect his ear
With petulant speeches of his father's death.

Shakespeare.

(1.) * BY. *prep.* [*bi*, *big*, Saxon.] 1. It notes the agent.—The Moor is with child *by* you, Launlot. *Shakes.*—The grammar of a language is sometimes to be carefully studied *by* a gown-man. *see.*

Death's what the guilty fear, the pious crave,
Sought *by* the wretch, and vanquished *by* the brave.

Gartb.

It notes the instrument, and is commonly used after a verb neuter, where *with* would be put after an active; as, he killed her *with* a sword; she died *by* a sword.—

But *by* Pelides' arms when Hector fell,
He chose Æneas, and he chose as well. *Dryden.*
It notes the cause of any effect.—

I view, *by* no presumption led,
Your revels of the night.

Parnel.

By woe the soul to daring action steals,
By woe in plaintless patience it excels. *Savage.*

It notes the means by which any thing is performed, or obtained.—You must think, if we give you any thing, we hope to gain *by* you. *Shakes.*—

Happier I had it suffic'd him to have known
Good *by* itself, and evil not at all. *Par. Lost.*

The heart knows that *by* itself, which nothing
The world besides can give it any knowledge of.

see.—We obtain the knowledge of a multitude of propositions *by* sensation and reflection. *Watt's Logic.*

3. It shews the manner of an action.—

I have no patience; she consumes the time
In idle talk, and own her false belief:

Seize her *by* force, and bear her hence unheard.

Dryden.

—This fight had more weight with him, as *by*
Good luck not above two of that venerable body
Were fallen asleep. *Addison.*—

By chance, within a neighbouring brook,
He saw his branching horns, and alter'd look.

Addison.

6. It has a signification, noting the method in which any successive action is performed with regard to time or quantity.—The best for you, is to re-examine the cause, and to try it even point *by* point, argument *by* argument, with all the exactness you can. *Hooker.*—We are not to stay all together, but to come by him where he stands, *by* ones, *by* twos, and *by* threes. *Shakespeare.*—He calleth them forth *by* one, and *by* one, by the name, as he pleaseth, though seldom the order be inverted. *Bacon.*—The captains were obliged to break that piece of ordnance, and so *by* pieces to carry it away, that the enemy should not get so great a spoil. *Knolles.*—Common prudence would direct me to take them all out, and examine them one *by* one. *Boyle.*—Others will soon take pattern and encouragement by your building; and so house *by* house, street *by* street, there will at last be finished a magnificent city. *Spratt.*—

Explor'd her, limb *by* limb, and fear'd to find
So rude a gripe had left a vivid mark behind.

Dryden.

Thus year *by* year they pass, and day *by* day,
Till once 'twas on the morn of cheerful May,
The young Æmilia—

Dryden.

I'll gaze for ever on thy godlike father,
Transplanting one *by* one into my life,
His bright perfections, till I shine like him.

Addison.

—Let the blows be *by* pauses laid on. *Locke.* 7. It notes the quantity had at one time.—Bullion will sell *by* the ounce for 6 sh. and 5 d. unclipped money. *Locke.*—What we take daily *by* pounds, is at least of as much importance as what we take seldom, and only *by* grains and spoonfuls. *Arbutnot.*—

The North, *by* myriads, pours her mighty
sons;

Great nurse of Goths, of Alans, and of Huns.

Pope.

8. At, or in; noting place: it is now perhaps only used before the words *sea*, or *water*, and *land*. This seems a remnant of a meaning now little known. *By* once † expressed situation; as, *by* west, westward.—We see the great effects of battles *by* sea; the battle of Actium decided the empire of the world. *Bacon.*—

Arms, and the man, I sing, who, forc'd by fate,
Expell'd, and exil'd, left the Trojan shore;

Long labours both *by* sea and land he bore. *Dryd.*

I would have fought *by* land, where I was
stronger:

You hinder'd it; yet, when I fought at sea,
Forlook me fighting.

Dryden.

By land, *by* water, they renew their charge. *Pope.*

9. According to; noting permission.—It is lawful, both *by* the laws of nature and nations, and *by* the law divine, which is the perfection of the other two. *Bacon's Holy War.* 10. According to; noting proof.—The present, or like, system of the world cannot possibly have been eternal, *by* the first proposition; and, without God, it could not naturally, nor fortuitously, emerge out of chaos, *by* the third proposition. *Bentley.*—The faculty, or desire, being infinite, *by* the preceding proposition, may contain or receive both these. *Cheyne.*

11.

† We know not why Dr Johnson has inserted the word once here. *By* certainly still expresses situation, and in this sense is applied to distinguish various points in the compass; as W. by N.—N. E. by E. &c.

21. After; according to; noting imitation or conformity.—The gospel gives us such laws, as every man, that understands himself, would chuse to live *by*. *Tillotson*.—In the divisions I have made, I have endeavoured, the best I could, to govern myself *by* the diversity of matter. *Locke*.—This ship, by good luck, fell into their hands at last, and served as a model to build others *by*. *Arbutnot*. 12. From; noting ground of judgment, or comparison.—

Thus, *by* the musick, we may know,

When noble wits a hunting go,

Through groves that on Parnassus grow. *Waller*.
—*By* what he has done, before the war in which he was engaged, we may expect what he will do after a peace. *Dryden*.—

The son of Hercules he justly seems,
By his broad shoulders and gigantick limbs. *Dryden*.

Who's that stranger? *By* his warlike port,
His fierce demeanour, and erected look,
He's of no vulgar note. *Dryden*.

Judge the event

By what has pass'd. *Dryden*.

—The punishment is not to be measured *by* the greatness or smallness of the matter, but *by* the opposition it carries and stands in, to that respect and submission that is due to the father. *Locke*.—*By* your description of the town, I imagine it to lie under some great enchantment. *Pope*.
—*By* what I have always heard and read, I take the strength of a nation.— *Swift*. 13. It notes the sum of the difference between two things compared.—

Meantime she stands provided of a Laius,
More young and vigorous too *by* twenty springs. *Dryden*.

Her brother Rivers,

Ere this, lies shorter *by* the head at Pomfret. *Roxe*.

—*By* giving the denomination to less quantities of silver *by* one 20th, you take from their due. *Locke*.
14. It notes co-operation.—*By* her he had two children at one birth. *Shakespeare*. 15. For; noting continuance of time. This sense is not now in use.—Ferdinand andabella recovered the kingdom of Granada from the Moors; having been in possession thereof *by* the space of 700 years. *Bacon*. 16. As soon as; not later than; noting time.—

By this, the sons of Constantine which fled,
Ambrise and Uther, did ripe years attain.

Fairy Queen.

Hector, *by* the fifth hour of the sun,
Will, with a trumpet, 'twixt our tents and Troy,
To-morrow morning call some knight to arms.

Shakespeare.

He err'd not; for, *by* this, the heav'nly bands
Down from a sky of jasper lighted now
In paradise. *Milton*.

These have their course to finish round the
earth

By morrow ev'ning. *Milton's Paradise Lost*.

The angelick guards ascending, mute and sad
For man: for of his state *by* this they knew.

Paradise Lost.

—*By* that time a siege is carried on two or three days, I am altogether lost and bewildered in it.

Addison.—*By* this time, the very foundation was removed. *Swift*.—*By* the beginning of the fourth century from the building of Rome, the tribune proceed so far, as to accuse and fine the consuls. *Swift*. 17. Beside; noting passage.—Many beautiful places standing along the sea-shore, make the town appear longer than it is, to those that *by* it. *Addison*. 18. Beside; near to; in presence; noting proximity of place.—So thou may'st see, the king lies *by* a beggar, if a beggar dwell near him; or the church stands *by* thy tabour, if thy tabour stand *by* the church. *Shakespeare*.—

Here he comes himself;

If he be worth any man's good voice,
That good man sit down *by* him. *Ben Jonson*.

A spacious plain, whereon

Were tents of various hue: *by* some, were herds
Of cattle grazing. *Milton*.

Stay *by* me; thou art resolute and faithful;

I have employment worthy of thy arm. *Dryden*.

19. Before *himself*, *herself*, or *themselves*, it notes the absence of all others.—Sitting in some place, *by himself*, let him translate into English his former lesson. *Ascham*.—Solyman resolved to attack the breach, after he had, *by himself*, in a melancholy mood, walked up and down in his tent. *Knolles's History of the Turks*.—I know not whether he will annex his discourse to his appendix, or publish it *by itself*, or at all. *Boyle*.—He will imagine, that the king, and his ministers, sat down and made them *by themselves*, and then sent them to their allies, to sign. *Swift*.—

More pleas'd to keep it, till their friends
could come,

Then eat the sweetest *by themselves* at home. *Pope*.

20. At hand.—He kept then some of the spirit in him, to verify what he believes. *Boyle*.—The merchant is not forced to keep so much money as him, as in other places, where they have not such a supply. *Locke*. 21. It is the solemn form of swearing.—

His godhead I invoke, *by* him I swear. *Dryden*.

22. It is used in forms of adjuring, or obtaining.—

Which, O! avert *by* yon ethereal light,

Which I have lost for this eternal night;

Or if, by dearer ties, you may be won,

By your dead sire, and *by* your living son. *Dryden*.

Now *by* your joys on earth, your hopes in
heav'n,

O spare this great, this good, this aged king! *Dryden*.

O cruel youth!

By all the pain that wrings my tortur'd soul!

By all the dear deceitful hopes you gave me,

O, cease! at least, once more delude my
rows. *Shakespeare*.

23. It signifies specification and particularity.—

Upbraiding heav'n, from whence this lineage
came,

And cruel calls the gods, and cruel thee.
name. *Dryden*.

24. By proxy of; noting substitution.—The gods were said to feast with the Ethiopians; that they were present with them *by* their statue. *Broome*. 25. In the same direction with.—They are also striated, or furrowed, *by* the length, and the sides curiously punched, or pricked. *Grew*.

(II.) * *By. adv.* 1. Near; at a small distance.—

And, in, it lies, the god of sleep;

And, snorting *by*,

We may descry

The monsters of the deep.

Dryden.

Beside; passing.—

I did hear

The galloping of horse. Who was't came *by*?

Shakespeare.

In presence.—The same words in my lady Phil-
cel's mouth, as from one woman to another,
as there was no other body *by*, might have had
better grace. *Sidney.*—

I'll not be *by*, the while; my liege, farewell:
What will become hereof, there's none can tell.

Shakespeare.

There while I sing, if gentle youth be *by*,

That tunes my lute, and winds the strings so
high.

Waller.

Pris'ners and witnesses were waiting *by*;

These had been taught to swear, and those to
die.

Roscommon.

You have put a principle into him, which will
fluence his actions, when you are not *by*.

Locke.

(1.) *BY AND ATTOUR*, in Scots law, besides;
near and above. It is chiefly used in indentures,
respecting penalties to be incurred for failure of
it, "*by and attour performance*."

(2.) * *BY AND BY*. In a short time.—He over-
took Amphialus, who had been staid here, and
and *by* called him to fight him. *Sidney.*—

The noble knight alighted *by and by*,
From lofty steed, and bad the lady stay,
To see what end of fight should him befall that
day.

Spenser.

In the temple, *by and by*, with us,

These couples shall eternally be knit.

Shakespeare.

O how this spring of love resembleth

The uncertain glory of an April day;

Which now shews all the beauty of the sun,

And *by and by* a cloud takes all away.

Shakespeare.

Now a sensible man, *by and by* a fool, and pre-
sently a beast.

Shakespeare's Othello.

(III.) * *BY. n. f.* † [from the preposition.] Some-
thing not the direct and immediate object of re-
gard.—In this instance, there is, upon the *by*, to
be noted, the percolation of the verjuice through
the wood. *Bacon.*—This wolf was forced to make
his way, ever and anon, with a sheep in private, *by*
the *by*. *L'Estrange.*—Hence we may understand,
that upon the *by*, that it is not necessary.
Johnson.—

So, while my lov'd revenge is full and high,
I'll give you back your kingdom *by the by*.

Dryden.

(IV.) * *By*, in composition, implies something
out of the direct way; and, consequently, some-
thing irregular, as a *by-road*; something irregular, as a
by-end; or something collateral, as a *by-concern-*

ment; or private, as a *by-law*†. This composition
is used at pleasure, and will be understood by the
examples following:

(1.) * *BY-COFFEEHOUSE. n. f.* A coffeehouse
in an obscure place.—I afterwards entered a *by-*
coffeehouse, that stood at the upper end of a nar-
row lane, where I met with a non-juror. *Addison.*

(2.) * *BY-CONCERNMENT. n. f.* An affair which
is not the main business.—Our plays, besides the
main design, have under-plots, or *by-concernments*,
or less considerable persons and intrigues, which
are carried on with the motion of the main plot.

Dryden.

(3.) * *BY-DEPENDENCE. n. f.* An appendage;
something accidentally depending on another.—

These,

And your three motives to the battle, with
I know not how much more, should be de-
manded;

And all the other *by-dependencies*,

From chance to chance.

Shakespeare.

(4.) * *BY-DESIGN. n. f.* An incidental pur-
pose.—

And if she miss the mouse trap lines,

They'll serve for other *by-designs*,

And make an artist understand,

To copy out her seal or hand;

Or find void places in the paper,

To steal in something to entrap her. *Hudibras.*

(5.) * *BY-END. n. f.* Private interest; secret
advantage.—All people that worship for fear, pro-
fit, or some other *by-end*, fall within the intend-
ment of this fable. *L'Estrange.*

(6.) * *BY-GONE. adj.* [a Scotch word.] Past.—

Tell him, you're sure

All in Bohemia's well: this satisfaction

The *by-gone* day proclaim'd.

Shakespeare.

—As we have a conceit of motion coming, as well
as *by-gone*; so have we of time, which dependeth
thereupon. *Greene.*

(7.) * *BY-INTEREST. n. f.* Interest distinct from
that of the public.—Various factions and parties,
all aiming at *by-interest*, without any sincere re-
gard to the publick good. *Atterbury.*

(8.) * *BY-LAW. n. f.* *By-laws* are orders made
in court-leets, or court barons, by common as-
sent, for the good of those that make them, far-
ther than the publick law binds. *Covent.*—There
was also a law, to restrain the *by-laws* and ordi-
nances of corporations. *Bacon.*—In the beginning
of this record is inserted the law or institution;
to which are added two *by-laws*, as a comment
upon the general law. *Addison.*

(9.) *BY-LAWS* are laws made *obiter*, or by the
by; in particular cases whereunto the public law
doth not extend. Guilds and fraternities of trades
by letters patent of incorporation, may likewise
make *by-laws* for the better regulation of trade a-
mong themselves or others. In Scotland these
laws are called laws of *BYRLAW*, or *BURLAW*;
which

† Dr JOHNSON is wrong in stating *BY* here, as a substantive noun. In none of his authorities above
cited, and indeed in no case whatever, that we can recollect, does *BY* ever express any name or sub-
stance, real or imaginary. The expressions "*BY THE BY*" and "*UPON THE BY*" are evidently adver-
bial, like *BY AND BY*; which he has very properly made a distinct article. In Latin and Greek they are
expressed in one word—*Obiter*, *anaglyptus*.

‡ Dr ASH ranks *BY*, in these senses, as an adjective, which it certainly must be considered in all such
cases, where the primitives are disjoined by throwing out the hyphen. But most of the compounds, enu-
merated by Dr JOHNSON in the subsequent list, are sufficiently established by custom.

... is improper in giving **BY-WEAT** as a substantive noun. It neither expresses the substance of any thing. In fact, it is not a compound, but two distinct words; and ought to be put no place in this list of the compounds of **BY**; especially as he had previously explained them when, in I. def. II. It does not come under any one of his introductory definitions, in § IV; being neither any form of "obscurety," nor of any thing "irregular, collateral, or private," but merely plain and to be well known.

... which, and
... that and
... no more
... process
... of 44 km
... of them
... and by
... it

It was the royal residence of Cinyras, and sacred to Adonis. Pompey delivered it from a tyrant, whom he caused to be beheaded. It stood near the sea, on an eminence, and near it ran the Adonis into the Mediterranean. It is now in ruins.

BYBURY, a town N. W. of Fairford, Gloucestershire.

BYCHOW, a small town of Poland, in Lithuania, situated on the river Dnieper. Lon. 30. 2. Lat. 53. 57. N.

To BYDDE, v. a. obs. To publish. *Chauc.*

** BYE, or BEE, come immediately from the Saxon, bee, being, i. e. a dwelling.*

BYEBE, *n. s. obs.* A dwelling. *Gibson.*

BYER, *n. s. obs.* A cow-house. *Asb.*

BYERLEY, NORTH, } Two villages in York-
BYERLEY, SOUTH, } shire, near Bradford.

BYFIELD, in Northamptonshire, between Banbury and Daventry.

BYFLEET, in Surry, near Cobham.

BYFORD, two villages; 1. in Herefordshire, near Bredwardin: 2. in Holderness, Yorkshire.

BYFORNE, *prep. obs.* Before. *Chauc.*

BYGHOF, or BYNCHOW, a town of Russian Lithuania, seated on the Dnieper, in the palatinate of Miecislaw, 186 m. S. of Wilna. Lon. 30. 5. E. Lat. 53. 10. N.

BYGRAVE-HALL, N. W. of Baldock, Hertford.

To BYHETE, v. n. obs. To promise. *Chauc.*

BYKER, *n. s. obs.* A fray; a quarrel.

BYKESHORE, a village 1 m. from Newcastle, upon Tyne.

BYKEWARE, near Hawksbury, Gloucestersh.

BYLAND, in Yorkshire, near Thirsk.

BY-LAW. See **By**, No. IV. § 8, 9.

To BYLEVE, v. n. obs. To abide; to tarry. *Chauc.*

BYLEY, a village in Cheshire, N. E. of Midswich.

BYNALL, 3 m. S. E. of Wootton-Basset.

BYNAMY, near Beeds-Haven, Cornwall.

BYNCHOW. See **BYGHOF**.

To BYNEMME, v. n. obs. To bereave. *Ch.*

BYNEMPT, *adj. obs.* Named. *Spenser.*

(1.) **BYNG**, George, lord viscount Torrington, son of John Byng, Esq; was born in 1663. At the age of 15, he went volunteer to sea with the king's warrant. His early engagement in this kind of life gave him little opportunity of acquiring learning, but by his abilities and activity as a naval commander he furnished abundant matter for the pens of others. After being several years advanced, he was, in 1702, raised to the command of the *Nassau*, a third rate, and was at the taking and burning of the French fleet at Vigo; and in 1703, he was made rear-admiral of the red. In 1704, he served in the grand fleet sent to the Mediterranean under Sir Cloudesly Shovel; and he commanded the squadron that attacked, cannonaded, and reduced Gibraltar. He was in the battle of Malaga, and was knighted for his gallant behaviour in that action by queen Anne. In 1705, within two months, he took 12 of the enemy's largest privateers, with the *Thetis*, a French man of war of 44 guns; and also several merchant ships, most of them richly laden. The number of men taken on board was 2070.

VOL. IV. PART II.

and of guns 334. In 1718, he was made admiral and commander in chief of the fleet; and was sent with a squadron into the Mediterranean for the protection of Italy, against the invasion of the Spaniards; who had surprized Sardinia, and landed an army in Sicily. In this expedition he dispatched captain Walton in the *Canterbury*, with 5 more ships in pursuit of six Spanish men of war, with galleys, fire-ships, bomb-vessels, and store-ships, who separated from the main fleet, and stood in for the Sicilian shore. The captain's laconic epistle on this occasion is worthy of record; which showed that fighting was his talent as well as his Admiral's, and not writing. "Sir, We have taken and destroyed all the Spanish ships and vessels which were upon the coast as per margin. *Canterbury*, off Syracuse, I am, &c. G. WALTON, August 16th, 1718." From the account referred to, it appeared that he had taken 4 Spanish men of war, with a bomb-vessel and a ship laden with arms; and burned 4 with a fire-ship and bomb-vessel. The king made the admiral an handsome present, and sent him plenipotentiary powers to negotiate with the princes and states of Italy as there should be occasion. He procured the emperor's troops free access into the fortresses that still held out in Sicily; sailed afterwards to Malta, and brought out the Sicilian galleys, and a ship belonging to the Turkey company. Soon after he received a gracious letter from the emperor Charles VI. written with his own hand, accompanied with his picture, set round with very large diamonds, as a mark of the grateful sense he had of his services. It was entirely owing to his advice and assistance, that the Germans retook the city of Messina in 1719, and destroyed the ships that lay in the basin; which completed the ruin of the naval power of Spain. The Spaniards being much distressed, offered to quit Sicily; but the admiral declared, that the troops should never be suffered to quit the island till the king of Spain had acceded to the quadruple alliance. And to his conduct it was entirely owing that Sicily was subdued, and that monarch forced to accept the terms prescribed him by the quadruple alliance. After performing so many signal services, the king received him with the most gracious expressions of favour and satisfaction; made him rear-admiral of England and treasurer of the navy, one of his most honourable privy council, baron Byng of Southill in the county of Bedford, viscount Torrington, in Devonshire, and one of the knights companions of the Bath. In 1727, Geo. II. on his accession to the crown, placed him at the head of his naval affairs, as first lord of the Admiralty; in which high station he died Jan. 15, 1733, in the 70th year of his age, and was buried at Southill in Bedfordshire.

(2.) **BYNG**, George, Esq; the unfortunate son of the former, was bred to sea, and rose to the rank of admiral of the blue. He gave many proofs of courage; but was at last shot, upon a dubious sentence for neglect of duty, in 1757. See **ENGLAND, HISTORY OF**.

BYNITH-WOOD, in the county of Cornwall, between Leskaid and Launceston.

To BYNOME, v. a. obs. To take away. *Ch.*

BYNTON, a town near Bitford, Warwicksh.

Y y y

BYNWES-

crucaceous wing-cases. See *Plate* XII. fig. 8.
4. *Brachos pectoratus*, which is very
common upon flowers, is very hard to describe
properly. Its body is almost oval, the ground
color black, but the under part of the abdomen
appears almost white, owing to an infinite
number of minute scales, of that color, with
which it is covered. The head is small, and often
drawn back under the thorax, which is broad,

appears from many ancient writers, particularly
Julius Pollux.—M. Sapon, who reads the set

Horns of the Bos Arnee.



Plate XLVI.

B. Quadro.

Fig. 3. 4. 5. 6.

100 square

by fine linen, adds in a note, "that there was a fine kind of linen very dear, which the great lords alone wore in this country, as well as in Egypt." This account agrees with that of Hesychius, as well as with Bochart's observation, that the byssus was a finer kind of linen, which was frequently dyed of a purple colour. Some authors will have the byssus to be the same with our cotton; others take it for the *linum asbestinum*; and others for the lock or bunch of silky hair found adhering to the pinna marina, by which it fastens itself to other bodies. Authors usually distinguish two sorts of byssus; that of Ellis; and that of Judaea, which was the finest. Of this latter were the priestly ornaments made. Bonfrerius says, that there must have been two sorts of byssus, one finer than the other; as there are two Hebrew words used in Scripture to denote byssus; one of which is always used in speaking of the habit of the priests, and the other of that of the Levites.

(2.) *Byssus*, in botany, a genus of mosses, belonging to the order *algæ*, in the cryptogamia class of plants; and ranked by some under *Alga*, the 57th order in the natural method; though others rank them under the 58th, *Fungi*. The characters are, that the mosses of it are composed of simple and uniform parts, and always appear in form of excrescences, either of a woolly or of a dusty matter. It seems properly a genus of a middle kind, between the mushrooms and the mosses, but most approaching to the latter, as the several species of it are of longer duration, and want that fleshy texture which distinguishes the *fungus* class, and as they never produce heads, nor have any thing of the figure or texture of *fungi*. They have not yet been discovered to have either flower or seed, but appear always in form of threads, or of a light down, or fine powder, on the surface of many different bodies, but principally such as are liable to putrefaction. Micheli, in his *Nov. Gen. Plantarum*, p. 210. mentions the seeds of some of the *byssi*; but later botanists, and particularly the indefatigable Dillenius, were never able to observe them. This last author has described 20 species of these small plants. There are 15 species natives of Britain, which grow upon old walls, rotten wood, &c. They are also found in many parts of Europe, covering the ground like a carpet. See Plate XLVI. Fig. 11.

(3.) *Byssus asbestinus*, a species of asbestos or combustible flax, composed of fine flexible parallel fibres. It is found plentifully in Sweden, either white or of different shades of green. At a copper mine in Westmannland, it forms the greatest part of the vein out of which the ore is dug; and by the heat of the furnace which melts the metal, is changed into a pure semi-transparent glass.

BY THE BY, or } *adv.* An expression of apology, for some slight digression from the immediate subject of discourse. We state it as an adverb, or *adverbial expression*, though consisting of three words, not so much because it is expressed in one word in other languages, as because the word *BY* is in no case a *substantive noun*, and the synonyme *WAY* is here used in a sense quite different from its *substantive* signification, a path or road. See *By*, § III; with the Note.

BYTHUS, [from *Bythos*, profundity,] one of the names given to the Deity, by the Valentinians.

BYTON, a town in Herefordshire, E. of Presteign, in Radnorshire.

BYTRENT, *adj. obs.* Caught up. *Bailey*.

BYTTNERIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants. The corolla is composed of 3 petals; the capsule has 5 lobes, and is covered with prickles. There is only one species.

BYWHOPEN, *adj. obs.* Stupified. *Ash*.

BYWORTH, a town near Petworth; *Suffex*.

BYZANT. See BESANT, § 1 and 2.

BYZANTINA, *BLATTA*. See *BLATTA*, N° IV.

(1.) BYZANTINE, *adj.* Of, or belonging to Byzantium:

(2.) * BYZANTINE. See BIZANTINE. *Byzantine* is the true orthography.

BYZANTIUM, an ancient city of Thrace, situated on the Bosphorus. It was founded, according to Eusebius, about the 30th Olympiad, while Tullus Hostilius reigned in Rome. But, according to Diodorus Siculus, the foundations of this metropolis were laid in the time of the Argonauts, by one Byzas, from whom the city was called *Byzantium*. See *Byzas*. Velleius Paterculus ascribes the founding of Byzantium to the Milesians, and Ammianus Marcellinus to the inhabitants of Attica. Some ancient medals of Byzantium, which have reached our times, bear the name and head of Byzas, with the prow of a ship on the reverse. The year after the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus, Byzantium was reduced to a Roman province. In A. D. 193 it took part with Niger against Severus. It was strongly garrisoned by Niger, as being a place of the utmost importance. It was soon after invested by Severus; and as he was universally hated for his cruelty, the inhabitants defended themselves with the greatest resolution. They had been supplied with a great number of warlike machines, most of them invented and built by Periscus a native of Nicæa, and the greatest engineer of his age. For a long time they baffled all the attempts of the assailants, killed great numbers of them, crushed such as approached the walls with large stones; and when stones began to fail, they used the statues of their gods and heroes. At last they were obliged to submit; through famine, after having been reduced to the necessity of devouring one another. Severus put all the magistrates and soldiers to the sword; but spared the engineer Periscus. Before this siege, Byzantium was the greatest, most populous, and wealthiest city in Thrace. It was surrounded by walls of an extraordinary height and breadth; and defended by a great number of towers, 7 of which were built with such art, that the least noise heard in one of them was immediately conveyed to all the rest. But Severus was no sooner master of it, than he laid it in ashes. The inhabitants were stripped of all their effects, and sold for slaves, and the walls levelled with the ground. By the chronicle of Alexandria we are informed, that soon after this terrible catastrophe, Severus himself caused a great part of the city to be rebuilt, calling it *Antonina* from his son Antoninus Caracalla. In 262, the tyrant Galienus wreaked his fury on the inhabitants of Byzantium.

He intended to besiege it; but on his arrival, despaired of being able to make himself master of such a strong place. He was admitted the next day, however, into the city; and without regarding the terms he had agreed to, caused the soldiers and all the inhabitants to be put to the sword. Trebellius Pollio says, that not a single person was left alive. What the reason was for such an extraordinary massacre, we are no where informed. In the wars between the emperors Licinius and Maximin, Byzantium was obliged to submit to the latter, but was soon after recovered by Licinius. In 323, it was taken from Licinius by Constantine the Great, who, in 330 greatly enlarged and beautified it. He began with extending its walls from sea to sea; and while some of the workmen were busied in rearing them, others were employed in raising within them a great number of stately buildings, and among others a palace no way inferior in magnificence and extent to that of Rome. He built a capitol and amphitheatre, made a circus maximus, several forums, porticoes, and public baths; and divided the whole city into 14 regions. Thus Byzantium became one of the most flourishing and populous cities of the empire. Vast numbers of people flocked to it from Pontus, Thrace, and Asia, Constantine having decreed, that such as had lands in those countries should not be at liberty to dispose of them, nor even leave them to their heirs at their death, unless they had a house in his new city. But however desirous the emperor was that

his city should be filled with people, he did not wish it to be inhabited by any but Christians. He therefore caused all the idols to be pulled down, and all their churches consecrated to the true God. He built besides an incredible number of churches, and caused crosses to be erected in all the squares and public places. Most of the buildings being finished, it was solemnly dedicated to the Virgin Mary, according to Cedrenus, but, according to Eusebius, to the God of Martyrs. At the same time Byzantium was equalled to Rome in point of privileges. The same rights and immunities were granted to its inhabitants as to those of the metropolis. He established a senate and other magistrates, with a power and authority equal to those of old Rome. He took up his residence in the new city; and changed its name to CONSTANTINOPLE.

BYZIA, or VIZA, a town of European Turkey in Romania; one of the ancient seats of the Thracian kings.

BZOVIVS, Abraham, a celebrated writer of the 17th century, who composed an astonishing number of pieces. His chief work is the continuation of Baronius's annals. He was a native of Poland, and a Dominican friar. Upon his coming to Rome, he was received with open arms by the Pope, and had an apartment assigned him in the Vatican. He merited that reception, for he had imitated Baronius in making all things conspire to the despotic power and glory of the papal see. He died in 1637, aged 70.

C

(1.) * **C** The 3d letter of the alphabet, has two sounds; one like *k*, as, *call*, *clock*, *craft*, *coal*, *companion*, *cuneiform*; the other as *s*, as, *Cæsar*, *cessation*, *cinder*. It sounds like *k* before *a*, *o*, *u*, or a consonant; and like *s*, before *e*, *i*, and *y*.

(2.) **C** is used, 1. as a letter; 2. as an abbreviation; and, 3. as a numeral. I. As a LETTER, **C** is the 2d consonant as well as the 2d mute of our alphabet. It is formed, according to Scaliger, from the α of the Greeks, by retrenching the stem or upright line; though others derive it from the γ of the Hebrews, which has in effect the same form; allowing only for this, that the Hebrews, reading backwards, and the Latins, &c. forwards, each have turned the letter their own way. However, the **C** not being the same as to sound with the Hebrew *capb*, and it being certain the Romans did not borrow their letters immediately from the Hebrews or other orientals, but from the Greeks, the derivation from the Greek α is the more probable. F. Montfaucon, in his *Palæographia*, gives us some forms of the Greek α , which come very near that of our **C**; thus, for instance, ϵ : and *Suidas* calls the **C** the Roman kappa. The second sound of **C** resembles that of the Greek ξ ; and many instances occur of ancient inscriptions, in which ξ has the same form with our **C**. All grammarians agree, that the Romans pronounced their **Q** like our **C**, and their **C** like our **K**. F. Maillon adds, that Charles the Great was the first

C A A

who wrote his name with a **C**; whereas all his predecessors of the same name wrote it with a **K**, and the same difference is observed in their coins. **C** before *b* has a peculiar sound, as in *chain*, *cheque*, &c. In words derived from the French, it sounds like *f*, as in *chaise*, *chicane*, pronounced *faise*, *ficane*. II. As an ABBREVIATION, **C** stands for *Cæsar*, *Carolus*, *Cæsar*, *condemno*, *codice*, *consule*, &c. and **CC** for *consulibus*. **C**, in music, placed after the cliff, intimates that the music is in common time, which is either quick or slow, as it is joined with *allegro* or *adagio*: if alone, it is usually *adagio*. If the **C** be crossed or turned, the first requires the air to be played quick, and the last very quick. III. As a NUMERAL, **C** signifies 100, **CC** 200, &c. and was thus used by the ancient Romans, being the initial of *centum*. Some antiquarians add, that a dash over it made it stand for 100,000: though this seems to be contradicted by the proverbial line, *Non plus quam centum C litera fertur habere*.

CAA-APIA, in botany, a Brazilian plant, described by Marcgrave, Piso, and others; the root of which so much resembles the ipecacuanha in its virtues, that some have erroneously called it by the same name. It is astringent and emetic, but possesses both qualities in a weaker degree, and is therefore given in a larger dose, a dram being commonly given at once. The Brazilians bruise the whole plant, and express the juice, which they take internally, and apply externally to wounds by poisoned arrows, and by the bites of serpents.

CAABA,

CAABA, or } properly signifies a square stone
CAABAH, } building; but is particularly ap-
plied by the Mahometans to the temple of Mecca,
ilt, as they pretend, by Abraham and Ishmael.
fore the time of Mahomet, this temple was a
ce of worship for the idolatrous Arabs, and is
d to have contained no less than 360 different
ages, equalling in number the days of the Ara-
in year. They were all destroyed by Mahomet,
so sanctified the Caaba, and appointed it to be
e chief place of worship for all true believers.
e temple is in length from N. to S. about 24
bits; in breadth from E. to W. 23; and in
ight 27. The door, which is on the E. side,
nds about 4 cubits from the ground; the floor
ing level with the bottom of the door. In the
rner next this door is the *black stone*, so much
ebrated among the Mahometans. On the N.
le of the caaba, within a semicircular inclosure
cubits long, lies the *white stone*, said to be the
ulchre of Ishmael, which receives the rain wa-
from the caaba by a spout formerly of wood,
it now of gold. The black stone, according to
e Mahometans, was brought down from heaven
Gabriel at the creation of the world; and ori-
nally of a white colour; but contracted the
ackness that now appears on it, from the guilt
the sins committed by the sons of men. It is
in silver, and fixed in the S. E. corner of the
aba, looking towards Basra, about 7 spans from
e ground. This stone, upon which there is the
ure of a human head, is held in the highest esti-
ation among the Arabs; all the pilgrims kissing
with great devotion, and some even calling it
e *right hand of God*. Its blackness, which is on-
superficial, is probably owing to the kisses and
uches of so many people. After the Karmatians
d taken Mecca, they carried away this precious
ne, and could, by no means be prevailed upon
e restore it; but finding at last that they were
nable to prevent the concourse of pilgrims to
Mecca, they sent it back of their own accord, af-
r having kept it 22 years. The double roof of
e caaba is supported within by three octagonal
llars of aloes-wood; between which, on a bar
iron, hang some silver lamps. The outside is
veted with rich black damask, adorned with an
broidered band of gold, which is changed every
ar, and was formerly sent by the khaliffs, after-
rds by the sultans of Egypt, and is now pro-
led by the Turkish emperors. The caaba, at
ne distance, is almost surrounded by a circular
dlosure of pillars, joined towards the bottom by
ow ballustrade, and towards the top by bars of
er. Just without this inner inclosure, on the
N. and W. sides of the caaba, are 3 buildings,
ich are the oratories where 3 of the orthodox
its assemble to perform their devotions. To-
rds the S. E. stands an edifice which covers the
ll, ZEMZEN, the treasury, and the cupola of
Abbas. Formerly there was another cupola,
at went under the name of the *hemicycle*, or *cu-
la of Judaea*: but whether any remains of that
e now to be seen is unknown; nor is it easy to
tain information in this respect, all Christians
ing denied access to this holy place. At a small
stance from the caaba, on the E. side, is the *sa-
e of Abraham*; where is another stone much

respected by the Mahometans; and where they
pretend to show the footsteps of the patriarch,
where he stood when he built the caaba. Here
the 4th sect of Arabs, viz. that of Al Shafei, as-
semble for religious purposes. The square colon-
nade, or great piazza, which at a considerable
distance incloses these buildings, consists, accord-
ing to Al Janabi, of 448 pillars, and has no less
than 38 gates. Mr Sale compares this piazza to
that of the royal exchange at London, but allows
it to be much larger. It is covered with small
domes or cupolas, from the 4 corners of which
rise as many minarets or steeples, with double gal-
leries; and adorned with gilded spires and cres-
cents, as are also the cupolas which cover the pi-
azza and other buildings. Between the columns
of both inclosures hang a great number of lamps,
which are constantly lighted at night. The first
foundation of this 2d inclosure was laid by Omar,
who built no more than a low wall, to prevent
the court of the caaba from being incroached upon
by private buildings; but by the liberality of suc-
ceeding princes, the whole has been raised to that
state of magnificence in which it appears at pre-
sent. This temple is an asylum for all criminals;
but it is most remarkable for the pilgrimages made
to it by the devout mussulmans, who pay so great
a veneration to it, that they believe a single sight
of its sacred walls, without any particular act of
devotion, is as meritorious, in the sight of God,
as the most careful discharge of duty, for a whole
year, in any other temple.

CAACHIRA, the Indigo plant. See INDIGO-
FERA.

CAAFF, a rapid rivulet in Ayrshire, which rises
in the high moor lands, and after running several
miles falls into the Garnock, near Dalry. It
sometimes does much damage by overflowing its
banks.

CAAMINA, or } in botany, a name given by
CAAMINI, } the Spaniards and others to
the finest sort of Paraguayan tea. It is the leaf of a
shrub which grows on the mountains of Maracaya,
and is used in Chili and Peru, as tea is with us.
The mountains where this shrub grows naturally,
are far from the inhabited parts of Paraguay; but
the people of the place know so well the value and
use of it, that they constantly furnish themselves
with great quantities of it from the spot. They
used to go out on these expeditions many thou-
sands together; leaving their country in the mean
time exposed to the insults of their enemies, and
many of themselves perishing by fatigue. To a-
void these inconveniences, they have of late plant-
ed these trees about their habitations; but the
leaves of these cultivated ones have not the fine
flavour of those that grow wild. The R. of Spain
has permitted the Indians of Paraguay, to bring
to the town of Saintfoz 12,000 arobes of the leaves
of this tree every year, but they are not able to
procure so much of the wild leaves annually;
about half the quantity is the utmost they bring;
the other half is made up of the leaves of the trees
in their own plantations; and this sells at a lower
price, and is called *pabos*. The arrobe is about
25 pound weight; the general price is 4 piastras;
and the money is always divided among the peo-
ple of the colony.

CAANA,

CAANA, or **KAANA**, a town in Upper Egypt, seated on the E. banks of the Nile, from whence they carry corn and pulse to Mecca. It has several monuments of antiquity, inscribed with hieroglyphics. It is 320 m. S. of Cairo. Lon. 30. 23. E. Lat. 26. 30. N.

CAAPIBA, in botany, the name given by Plumier to a genus of plants, called by Linnæus **CISSAMPELOS**.

CAAS. *n. f. obf.* A case, or chance. *Chauc.*

(1.) * **CAB**. *n. f.* [קב.] A Hebrew measure, containing about 3 pints English, or the 18th part of an ephah.

(2.) **CAB** was the 6th part of a seah or satum, and contained $2\frac{1}{2}$ pints of our corn measure. A quarter cab was the measure of dove's dung, or more properly a sort of chick pease called by this name, which was sold at Samaria, during the siege of that city, for 5 shekels.

(3.) **CAB** of wine contained two English pints.

CABACON, a town of Spain, in Leon.

(1.) * **CABAL**. *n. f.* [*cabale*, Fr. קבלה, tradition.] 1. The secret science of the Hebrew rabbins. 2. A body of men united in some close design. A *cabal* differs from a *party*, as *few* from *many*.—She often interposed her royal authority, to break the *cabals* which were forming against her first ministers. *Addison*. 3. Intrigue; something less than conspiracy.—

When each, by curs'd *cabals* of women, strove,
To draw th' indulgent king to partial love.

Dryden.

(2.) **CABAL** is said to have been a kind of acrostical name given to the infamous ministry of Charles II. composed of Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale; the first letters of whose names, in this order, formed the word which has since become an appellative for similar juntos. But from Dr Johnson's derivations (§ 1.) it would appear to be of greater antiquity.

(3.) **CABAL** is also a sort of drink made of dried raisins, by the Portuguese. They make it thus: they take out the stones of about 20 lb. of raisins, and then bruising the raisins a little, they put them into a barrel of white wine, in the month of January or February, and let them stand till about Easter. It is then clear, rich and palatable; and is recommended to stop coughs, and strengthen the stomach.

* **To CABAL**. *v. n.* [*cabaler*, Fr.] To form close intrigues; to intrigue; to unite in small parties.

His mournful friends, summon'd to take their leaves,

Are throng'd about his couch, and sit in council;

What those *caballing* captains may design,

I must prevent, by being first in action. *Dryd.*

(1.) **CABALA**, or **CABALA VEIN**, in natural history, a kind of iron ore commonly wrought in Sussex. It is stony, of a brownish colour, with a blush of red, which is more or less conspicuous in different parts of the same masses. It is usually found in thin strata, near the surface, and is not very rich in iron, but runs very readily in the fire.

(2.) **CABALA**. See **CABBALA**.

CABALATAR, in natural history, a name given by some chemical writers to nitre, called also *herus chemicus*, and *sal infernalis*.

(1.) * **CABALIST**. *n. f.* [from *cabal*.] One led in the traditions of the Hebrews.—

Then Jove thus spake: with care and pain

We form'd this name, renown'd in rhyme,

Not thine, immortal Neufgermain!

Cost studious *cabalists* more time. *Scot.*

(2.) **CABALIST**, in commerce, a term used in some parts of France for a merchant who does a trade in his own name, but is concerned in the trade of another. See **ANONYMOUS**, § 3.

CABALLARIA, in middle age writers, land held by the tenure of furnishing a horseman, with suitable equipage, in time of war, or when the lord had occasion for him.

* **CABALLER**. *n. f.* [from *cabal*.] He that engages with others in close designs; an intriguer.

Factionous and rich, bold at the council board,

But cautious in the field, he summon'd the friends;

A close *caballer*, and tongue-valiant lord.

Dryden.

CABALLEROS, or **CAVALLEROS**, Spanish wool, in which there is a pretty considerable trade at Bayonne in France.

CABALLI, or **COBALES**, among mystic philosophers, denote the shades, or bodies of those who died any sudden or violent death, before the expiration of their predestinated term of life. They were supposed to wander as ghosts over the face of the earth, till their destined term was accomplished; being doomed to live out the time as spirits, which they ought to have spent in the flesh!

(1.) * **CABALLINE**. *adj.* [*caballinus*, L.] Belonging to a horse; as, *caballine* aloes, or *horse aloes*.

(2.) **CABALLINE ALOES** [from *Kaballu*, a horse] the coarsest kind of aloes, little used except in purging horses.

(1.) **CABALLINUM**, in ancient geography, a town of the Ædui in Gallia Celtica; now called **CHALLON SUR SAONE**, which see.

(2.) **CABALLINUM SULPHUR**, common brimstone.

CABALLINUS, in ancient geography, a clear fountain of mount Helicon in Boeotia; called *Hippocrene* by the Greeks, because supposed to have been opened by Pegasus on striking the rock with his hoof, and hence called **PEGASUS**.

CABALLIO, or **CABELLIO**, in ancient geography, a town of the Cavares in Gallia Narbonensis, situated on the Druentia. One of the Latin colonies, in the Notitia, called *Civitas Cabilicorum*. It is now called **CAVAILLON**.

* **CABALLISTICAL**. } *adj.* [from *cabal*.]

* **CABALISTICK**. } Something that has an occult meaning.—The letters are *cabalistical*, and carry more in them than it is proper for the world to be acquainted with. *Addison*.—He taught us to repeat two *cabalistical* words, in pronouncing of which the whole secret consisted. *SpeBator*.

* **CABARET**. *n. f.* [French.] A tavern.—Suppose this servant passing by some *cabaret*, or *tennis-court*, where his comrades were drinking or playing, should stay with them, and drink or play away his money. *Bramhall against Hobbes*.

CABARIC, hart-wort. See **TORDYLIUM**.

(1.) * **CABBAGE**. *n. f.* [*cabus*, Fr. *brassica*, L.] A plant.—The leaves are large, fleshy, and of a

greenish

aceous colour; the flowers consist of 4 leaves, which are succeeded by long taper pods, containing several round acrid seeds. The species are, *Cabbage*. Savoy cabbage. Broccoli. The cauliflower. The musk cabbage. Branching tree cabbage, from the sea-coast. Colewort. Perennial pine Colewort. Perfoliated wild cabbage, &c. *Miller*.—Cole cabbage, and coleworts, are soft and pleasant, without any acidity; the jelly or julee of red cabbage, baked in an oven, and mixed with honey, is an excellent pectoral. *Arbutnot on Ali-*

(2.) CABBAGE. See BRASSICA and HUSBANDRY, *Index*. In the *Georgical Essays*, we find this plant greatly recommended as an excellent food for cattle, producing much dung, and being an excellent substitute for hay. The author prefers the Dutch kind, as being most durable, and preferable on all other accounts. He also prefers plants sown in autumn to those sowed in spring, as producing a much more weighty crop. The expence of raising an acre of good cabbages he values at £. 15 s. and its produce at 34 l.

(3.) CABBAGE BARK TREE. See GEOFFROEA.

(4.) CABBAGE, DOG'S. See THELIGONUM.

(5.) CABBAGE, EARLY. } See BRASSICA, § II.

(6.) CABBAGE, MUSK. }

(7.) CABBAGE PALM, TRUE. See ARECA, § 2.

(8.) CABBAGE, SAVOY. See BRASSICA, § II.

(9.) CABBAGE, SEA. See CRAMBE.

(10.) * CABBAGE TREE. *n. f.* A species of *palm-tree*.—It is very common in the Caribbee islands. Here it grows to a prodigious height. The leaves of this tree envelope each other, so that those which are inclosed, being deprived of the sun, are blanched; which is the part the inhabitants cut for plaits for hats, and the young shoots are pickled; but whenever this part is cut out, the trees are destroyed; nor do they rise again from the old roots; so that there are very few left remaining near plantations. *Miller*.

(11.) CABBAGE TREE. See CACALIA, § 6.

(12.) CABBAGE, TURNIP ROOTED. See BRASSICA, § II.

(13.) * CABBAGE, WORM. *n. f.* An insect.

(1.) * To CABBAGE. *v. a.* [a cant word among sailors.] To steal in cutting clothes.—Your tailor, instead of threads, *cabbages* whole yards of cloth. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) * To CABBAGE. *v. n.* To form a head; as, the plants begin to *cabbage*.

(I.) CABBALA, a mysterious kind of science, pretended to have been delivered by revelation to the ancient Jews, and transmitted by oral tradition to those of our times; serving for interpretation of the books both of nature and scripture. The word is also written CABBALA, KABALA, Cabala, Cabalistica, *Ars Cabala*, and *Gaballa*. It is originally Hebrew, קַבָּלָה, *kabbalah*; and properly signifies *reception*; formed from the verb קָבַל, *kibel*, to receive *by tradition*. Cabbala then primarily denotes any sentiment, opinion, usage, or explication of Scripture transmitted from father to son. In this sense, the word is not only applied to the whole art; but also to each operation performed according to its rules. Thus R. Isaac Ben Ascher, surnamed Baal-Hatturim, is said to have compiled most of the *cabbalas* invented on

the books of Moses before his time. The Cabbala is by some called the acromatic philosophy of Moses, by way of distinction from the exoteric or popular doctrine. See ACROAMATIC. The generality of the Jews prefer the cabbala to the Scripture; comparing the former to the sparkling lustre of a precious stone, and the latter to the fainter glimmering of a candle. The first author who delivered any thing of the cabbala was Joachides, or Simon son of Joachai, who published that famous cabbalistical work, intituled ZOHAR. Some say, he lived about the time of the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus; others, only in the 10th century. There are no sure principles of this knowledge. It depends entirely upon the traditions of the ancients. The cabbalists have abundance of names which they call *sacred*; these they make use of in invoking of spirits, and imagine they receive great light from them. They tell us, that the secrets of the cabbala were discovered to Moses on mount Sinai; and that these have been delivered down to them from father to son, without interruption, and without any use of letters; for to write them down, is what they are by no means permitted to do. This is likewise termed the *oral law*, because it passed from father to son, in order to distinguish it from the written laws. Another kind of cabbala. viz.

(II.) CABBALA, ARTIFICIAL, so called to distinguish it from the simple or traditional cabbala, (§ 1.) consists in searching for abstruse and mysterious significations of a word in Scripture, from whence they borrow certain explanations, by combining the letters which compose it: this cabbala is divided into 3 kinds, the gematria, the notaricon, and the temura or themurah.

1. CABBALA GEMATRIA consists in taking the letters of a Hebrew word for ciphers or arithmetical numbers, and explaining every word by the arithmetical value of the letters whereof it is composed.

2. CABBALA NOTARICON consists in taking every particular letter of a word for an entire diction.

3. CABBALA THEMURA, i. e. change, consists in making different transpositions or changes of letters, placing one for the other, or one before the other. Some visionaries among the Jews believe, that Jesus Christ wrought his miracles by virtue of the mysteries of the cabbala.

(III.) CABBALA is also applied to the abuse, which visionaries make of Scripture, for discovering futurity, by the study and consideration of the combination of certain words, letters, and numbers, in the sacred writings. All the words, terms, magical figures, numbers, letters, charms, &c. used in the Jewish magic, or in the hermetical science, are comprised under this species of cabbala. But it is only the Christians that call it by this name, on account of the resemblance this art bears to the explication of the Jewish *cabbala*: for the Jews never use the word *cabbala* in any such sense, but ever with the utmost respect and veneration. It is not, however, the magic of the Jews alone which we call *cabbala*, but the word is also used for any kind of magic.

CABBALIC ART, *Ars caballica*, is used by some writers for *ars palestrica*, or the art of wrestling.

CABBA.

CABBALISTIC ART. See **CABBALA**, and **CABBALISTS**. D. Franc. Berlendi, a Theatin, of Venice, under the fictitious name of C. Berardo Schinslini, published a **CABALLOMACHIA**, or Refutation of the *Cabbalistic Art*.

CABBALISTS, the Jewish doctors who profess the study of the cabbala. In their opinion, there is not a word, letter, number, or accent in law, without some mystery in it; and they even pretend to discover, what is future, by this vain study. The Jews are divided into two general sects; the **KARAITES**, who refuse to receive either tradition, or the Talmud, or anything but the pure text of scripture; and the **RABBINISTS**, or **TALMUDISTS**, who, besides this, receive the traditions of the ancients, and follow the Talmud. The latter are subdivided into other 2 sects; pure Rabbinites, who explain the scripture in its natural sense, by grammar, history, and tradition; and Cabbalists, who, to discover hidden mystical senses, which they suppose God to have couched therein, make use of the **CABBALA**, and the mystical methods above-mentioned, § II. 1—3.

CABALLOMACHIA. See **CABBALISTIC ART**.

CABEBI, a name given by Rulandus and others to the scales of iron.

(1.) **CABECA**, or **CABESSE**, a name given to the finest silks in the East-Indies; those from 15 to 20 per cent. inferior being called *bariga*, or *barina*. The Indian workmen endeavour to pass them off one with the other; for which reason, the experienced European merchants take care to open the bales, and to examine all the skains. The Dutch distinguish two sorts; viz. the moor cabeca, sold at Amsterdam for about 21½ schellinghen Flemish, and the common, for about 18½.

(2.) **CABECA DE VIDE**, a small sea port of Alentejo in Portugal, with good walls, and a strong castle; 12 m. S. W. of port Alegro, and 30 N. of Estremos. Lon. 6. 43. W. Lat. 39. 10. N.

CABELLIO. See **CABALLIO**.

CABENDA, a sea-port of Congo in Africa, subject to Portugal, and situated 105 m. S. E. of Loanga. Lon. 12. 15. E. Lat. 4. 5. S.

(1, 2.) **CABES**, a river and gulf of Africa.

(3.) **CABES**, or **GABES**, a town of Tunis, seated on the river, near the gulf, (N. 1 and 2.) Lon. 10. 55. E. Lat. 33. 40. N.

CABESSE. See **CABECA**, N. 1.

CABEZZO, a province of Africa, in Angola; having Oacco on the N. Lubolo on the S. the Copza on the N. E. and the Reinba on the S. W. It is populous, and well stored with cattle, &c. and has a mine of iron on a mountain, thence called the **IRON MOUNTAIN**, that yields great quantities of that metal; which the Portuguese have taught the natives to manufacture. This province is watered by the Rio Longo, and other small rivulets, lakes, &c. The trees are vastly large; and they have one sort, not unlike our apple trees, the bark of which being cut with a knife, yields an odoriferous resin of the colour and consistency of wax, and very medicinal in its nature; only a little too hot for Europeans, unqualified by some cooling drug.

IDOS, or **CAVIDOS**, a long measure used in some of the East Indies, be-

longing to the Portuguese, to measure stuffs, linens, and equal to 4 7ths of the Paris ell.

CABILIAU, in ichthyology, a name by which some authors call the common cod fish, the *merbua* and *afellus major* of other writers.

(1.) * **CABIN.** *n. s.* [*cabane*, Fr. *chabin*, Welch, a cottage.] 1. A small room.—

So long in secret *cabin* there he held
Her captive to his sensual desire,

Till that with timely fruit her belly swell'd.

And bore a boy unto a savage fire. *Spenser*

2. A small chamber in a ship.—Give thanks you have lived so long, and make yourself ready in your *cabin*, for the mischance of the hour, if it happen. *Shakespeare*.—Men may not expect the use of many *cabins*, and safety at once, in the sea service. *Raleigh*.—The chessboard, we say, is in the same place as it was, if it remain in the same part of the *cabin*, though the ship sails all the while. *Locke*. 3. A cottage, or small house.—

Come from marble bow'rs, many times the
gay harbour of anguish,

Unto a silly *cabin*, though weak, yet strong
against woes. *Steele*

—Neither should that odious custom be allowed of flaying off the green surface of the ground, to cover their *cabins*, or make up their ditches. *Savoy*

4. A tent, or temporary habitation.—

Some of green boughs their slender *cabins*
frame,

Some lodg'd were Tortosa's streets about. *Fairfax*

(2.) **CABINS** in ships are the apartments where the officers usually reside. There are many of these in a large ship; the principal of which is designed for the commander. In ships of the line this chamber is furnished with an open gallery in the ship's stern, and a little gallery on each quarter. The apartments where the inferior officers, or common sailors, sleep and mess are usually called **BIRTHS**. The bed-places for the sailors at the ship's side in merchantmen are also called *cabins*.

(1.) * **To CABIN.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] To confine in a cabin.—

Fleance is 'scap'd, I had else been perfect;

As broad and gen'ral as the casing air;

But now I'm *cabin'd*, cribb'd, confin'd, bound in,
To saucy doubts and fear. *Shakespeare*

(2.) * **To CABIN.** *v. n.* To live in a cabin.—

I'll make you feed on berries and on roots,
And feed on curds and whey, and suck the
goat,

And *cabin* in a cave. *Shakespeare*

(1.) **CABINDA**, a river, and } of Angoy, 2

(2.) **CABINDA**, a sea port, } Africa. See **ANGOY**, § 1.

* **CABINED.** *adj.* [from *cabin*.] Belonging to a cabin.—

The nice morn, on the Indian sleep,

From her *cabin'd* loophole peep. *Milton*

(1.) * **CABINET.** *n. s.* [*cabinet*, Fr.] 1. A closet; a small room.—At both corners of the further side, let there be two delicate or rich *cabins*, daintily paved, richly hang'd, glazed with crystal-line glass, and a rich cupola in the midst, and all other delicacies that may be thought on. *Bacon*

2. A hut or small house.—

Herrick

Hearken a while in thy green *cabinet*,

The lawrel song of careful Colinet. *Spenser.*

1. A private room in which consultations are held.

—You began in the *cabinet* what you afterwards practised in the camp. *Dryden.* 4. A set of boxes or drawers for curiosities; a private box.—

Who sees a soul in such a body set,

Might love the treasure for the *cabinet*.

Ben Jonson.

In vain the workman shew'd his wit,

With rings and hinges counterfeit,

To make it seem, in this disguise,

A *cabinet* to vulgar eyes.

Swift.

Any place in which things of value are hidden.—

Thy breast hath ever been the *cabinet*,

Where I have lock'd my secrets.

Denham.

—We cannot discourse of the secret, but by describing our duty; but so much duty must needs open a *cabinet* of mysteries. *Taylor.*

(1.) **CABINET** also denotes a piece of joiner's workmanship, being a kind of press or chest, with several doors and drawers. There are common cabinets of oak, chestnut, or mahogany; varnished cabinets of China and Japan; cabinets of inlaid work, and some of ebony, or other precious woods.

(3.) **CABINET** is also used in speaking of the more select and secret councils of a prince or administration. (See § 4.) Thus we say, the secrets, the intrigues of the cabinet. To avoid the inconveniences of a numerous council, some of the despotic princes of Europe first introduced cabinet councils. King Charles I. is charged with first establishing this usage in England. Besides his privy council, that prince erected a kind of cabinet council, or junto, under the denomination of a council of state; composed of Abp. Laud, the earl of Strafford, and lord Collington, with the secretaries of state. Yet some pretend to find the substance of a cabinet council of much greater antiquity, and even allowed by parliament, who anciently settled a quorum of persons most consulted in, without whose presence no arduous matter was to be determined; giving them power to act without consulting the rest of the council. As long ago as the 28th of Henry III. a charter passed in affirmance of the ancient rights of the kingdom; which provided, that 4 great men, chosen by common consent, who were to be conservators of the kingdom, among other things, should see to the disposing of monies given by parliament, and appropriated to particular uses; and parliament were to be summoned as they should advise. Of these 4 any two made a quorum; and generally the chief justice of England, and chancellor, were of the number of the conservators. In the first of Henry VI. the parliament provides, that the quorum for the privy council be 6 or 4 at least; and that in all weighty considerations, the dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, the king's uncles, should be present; which seems to be erecting a cabinet by law.

(4.) * **CABINET-COUNCIL.** *n. s.* 1. A council held in a private manner, with unusual privacy and confidence.—The doctrine of Italy, and practice of France, in some kings times, hath introduced *cabinet-councils*. *Bacon.* 2. A select number of privy counsellors supposed to be particularly

trusted.—From the highest to the lowest it is universally read; from the *cabinet-council* to the nursery. *Gay to Swift.*

* **CABINET-MAKER.** *n. s.* [from *cabinet* and *make*.] One that makes small nice drawers or boxes.—The root of an old white thorn will make very fine boxes and combs; so that they would be of great use for the *cabinet-makers*, as well as turners, and others. *Mortimer.*

CABIN-POINT, a small port town of Virginia, situated in Surry county, on the Upper Chipoak Creek. It is 26 m. E. S. E. of Petersburg; and 329 S. S. W. of Philadelphia: from which it lies in Lon. 2. 4. W. Lat. 37. 0. N.

CABIRI, a term in the theology of the ancient Pagans, signifying great and powerful gods; being a name given to the gods of Samothracia. They were also worshipped in other parts of Greece, as Lemnos and Thebes, where the *cabiria* were celebrated in honour of them; these gods are said to be, in number, 4, viz. *Axieros*, *Axiocersa*, *Axiocersus*, and *Casmilus*.

(2.) **CABIRI** is also used to denote the *Gabri*, or Persian fire-worshippers. See **GABRES**.

CABIRIA, festivals in honour of the *Cabiri*, celebrated in Thebes and Lemnos, but especially in Samothracia, an island consecrated to the *Cabiri*. All who were initiated into the mysteries of these gods, were thought to be secured thereby from storms at sea, and all other dangers. The ceremony of initiation was performed by placing the candidate, crowned with olive branches, and girded about the loins with a purple ribband, on a kind of throne, about which the priests, and persons before initiated, danced.

(1.) * **CABLE.** *n. s.* [*cabl*, Welch; *cabel*, Dutch.] The great rope of a ship to which the anchor is fastened.—

What though the mast be now blown overboard,

The *cable* broke, the holding anchor lost,

And half our sailors swallow'd in the flood,

Yet lives our pilot still?

Shakesp.

—The length of the *cable* is the life of the ship in all extremities; and the reason is, because it makes so many bendings and waves, as the ship, riding at that length, is not able to stretch it; and nothing breaks that is not stretched. *Raleigh.*—

The *cables* crack, the sailors fearful cries

Ascend; and sable night involves the skies. *Dryd.*

(2.) **CABLE** is also the name of those ropes, which serve to raise heavy loads, by the help of cranes, pullies, and other engines. The name is usually given to such as have, at least, 3 inches in circumference; those that are less are only **ROPES** differently named according to their use. Every cable, of whatsoever thickness it be, is composed of 3 strands; every strand of 3 ropes; and every rope of 3 twists: the twist is made of more or less threads, according as the cable is to be thicker or thinner. In the manufacture of cables, after the ropes are made, they use sticks, which they pass first between the ropes of which they make the strands, and afterwards between the strands of which they make the cable, to the end that they may all twist the better, and be more regularly wound together; and also, to prevent them from entwining or entangling, they hang, at the end

of each strand and of each rope, a weight of lead of some. There is no merchant ship, however weak, but has at least 3 cables: viz. the chief cable, or cable of the sheet anchor. (See § 4.) a common cable, and a smaller one.

(3) **CABLES, CALCULATED, NOW OF THREE, &c.** by DIFFERENCE. The number of threads each cable is composed of, is always proportional to its length and thickness, and it is by this number of threads that its weight and value are ascertained. Thus, 4 cable of 3 inches circumference, or one inch diameter, ought to consist of 48 ordinary threads, and to weigh 292 pounds; and on this foundation is calculated the following table, very useful for all people engaged in marine commerce, who fit out merchantmen on their own accounts, or freight them on the account of others.

TABLE OF THE NUMBER OF THREADS AND WEIGHT OF CABLES OF DIFFERENT CIRCUMFERENCES.

Circumf.	Threads.	Weight.
3 inches	48	292 pounds.
4	77	308
5	132	424
6	178	484
7	252	696
8	352	912
9	393	1272
10	384	1540
11	498	1892
12	552	2196
14	612	2568
16	1092	4172
18	1444	4976
20	1604	5616
22	1774	6296
24	1954	7016
26	1941	7772

(4) **CABLE, SHEET ANCHOR**, is the greatest cable belonging to a ship.

(5) **CABLE'S LENGTH**, a measure of 120 fathoms, or of the usual length of the cable.

(6) **CABLE, STEEL**, a hawser or rope, something smaller than the bower, and used to move the ship in a river, or haven, sheltered from the wind and sea, &c.

(7) **CABLES, TERMS USED SHIPBUILDING**. To *Secure or Place the CABLE*, is to bind it about with ropes, cloths, &c. to keep it from galling the hull. To *Join a CABLE*, is to make two pieces fast together, by working the several threads of the rope the one into the other. *Pay more CABLE*, is to let more out of the ship. *Pay cheap the CABLE*, is to bind it out space. *Yeer more CABLE*, is to let more out, &c.

(8) **CABLES, CABLES**, in heraldry, a term applied to a cross formed of the two ends of a ship's cable; sometimes also to a cross covered over with rounds of rope; more properly called a *cross volée*.

(9) **CABLE FLUTE**, in architecture, such flutes as are filled up with pitch, in the form of a cable.

CABLE-TIRE, n. s. the coil of a cable.

CABLETIA, n. s. in the fœtal laws, bruise.

CABLETIA, n. s. wood.

CABO, or CABO DE STRAITS, the capital

of the province of Itria, belonging to the dominant state of Venice, now revolutionizing by Gen. Buonaparte. It is situated on a small island, in the Gulf of Venice, and joined to the main land by draw bridges. It was anciently called *Sancti Spiritus*; and lies 32 m. S. of Trieste. Lon. 14° 15' E. Lat. 45° 49' N.

(3) **CABO**, the *St. MARTIN*, a promontory of Spain, in Valencia.

CABOCHÉD, in heraldry, is when the heads of beasts are burn without any part of the neck, full faced.

CABOCLES, a name given in the West Indies by the Portuguese to peripus produced between Americans and negroes.

CABOLETTO, in commerce, a coin of the republic of Genoa, worth about 3d. of our money.

CABONS, a village near Drange Marsh, Kent.

CABOT, Sebastian, the first discoverer of the continent of America. (See AMERICA, § 4.) He was the son of John Cabot a Venetian. He was born at Bristol in 1477; and was taught by his father arithmetic, geometry, and cosmography. Before he was 10 years of age he made several voyages. The first of any consequence seems to have been made with his father, who had a commission from Henry VII. for the discovery of a N. W. passage to India. They sailed in the spring of 1497, proceeding to the N. W. they discovered land, which for that reason they called *Prima Vista* or *New Found-Land*. Another voyage they called *St. John*, from its being discovered the feast of St. John Baptist; after which he sailed along the coast of the American continent as far as Cape Florida, and then returned with good cargo, and a Indians aboard, to England where they met with a gracious reception. It has justly observed, that America should have been called *Cabotiana*, or *Sabotiana*, in commemoration more of it than either Columbus or Vesputina, and he certainly discovered that continent before either of them. Some Speed ascribes these discoveries wholly to Sebastian, without mentioning his father. It is probable that Sebastian, after his father's death, made several voyages to these parts, as a map of his discoveries, drawn by himself, was hung up in his garden at Whitehall. However, he gives but little account of his life for more than 20 years, when he went to Spain, where he made pilot-major, and assisted with several all projects for discoveries, which were very numerous. His great capacity and approved integrity induced many eminent merchants to furnish about a voyage by the new, discovered route of Magellan to the Moluccas. He then sailed in 1497, first to the Canaries, then the Cape Verde Islands, thence to St. Augustine and the island of Patos; where some of his crew beginning to be mutinous, and refusing to pass through the straits, he laid aside the design of sailing to the Moluccas, left some of the principal mutineers upon a desolate island; and took up the rivers of Plata and Paraguaré, discovered and built forts in, a large tract of land, which produced gold, silver, and other rich commodities. He thence dispatched messengers to Spain for a supply of provisions, and

goals for trade, and a recruit of men: but his request not being readily complied with, after staying 5 years in America, he then returned home; where he met with a cold reception, the merchants being displeased at his not having pursued his voyage to the Moluccas, while his treatment by the mutineers had given umbrage at court. Hence he returned to England; and being introduced to the Duke of Somerset, then lord protector, a new office was erected for him: he was made governor of the mystery and company of the merchant adventurers for the discovery of regions, dominions, islands, and places unknown; pension was granted him, by letters patent of 66l. 13s. 4d. per annum; and he was consulted in all affairs relative to trade. In 1522, by his advice the court fitted out some ships for the discovery of the northern parts of the world. This produced the first voyage the English made to Russia, and the beginning of that commerce which has ever since been carried on between the two nations. The Russia company was now founded by a charter granted by Philip and Mary; and of this company Sebastian was appointed governor for life. He is said to be the first who took notice of the variation of the needle, and who published a map of the world. And he was undoubtedly the founder of the maritime strength of Britain, which has since made this nation so flourishing. The exact time of his death is not known, but he lived to be above 70 years of age.

CABOTE, in ichthyology, a fish of the cuculus kind, more usually known by the name of the **ORAY**.

CABRA, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Tombut. It is large, but without walls; and is situated on the river Niger, about 12 miles from Tombut. The houses are built in the shape of cells; and the walls are made with stakes or hurdles, plastered with clay, and covered with reeds after the manner of thatch. This place is very much frequented by negroes who come by water to trade. The town is very unhealthy, which is probably owing to its low situation. The colour of the inhabitants is black, and their religion a sort of Mahometanism. They manufacture cotton cloths, but import woollens from Barbary. They have plenty of corn, cattle, milk, and butter; but salt is very scarce. The judge who decides controversies is appointed by the king of Tombut. It is 1200 m. S. of Algiers. Lon. 6. 0. E. Lat. 14. 21. N.

CABRACH, [Gael. i. e. the timber moss,] a parish of Scotland, in the counties of Aberdeen, and Banff, about 30 miles distant from Aberdeen, and extending $7\frac{1}{2}$ m. in length from S. to N. and 3 in breadth from E. to W. It is surrounded by a range of hills covered with heath, and as its climate imports, abounds in firs and mosses. The climate however is pleasant; and in summer it is much resorted to for the goat whey. The soil is wet, and better suited for pasture, than cultivation, the mode of which has not varied for a century. It produces however, as much barley and oats as serves the inhabitants: who buy and sell annually about 2000 sheep and 500 black cattle, retaining of the former 1000 and of the latter 30. Much to the honour of the D. of Gordon, servi-

tudes are abolished. The population, in 1792, is stated by the rev. Mr J. Gordon, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 700, and had decreased 260 since 1755. The crop totally failed in 1782, but by the indulgence of the duke of Gordon, in allowing his tenants to detain their rents to support their families; the spilt exertions of Mr Gordon of Craig, in importing grain, and an almost miraculous interposition of Providence, by the cows calving much earlier and in much greater numbers than usual, in spring 1783, no melancholy effects ensued; though about 200 of the householders emigrated to the towns for work and subsistence. The parish abounds in lime-stone; of which about 4000 bolls are annually burnt and sold.

CABRAGH, a village 2 miles from Dublin.

CABKERA, or } a mountainous island of Spain,

CABREIRA, } near Majorca, and opposite to Cape Salinas. It has a large and safe harbour; yet, excepting a small garrison for its defence, it is uninhabited, being reserved as a place of banishment.

CABRII, the priests of Cybele.

CABRIOLE, *n. s.* a kind of chair. *A/s.*

CABRUSI, in the writings of the ancients, a word frequently used to express Cyprian, or coming from the island of Cyprus. The ancient Greeks had almost all their vitriols and vitriolic minerals from this island; they therefore called these *cabrusi*, without any addition. It is probable that our word *copperas*, the common name of green vitriol is derived from this word.

CABUI, a West Indian species of hemp, produced in Panama, from a plant resembling **CHARADON** or **IRIS**; when ripe, they lay it to steep in water, and after drying it, beat it with wooden mallets till nothing but the hemp remains, which they afterwards spin, and make thread and ropes of it; the former of which is so hard and tough, that with it they saw iron, by fitting it on a box, and laying a little sand over the metal as the work proceeds. *Rees's Edit. of Chambers's Cyclopaedia.*

(1.) **CABUL**, or **GABOUL**, a city of Asia, and capital of the province of Cabulistan. It lies on the frontiers of Great Bukharia, on the S. side of the mountains which divide the territories of the Mogul from that part of Great Tartary. It is one of the finest places in that part of the world; large, rich, and very populous. Being considered as the key of the great Mogul's dominions on that side, great care is taken to keep its fortifications in repair, and a numerous garrison is maintained for its security. It lies on the road between Samarcand and Labor; and is much frequented by the Tartars, Persians, and Indians. The Usbec Tartars drive there a great trade in slaves and horses, of which it is said that no fewer are sold than 60,000 annually. The Persians bring black cattle and sheep, which renders provisions very cheap. The city stands on the river Attock, which falls into the Indus, and affords a speedy passage for all the rich commodities in the country behind it, which, when brought to Cabul, are exchanged for slaves and horses, and conveyed by merchants of different countries to all parts of the world. The inhabitants are mostly Pagans, though the officers of the Mogul and most of the garrison are Mahometans. Cabul has several fine palaces and

neighbouring countries; by which means they are very rich, and are plentifully supplied with all things.

CABOTIANS, the people of **CABOT**, N. Y. & C. **CABORE**, in ornithology, a small Brazilian bird of the owl kind; very beautiful, and easily tamed. It is brown, variegated with white, and is feathered down to the toes. The Brazilian keep it tame for its diverting tricks, it will play with people like a monkey, and is perfectly harmless.

CABURETIBA, in botany, a name given by some authors to the tree which affords the black Peruvian brim.

CABURN, a town near Carston, Lincolnshire. (1) **CABURNS**, n. f. Small ropes used in ships. *See* **ROPE**.

CABRONS are made of spun yarn, to bind cables, frize ladders, or the like.

CABUS, a village in Lancashire.

CACABOGA, in zoology, an American serpents, by some accounted the same with the **CAPOUA**, or black water snake; but by others described as yellow in colour, living about houses, and doing great mischief among poultry, though it does not feed on mankind.

CACARUS, n. f. a kettle, a popkin. *See* **POP**.

CACALA, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Fec, near Malilla.

CACAFUEGOS, an insect in Spain, which is said to live from its tail in the night.

5. **CACALIA GLABRA**, with smooth leaves.

6. **CACALIA KERINGIA**, with a cut-pood fruit by stalk. It grows naturally in the Canary islands, but has long been cultivated in the East Indies. It rises with a thick fleshy stem divided at certain distances, into 16 many joints. Each of these divisions swell much larger in the middle than at each end; and the stalks divide into many frequent branches of the same form, which toward their extremities, are furnished with long narrow, spear shaped leaves of a glaucous colour, standing all round the stalks without order. As they fall off, they leave a scar at the place, which always remains on the branches. The flowers are produced in large clusters at the extremity of the branches, which are tubulous, and of a faint orange colour. They appear in August and September, but continue green part of October. They are not succeeded by seeds in this country. There have been stones and fossils dug up at a very great depth in some parts of England having very perfect impressions of this plant upon them, and whence Dr Woodward has supposed the plants were lodged there at the universal deluge; and finding the impressions of many other plants and animals which are natives of those islands, he concludes that the water flowed thence from the West. This plant has been called the **CACABOGA** by the natives from the resemblance which the stalk of it has to the cabbage. Others have called it **CACAFUEGOS** from the shape of the leaves and the colour of the flowers.

7. **CAC**

7. *CACALIA LUTEA*, with leaves divided into 5 acute parts.

8. *CACALEA PAPILLARIS*, with a shrubby stalk guarded on every side with broken rough foot-stalks.

9. *CACALIA SONCHIFOLIA*, with lyre-shaped indented leaves.

10. *CACALIA SUAVEOLENS*, with a herbaceous stalk, a native of North America. It has a perennial creeping root, which sends out many stalks, furnished with triangular spear-shaped leaves sharply sawed on their edges, of a pale green on their under side, but a deep shining green above, placed alternately. The stalks rise to 7 or 8 feet, and are terminated by umbels of white flowers, which are succeeded by oblong seeds covered with down. It flowers in August, and the seeds ripen in October. The stalks decay in autumn, and new ones rise in spring. This plant multiplies greatly by its spreading roots, as well as by the seeds, which are spread to a great distance by the wind, their down greatly assisting their conveyance. The roots cast out of Chelsea garden, being carried by the tide to a great distance, have fixed themselves on the banks of the river, and increased so much, that in a few years this species may probably appear as a native of England.

(II.) *CACALIAE, CULTURE OF THE.* The 4th, 8th, and 10th species are very easily propagated. The last (N. 10.) will propagate itself, either by roots or seeds. The *FICOIDES* is easily propagated by cuttings during the summer months: These should be cut from the plants and laid to dry a fortnight, that the wound may be healed over before they are planted. Most people plunge the roots in which these are planted into an hot-bed, to promote their putting out roots; but if planted in June or July, they will root as well in the open air. Even branches broken off by accident have frequently put out roots when fallen on the ground, without any care. These branches may be kept six months out of the ground, and will take root if planted. They should have a light sandy earth, and in winter be placed in an airy glass-case, where they may enjoy the sun and air in mild weather, but must be protected from frost. During winter the plants must have but little water; and in summer, when they are placed in the open air, it should not be given to them too often, or in great quantity. The *LEINIA* is also propagated by cuttings, and the plants require the same culture; but must have a very warm glass case in winter, and very little water, being subject to rot with wet. In summer they must be placed in the open air in a warm sheltered situation, and in very dry weather refreshed moderately with water. With this management the plants will flower annually, and grow to the height of 8 or 10 feet.

(1.) * *CACAO.* See *CHOCOLATE NUT.*

(2.) *CACAO*, in botany. See *THEOBROMA.*

CACAOTETE, in natural history, the name by which the Brazilians call the *BELEMNITES*.

CACAVATE, } in botany, names given by authors to the cocoa tree. See *CACAVERA*, }

CACAVIA, in botany; a name given by the Greek authors and others to the *LOTUS*.

CACCALIA, in botany, a name given by some of the old Greek writers to the *alkchengi*, or winter cherry. See *PHYSALIS*.

CACCABON, in botany, a synonyme of the *NYMPHÆ*.

CACCOONS. See *FLEVILLEA*.

CACEMPHTON, } *n. f.* [from *κακός*, bad, *CACEPHATON* } and *φωνή*, to speak,] A harsh sound of words.

CACERES, a town of Spain, in Estremadura, seated on the river Saler, and noted for the exceeding fine wool which the sheep bear in the neighbourhood. Between this town and Brocos, there is a wood, where the allies defeated the rear-guard of the duke of Berwick, April 7th 1706. Lon. 5. 44. E. Lat. 39. 11. N.

CACHALOT, in ichthyology. See *PHYSETER*.

CACHAN, or *CASHAN*, a considerable town of Persia in Irac Agemi, where they carry on an extensive trade in silks, silver, and gold brocades, and fine earthen ware. It is seated in a vast plain 55 miles N. by W. of Ispahan. Lon. 51. 55. E. Lat. 33. 20. N.

(1.) *CACHAO*, a province of Tonquin in Asia, situated in the heart of the kingdom, and surrounded by the other 7. Its soil is fertile, and in some places mountainous, abounding with variety of trees, and particularly that of varnish. Most of these provinces carry on some branch of the silk manufacture, but this most of all.

(2.) *CACHAO*, or *KECIO*, the capital of the province, (N^o 1.) the metropolis of the whole kingdom, though in other respects hardly comparable to a Chinese town of the third rank. It is situated about 80 leagues from the sea, and is prodigiously crowded with people, insomuch that the streets are hardly passable, especially on market days. These vast crowds, however, come mostly from the neighbouring villages; upon which account these villages have been allowed their halls in particular parts of the city, where they lodge and dispose of their wares. The town itself has neither walls nor fortifications. The principal streets are wide and airy, but the rest narrow and ill-paved. The houses are low and mean, mostly built of wood and clay, and not above one story high. The magazines and warehouses belonging to foreigners are the only edifices built of brick; and though plain, yet, by reason of their height and more elegant structure, make a considerable show among those rows of wooden huts. From the combustibility of its edifices, this city suffers frequent and dreadful conflagrations. These spread with such surprising velocity, that some thousands of houses are often laid in ashes before the fire can be extinguished. To prevent these sad consequences, every house hath, either in its yard or even in its centre, some low building of brick, in form of an oven, into which the inhabitants on the first alarm convey their most valuable goods. Besides this precaution, which every family takes to secure their goods, the government obliges them to keep a cistern, or some other capacious vessel, always full of water on the top of their house, to be ready on all occasions of this nature; with a long pole and bucket, to throw water from the kennel upon the houses. If these two expedients fail of suppressing the flames, they immediately

1. CACHRYS HUNGARICA, with a plain, fun-
gous, channelled seed:

2. CACHRYS LIBANOTIS, with smooth furrow-
ed seeds:

3. CACHRYS LINEARIS, with plain channelled
seed:

4. CACHRYS SICULA, with double winged leaves:

5. CACHRYS TRIFIDA, with bipinnated leaves,

All these plants are perennial plants, rising pretty
high, and bearing large umbels of yellow flowers,
and may be propagated by seeds which ought to
be sown soon after they are ripe; for if they are
kept out of the ground till the next spring, they
frequently miscarry. They must also be sown in a
dry border where they are to remain: for the
firsts having long top-roots, will not bear trans-
planting so well as many others. The Hungarians
in the neighbourhood of Erlaw, and those who
order on Transylvania, Servia, &c. eat the root
of the first species in a scarcity of corn.

(II.) CACHRYS, or CANCHRYS, in ancient bo-
tany, denoted a scaly tuft, growing like a katkin
on the oak, beech, pine, &c. or, according to
others, an unseasonable kind of bud, appearing ei-
ther in spring, or autumn, and which, after the
winter is over, spreads or shoots into branches.
The word is sometimes also used for the seed of
hemlock, or even the plant itself; sometimes for
it being roasted in a furnace, to render it more easily
ground into flour.

CACHU. See CATECHU.

CACHUNDE, a medicine, highly celebrated a-
mong the Chinese and Indians, made of several a-
romatic ingredients, perfumes, medicinal earth,
and precious stones. They make the whole into
a stiff paste, and form out of it several figures ac-
cording to their fancy, which are dried for use:
these are principally used in the East Indies, but
are sometimes brought over to Portugal. In Chi-
na, the principal persons usually carry a small
piece in their mouths, which is a continued cor-
rective, and gives their breath a very sweet smell.
It is a highly valuable medicine also, in all nervous
complaints; and is esteemed a prolonger of life,
and a provocative to venery, the two great inten-
tions of most of the medicines in use in the East.

CACHYMIA, in metallurgy, a term used by Pa-
neus for an imperfect metalline ore.

* CACKEREL. *n. f.* A fish, said to make those
who eat it laxative.

CACKHAM, a town in Suffex, near Selsey.

* CACKLE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. The
noise of a goose or fowl.—

The silver goose before the shining gate
There flew, and, by her cackle, sav'd the state.
Dryden.

2. To talk idly.

* To CACKLE. *v. n.* [*kaeckelen*, Dutch.] 1. To
make a noise as a goose.—

The nightingale, if she should sing by day,
When every goose is cackling, would be thought
No better a musician than the wren. *Shakesp.*

Or rob the Roman geese of all their glories,
And save the state, by cackling to the Tories. *Pope.*
Sometimes it is used for the noise of a hen.—

The trembling widow, and her daughters twain,
This woful cackling cry, with horror heard,
Of those distracted damsels in the yard. *Dryd.*

3. To laugh; to giggle.—Nic. grinned, cackled,
and laughed, till he was like to kill himself, and
fell a frisking and dancing about the room. *Arbuth.*

* CACKLER. *n. f.* [from *cackle*.] 1. A fowl
that cackles. 2. A tattler; a tatler.

CACOCHYLIA, [from *κακος*, bad, and *χυλος*,
chyle,] A bad state of the chyle; a bad digestion.

CACOCHYMIA, [from *κακος*, ill, and *χυμος*,
juice,] a vicious state of the vital humours, espe-
cially of the mass of blood; arising either from a
disorder of the secretions or excretions, or from
external contagion.

* CACOCHYMICAL. } *adj.* [from *cacochymy*.]

* CACOCHYMICK. } Having the humours
corrupted.—It will prove very advantageous, if
only *cacochymick*, to clarify his blood with a laxa-
tive. *Harvey on Consumptions*.—If the body be *ca-
cchymical*, the tumours are apt to degenerate into
very venomous and malignant abscesses. *Wiseman*.
—The ancient writers distinguished putrid fevers,
by putrefaction of blood, choler, melancholy, and
phlegm; and this is to be explained by an effere-
scence happening in a particular *cacochymical*
blood. *Floyer on Humours*.

* CACOCHYMY. *n. f.* [*κακοχυμία*.] A depra-
vation of the humours from a sound state, to what
the physicians call by a general name of a *caco-
chymy*. Spots, and discolourations of the skin, are
signs of weak fibres; for the lateral vessels, which
lie out of the road of circulation, let gross hu-
mours pass, which could not, if the vessels had
their due degree of stricture. *Arbuth. on Aliments*.
—Strong beer, a liquor that attributes the half
of its ill qualities to the hops, consisting of an a-
cerimonious fiery nature, sets the blood, upon the
least *cacochymy*, into an orgasmus. *Harvey*.

CACODÆMON, an evil spirit; the devil.

CACODES, in ancient medical writers, a name
given to matter discharged from the human body,
with an ill smell.

(1.) CACOETHES, [from *κακος*, and *ἔθος*, habit,]
A bad habit; a malignant ulcer.

(2.) CACQETHES SCRIBENDI, an itch for scrib-
bling; a phrase applied to bad authors,

—“who, in spite
“Of nature and their stars, will write.” *Hud.*

CACOCLOGY, *n. f.* a bad pronunciation.

CACONGO, a small kingdom of Africa, wa-
tered by the Zaire. The customs of the people
are much the same with those of the natives of
LOANGO, which see. See also ANGOY, § 1.

CACOPATHY, [from *κακος*, bad, and *πάθος*, pas-
sion,] a state of suffering under a very painful dis-
ease.

(1.) CACOPHONIA, [from *κακος*, evil, and *φωνή*,
voice,] in grammar and rhetoric, the meeting of
two letters, or syllables, which yield an uncouth
and disagreeable sound.

(2.) CACOPHONIA, in medicine, denotes a de-
fect or deprivation of the voice or speech; of
which there are two species, APHONIA and DYS-
PHONIA.

* CACOPHONY. *n. f.* [*κακοφωνία*.] A bad sound
of words.—These things shall lie by, till you come
to carp at them, and alter rhimes, grammar, trip-
lets and *cacophonies* of all kinds. *Pope to Swift*.

CACORITHMUS, an unequal pulse.

CACO-

Round the parapet wall at top are placed rows of square pillars, meant either for ornament, or to fix awnings to, that such as sit there, for the benefit of the sea-breeze, may be sheltered from the sun; but the most common use made of them, is to fasten ropes for drying linens upon. High above all these pinnacles, which give Cadiz a most singular appearance, stands the tower of signals. Here flags are hung out on the first sight of a sail, marking the size of the ship, the nation it belongs to, and, if a Spanish Indiaman, the port of the Indies it comes from. The ships are acquainted with the proper signals to be made, and these are repeated by the watchmen of the tower; as painted lists are in every house, persons concerned in commerce soon learn the marks. The city is divided into 24 districts, under the inspection of as many commissioners of police; and its population is reckoned at 140,000 inhabitants, of which 12,000 are French, and at least as many more Italians. Walker and others, however, state the population at only 50,000 in all. The square of Saint Antonio is large, and tolerably handsome, and there are a few smaller openings of no great note. The public walk, or Alameda, is pleasant in the evening: it is fenced off the coach road by a marble rail. The sea-air prevents the trees from thriving, and destroys all hopes of future shade. Westward from the Alameda, is the Composanto, a large esplanade, the only airing place for coaches; it turns round most part of the W. and S. sides of the island, but the buildings are straggling and ugly; the only edifice of any show is the new orphan-house; opposite to it is the fortress of St Sebastian, built on a neck of land running out into the sea. The round tower at the extremity is supposed to have saved the city, in the great earthquake of 1755, from being swept away by the fury of the waves. The building proved sufficiently solid to withstand the shock, and break the immense volume of water that threatened destruction to the whole island. In the narrow part of the isthmus the surge beat over with amazing impetuosity, and bore down all before it; among the rest, the grandson of the famous tragic poet, Racine, who strove in vain to escape, by urging his horse to the utmost of his speed. On St Sebastian's feast, a kind of fair is held in the fort; an astonishing number of people then palling and repalling, on a string of wooden bridges laid from rock to rock, makes a very striking appearance. From hence to the wooden circus where they exhibit the bull-fights, upon turning to the left, close above the sea, (which on all this side dashes over large ledges of rocks;) the shore seems absolutely inaccessible. On this shore stands the cathedral, a work of great expence, but carried on with so little expedition, that it is difficult to guess at the term of years it will require to bring it to perfection. The vaults are executed with great solidity. The arches, that spring from the cluster of pilasters to support the roof, are very bold; the minute sculpture bestowed upon them seems superfluous, as all the effect will be lost from their great height, and from the shade that will be thrown upon them by filling up of the interstices. From the sea, the present top of the church resembles the carcase of some huge monster cast upon its

side, rearing its gigantic blanched ribs high above the buildings of the city. The outward casings are to be of white marble, the bars of the windows of bronze. Next, crossing before the land-gate and barracks, a superb edifice for strength, convenience, and cleanliness, we come down to the ramparts that defend the city on the side of the bay. If the prospect to the ocean is solemn, that towards the main land is animated in the highest degree; the men of war ride in the eastern bosom of the bay; lower down the merchantmen are spread far and near; and close to the town an incredible number of barks, of various shapes and sizes, cover the surface of the water, some moored and some in motion. The opposite shore of Spain, studded with white houses, and enlivened by the towns of St Mary's, Port-real, Medina Sidonia, and the mountains of Granada, beautify the scene, and westward, Rota closes the horizon. In a large bastion, jutting out into the bay, stands the custom-house, the first storey of which is level with the walk upon the walls. When it was resolved to erect a building so necessary to this great emporium of trade, the marquis di Squillace gave orders that no expence should be spared, and the most intelligent architects employed, to erect a monument, which by its taste and magnificence might excite the admiration of posterity. The result, however, produced only a piece of vile architecture, composed of the worst materials. The stir at Cadiz is prodigious during the last months of the stay of the flota. The packers possess the art of pressing goods in great perfection; but, as they pay the freight according to the cubic palms of each bale, they are apt to squeeze down the cloths and linens so very close and hard, as sometimes to render them unfit for use. The exportation of French luxuries in dress is enormous; Lyons furnishes most of them; and England sends out bale goods. Every commercial nation has a consul resident at Cadiz. In 1596, Cadiz was taken, pillaged and burnt by the English. In 1702, it was attempted in conjunction with the Dutch, without success. It is 30 miles W. by S. of Malaga. Lon. 6. 6. W. Lat. 36. 31. N.

CADIZADELITES, a sect of Mahometans very like the ancient stoics. They thun feast and diversions, and affect an extraordinary gravity in all their actions; they are continually talking of God, and some of them make a jumble of Christianity and Mahometanism. They drink wine, even in the fast of the Ramazan; they love and protect the Christians; they believe that Mahomet is the Holy Ghost, practise circumcision, and justify it by the example of Jesus Christ. They read the Slavonic translation of the Bible, as well as the Koran.

CADIZ-HEAD, near Warrington, Lancash.

CADLAND, in the New Forest, Hampshire.

CADLEY, two villages in Devonshire, 1. W. of Columpton; and, 2. near Ottery St Mary's.

CADMEAN LETTERS, the ancient Greek or Ionic characters, such as they were first brought by Cadmus from Phœnicia; whence Herodotus also calls them *Phœnician letters*. Some say, that Cadmus was not the inventor, nor even the importer of the Greek letters, but only the modeller

and reformer of the alphabet; and hence they acquired the appellation *Cadmean* or *Phœnician letters*; whereas before that time they had been called PELASGIAN.

(I.) CADMIA, in pharmacy, a name which has been variously applied; but it usually denotes a mineral substance, whereof there are two kinds, NATURAL and ARTIFICIAL.

i. CADMIA ARTIFICIAL, } OF CADMIA OF THE
CADMIA FURNACUM, } FURNACES, is a matter sublimed when ores containing zinc, like those of Rammelsberg, are smelted. This cadmia consists of the flowers of the semi-metal sublimed during the fusion, and adhering to the inner surfaces of the walls of furnaces, where they suffer a semi-fusion, and therefore acquire more solidity. So great a quantity of these are collected, that they form very thick incrustations, which must be frequently taken off. The name has also been given to all the soots and metallic sublimes formed by smelting in the grate, although there is certainly a difference in these matters. Chemists distinguish 5 kinds of *Cadmia Furnacum*: viz.

1. CADMIA BOTRYTIS, resembling a bunch of grapes, which is found in the middle of the furnace.

2. CADMIA CALAMITIS, found hanging round the iron rods, with which the matter is stirred in the furnace, and generally in the form of quills; whence the name from *calamus* a quill. It is reckoned desiccative and deterfive, and is used to cicatrize ulcers.

3. CADMIA CAPNITIS, found at the mouth of the furnace. It is used by some in diseases of the eyes.

4. CADMIA OSTRACITIS, found at the bottom of the furnace, in the form of a sea shell.

5. CADMIA PLACITIS, found at the top of the furnace, in the form of a crust. It is also used by some in diseases of the eyes.

ii. CADMIA; NATURAL, is of two sorts; the one containing arsenic, and called *cadmia fossilis*, or COBALT; the other containing zinc, called *calamine*, or *lapis calaminaris*. See CALAMINE, § 2.

(II.) CADMIA is also used by Pliny for copper ore, or the stone of which copper is made.

CADMITES, in natural history, a kind of gem, nearly resembling the OSTRACITES; from which it only differs in that the latter is sometimes grit with blue spots.

(1.) CADMUS, in fabulous history, king of Thebes, the son of Agenor king of Phœnicia, and the brother of Phoenix, Cilix, and Europa. He carried into Greece the 16 simple letters of the Greek alphabet; and there built Thebes, in Bœotia. The poets say, that he left his native country in search of his sister Europa, whom Jupiter had carried away in the form of a bull; and that, inquiring of the Delphic oracle for a settlement, he was answered, that he should follow the direction of a cow, and build a city where she lay down. Having arrived among the Phœnices, he was met by a cow, who conducted him through Bœotia to the place where Thebes was afterwards built; but as he was about to sacrifice his guide to Pallas, he sent two of his company to the fountain

Dirce for water; when they being devoured by a serpent or dragon, he slew the monster, and

afterwards, by the advice of Pallas, sowed his teeth, when there sprung up a number of armed soldiers, who prepared to revenge the death of the serpent; but on his casting a stone among these upstart warriors, they turned their weapons against each other with such animosity, that only 5 survived the combat, and these assisted Cadmus in founding his new city. Afterwards, to recompense his labours, the gods gave him Harmonia, the daughter of Mars and Venus; and honoured his nuptials with presents and peculiar marks of favour. But at length resigning Thebes to Pentheus, Cadmus and Harmonia went to govern the Ecclellentes: when grown old, they were transformed into serpents; or, as others say, sent to the Elysian fields, in a chariot drawn by serpents. See THEBES.

(2.) CADMUS of Miletum, a celebrated Greek historian, was, according to Pliny, the first of the Greeks who wrote history in prose. He flourished about A. A. C. 550.

CADNAM-HOUSE, a village in Wiltshire, near Marlford.

CADNEY, S. of Glandford bridge, Lincoln.

(1.) CADORE, or PIEVE DE CADORE, a town of Italy, and capital of the district, (N. 1.) famous for the birth of Titian. It was taken by the French in April 1797. Lon. 13. 45. E. Lat. 46. 25. N.

(2.) CADORE, or } a province of Italy, in the
CADORINO, } territory of Venice; bounded on the E. by Friuli Proper, on the S. and W. by the Bellunese, and by the bishopric of Brixia on the N. It is very mountainous, but pretty populous. The only town is Cadore, N. 1.

CADRITES, a sort of Mahometan friars, who once a-week spend a great part of the night turning round, holding each others hand, and repeating incessantly the word *Hui*, which signifies *living*, and is one of the attributes of God; during which one of them plays on a flute. They never cut their hair, nor cover their heads; and always go barefooted: they have liberty to quit their convent when they please, and to marry.

CADSAND, an island on the coast of Batavia, the ci-devant Dutch Flanders, situated at the mouth of the Scheld, whereby the Dutch command the navigation of that river. It was taken by the French on the 29th July, 1794, but was afterwards restored to the Dutch.

CADUCEATOR, in antiquity, a denomination given to heralds or messengers of peace.

(1.) CADUCEUS, in ancient mythology, Mercury's rod, a wand entwisted by two serpents, born by that deity as the ensign of his quality and office; and given him, according to the fable, by Apollo, for his seven-stringed harp. Wonderful properties are ascribed to this rod by the poets; as laying men asleep, raising the dead, &c.

(2.) CADUCEUS, in Roman antiquity, was used as a symbol of peace and concord. The Romans sent the Carthaginians a javelin and a caduceus, offering them their choice either of war or peace. Among that people, those who denounced war were called *feciales*; and those who went to demand peace CADUCEATORES, because they bore a caduceus in their hand. The caduceus on medals is a common symbol, signifying good conduct, peace, and prosperity. The rod expresses

power, the two serpents prudence, and the two
ings diligence.

CADUCI, in botany, [from *cado*, to fall,] the
one of a class in Linnæus's *Calycina*, consisting
plants whose calyx is a simple perianthium, sup-
porting a single flower or fructification, and fall-
ing off either before or with the petals. It stands
apart to the *classis persistentes*, and is exemplified
mustard and ranunculus.

CADURCI, a people of Aquitania, who an-
ciently inhabited **CADURCUM** and its environs.
part of them were called **ELEUTHERI**.

CADURCUM, } in ancient geography, a
CADURCUS, or } town of Aquitania; situa-
CADURX, } ted between the rivers Ol-
us, running from the N. and the Tarnis from
e S. and falling into the Garumna; now called
AHORS.

CADUS, in antiquity, a wine-vessel containing
amphoræ or firkins; each of which, according
to the best accounts, held 9 gallons, though some
make them only 7. See **AMPHORA**.

CADUSII, a people of Media Atropatene, si-
tuated to the W. in the mountains, and reaching
to the Caspian sea; between whom and the Medes,
perpetual war and enmity continued down to the
time of Cyrus.

CADWAN, king of the South Britons, flou-
rished in the beginning of the 7th century. He
had a more peaceable reign, than most of his pre-
decessors. He died A. D. 635.

CADWALLO, the son of Cadwan, succeeded
his father in 635, and had many battles with the
Saxons, with various success. He joined with
Iuda king of Mercia to oppose the other kings of
the Heptarchy, but was slain, A. D. 685.

CADWALLADER, the last British monarch,
of the ancient British blood, was elected upon the
death of Cadwallo, and displayed great bravery
in different battles with the Saxons.—But in a fit
of superstitious zeal, having vowed a pilgrimage
to Rome, he died there, A. D. 689, and left his do-
minions an easy conquest to the Saxon monarchs.

CADZOW, the ancient name of the parish of
LAMILTON.

* **CÆCIAS**. *n. f.* [Lat.] A wind from the north-
east.—

Now, from the north

Boreas and *Cæcias* and Argæles loud
And Thraçias rend the woods, and seas upturn,
Milton.

(I.) **CÆCILIA**, in ichthyology, a name used by
some authors for the fish **ACUS**.

(II.) **CÆCILIA**, in zoology, a genus of serpents
belonging to the amphibia class. The *cæcilia* has
no scales; it is smooth, and moves by means of
lateral rugæ or prickles. The upper lip is promi-
nent, and furnished with two tentacula. It has
no tail. There are only two species, viz.

1. **CÆCILIA GLUTINOSA**, with 340 rugæ or
prickles above, and 10 below, the anus. It is of
brownish colour, with a white line on the side,
and is a native of the Indies.

2. **CÆCILIA TENTACULATA**, with 135 rugæ.
It is about a foot long, and an inch in circumfe-
rence, preserving an uniform cylindrical shape
from the one end to the other. The teeth are

very small. It has such a resemblance to an eel
that it may easily be mistaken for one; but as it
has neither fins nor gills, it cannot be classed with
the fishes. It is a native of America, and its bite
is not poisonous.

CÆCILIANA, in botany, a name used by Pli-
ny and others, for the **ANDROSÆMUM**, or **HY-
PERICUM**.

CÆCILIUS, the cognomen or surname of an
ancient Roman family, which produced several
heroes during the republic.

CÆCITY, *n. f.* blindness. *A/b.*

CÆCULUS, in fabulous history, a son of Vul-
can, said to have been blinded by a spark from
his father's forge. The Cæcilian family at Rome,
pretended to be descended from him.

CÆCUM, or **COECUM**, the blind gut. See **A-
NATOMY**, *Index*.

CÆLATURA, or **COELATURA**, the art of EN-
GRAVING on metals, stones, woods, or the like,
with instruments of steel, diamond, &c.

CÆLESTIANS, the followers of Cælestius.
See **PELAGIANS**.

CÆLESTIUS, a monk who flourished under
the empire of Arcadius, about A. D. 405, and
taught much the same doctrines as Pelagius.

CÆLICOLIST, *n. f.* [from *cælum*, heaven, and
colo, to inhabit,] an inhabitant of heaven. *A/b.*

CÆLIFEROUS. } *adj.* bearing up, or sustain-
CÆLIGEROUS. } ing the heavens.

CÆLING, a river in Cornwall.

CÆLIPOTENT, *adj.* mighty in heaven. *A/b.*

CÆLIUM, an ancient inland town of Peuce-
tia, in Apulia; about 5 miles above **BARIIUM** or
BARI. It still retains its ancient name.

(1.) **CÆLIUS**, **LUCIUS**. See **AURELIANUS**, N. 1.

(2.) **CÆLIUS MONS**, a town of Vindelicia, on
the W. side of the Ilargus; now called **KEL-
MUNTZ**.

(3.) **CÆLIUS MONS** at Rome. See **COELIUS**.

CÆLUS, in the Pagan mythology, the god of
the heavens, was represented as the son of Æther
and Dies, (or *Day*,) the father of Saturn and Ops,
and progenitor of all the gods.

CÆMENT. See **CEMENT**.

CÆMENTATION. See **CEMENTATION**.

CAEN, a considerable town of France, in the
department of Calvados, and ci-devant province
of Lower Normandy, of which it was the capital.
It has a celebrated university, and an academy of
literature. It contains 60 streets, 12 parishes, and
about 40,000 citizens. It has a castle with 4
towers, which were built by the English. The
town is a large building with 4 great towers. The
square has fine houses on 3 sides of it. It is seat-
ed in a pleasant country on the river Orne, about
8 miles from the sea. William the conqueror was
buried here, in the abbey of St Stephen, which
he founded. Caen is 65 m. W. by S. of Rouen, and
125 W. of Paris. Lon. o. 27. W. Lat. 49. 11. N.

CAER, *n. f.* [old Brit.] a city.

CAER-CARODOCK, a hill in Shropshire, near
the confluence of the Clun and the Temd.

CAER-CUSTENITH, a town of N. Wales in
Caernarvonshire.

CAERDIEFF, a borough of S. Wales in Gla-
morgaugh.

CÆRE,

tations and castle before 1284; for his queen, on April 25th in that year, brought forth within its walls Edward, first prince of Wales of the English line. It was built within a year, by the labour of the peasants, and at the cost of the chieftains of the country, on whom the conqueror imposed the expence. The external state of the walls and castle, Mr Pennant informs us, are at present exactly as they were in the time of Edward. The walls are defended by numbers of round towers, and have two principal gates: the E. facing the mountains; the W. upon the Menai. The entrance into the castle is very august, beneath a great tower, on the front of which appears the statue of the founder, with a dagger in his hand, as if menacing his new-acquired unwilling subjects. The gate had 4 portcullises, and every requisite of strength. The towers are very beautiful. The Eagle tower is remarkably fine, and has the addition of 3 slender angular turrets issuing from the top. Edward II. was born in a little dark room in this tower, not 12 feet long nor 8 in breadth: a little did a royal comfort, in those days, consist in either pomp or conveniency. The gate through which the affectionate Eleanor entered, to give the Welsh a prince of their own, who could not speak a word of English, is at the farthest end, at a vast height above the outside ground; so could only be approached by a draw bridge. The quay is a most beautiful walk along the Menai, and commands a most agreeable view. Caernarvon is a seat of manufactures, but has a brisk trade with London, Bristol, Liverpool, and Ireland, for the necessaries of life. It is the residence of numbers of genteel families, and contains several very good houses. Edward I. bestowed on this town its first royal charter, and made it a free borough. Among other privileges, none of the burgesses could be convicted of any crime committed between the rivers Conway and Dyfe, unless by a jury of their own townsmen. It is governed by a mayor, who, by patent, is created governor of the castle. It has one alderman, two bailiffs, a town-clerk, and two serjeants at mace. The representative of the place is elected by its burgesses, and those of Conway, Pwllheli, Nefyn, and Crickaeth. Every freeman has a right to vote whether resident or not. Caernarvon has a market on Sat. and fairs Feb. 25, May 16, Aug. 4. and Dec. 5. It is 7 m. S. W. of Bangor, and 251 m. W. of London. Lon. 4. 20. W. Lat. 53. 8. N.

(3.) CAERNARVON BAY lies between two points at the S. entrance of the channel which runs between the main and the isle of Anglesey. It affords a good harbour for ships.

CÆRULEOUS. *adj.* Of a sky colour. *Ash.*

(1.) CÆRULEUS, in ornithology, a name given by authors to a bird of the thrush or blackbird kind, and somewhat resembling the solitary sparrow.

(2.) CÆRULEUS is also a name given by Solinus to the great Indian worm, described by Pliny and others, as inhabiting the Ganges. It is probable that all the accounts we have of this monstrous animal are only false descriptions of the crocodile. *Chambers.*

CAERVORRAN, a town in Northumberland, S. of the Piets wall

CAERWENT, a village in Monmouthshire, 4 m. S. W. of Chepstow.

CAERWIS, a market town of Flintshire in N. Wales, 5 m. E. of St Asaph, 5 W. of Flint, and 204 N. W. of London. It has a market on Tues. and 6 fairs for cattle.

CÆSALPINIA, BRASILETTO, or BRASILWOOD, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the decandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 33d order, Leguminosæ. The calyx is quinquefid, with the lowest segment larger in proportion. There are 5 petals, the lowest most beautiful. It is a leguminous plant. There are 3 species, the most remarkable of which is

CÆSALPINIA BRASILIENSIS, commonly called *Brasiletto*. It grows naturally in the warmest parts of America, from whence the wood is imported for the dyers, who use it much. The demand has been so great, that none of the large trees are left in any of the British plantations; so that Mr Catesby owns himself ignorant of the dimensions to which they grow. The largest remaining are not above two inches in thickness, and 8 or 9 feet in height. The branches are slender and full of small prickles; the leaves are pinnated; the lobes growing opposite to one another, broad at their ends, with one notch. The flowers are white, papilionaceous, with many stamina and yellow apices, growing in a pyramidal spike, at the end of a long slender stalk: the pods inclose several small round seeds. The colour produced from this wood is greatly improved by solution of tin in aqua regia. See COLOUR-MAKING and DYEING. There is another sort, a native of the same countries with the first, but of a larger size. It sends out many weak irregular branches, armed with short, strong, upright thorns. The leaves branch out in the same manner as the first; but the lobes, or small leaves, are oval and entire. The flowers are produced in long spikes like those of the former, but are variegated with red. These plants may be propagated from seeds, which should be sown in small pots filled with light rich earth early in the spring, and plunged in a bed of tanner's bark. As they are very tender, they require to be constantly kept in the stove, and to be treated in the same manner as other exotics of that kind.

CÆSALPINOIDES, in botany, a synonyme of the GLEDITSIA.

CÆSALPINUS, Andrew, an eminent philosopher, physician and botanist, was born at Arezzo, about A. D. 1159. After having been many years professor at Pisa, he became physician to Pope Clement VIII. From a passage in his *Questiones Peripateticæ* it would appear, that he entertained some idea of the circulation of the blood. He wrote also a botanical work *De Plantis*, and is justly esteemed the founder of *Systematic Botany*. See BOTANY, *Index*. His *Hortus Siccus*, which consists of 786 dried specimens of plants, pasted on 266 folio pages, is still extant. He died at Rome Feb. 23. 1603.

(1.) CÆSAR, Caius Julius, the illustrious Roman general and historian, was of the family of the Julii, who pretended to be descended from Venus

over men whom he had reduced to be slaves; and, under one aspect he is to be considered as a hero; under another, as a monster. But it would be unfortunate, indeed, for society, if the possession of superior talents gave individuals a right to trouble its repose. Usurpers accordingly have flatterers, but no friends; strangers respect them; their subjects complain and submit; it is in their own families that humanity finds her avengers. Cæsar was assassinated by his son; Mahomet was poisoned by his wife; Kéuli Khan was massacred by his nephew, and Cromwell only died in his bed, because his son Richard was a philosopher. Cæsar, the tyrant of his country; Cæsar, who deluded the agents of his crimes, if they failed in success; Cæsar, in fine, the husband of every wife, and the wife of every husband, has been accounted a great man by the mob of writers. But it is only the philosopher who knows how to mark the difference between celebrity and greatness. The talents of this singular man, and the good fortune, which constantly attended him till the moment of his assassination, have concealed the enormity of his actions."

(1.) CÆSAR, [from *cædō, cæsūm*, to cut,] in Roman antiquity, the cognomen or surname of a branch of the Julian family; which is said to have taken its rise from the first of this name being cut out of his mother's womb. Mr Bailey is guilty of manifest anachronism, when he traces its origin from this circumstance having happened to Julius Cæsar; (N^o 1.) as there were Cæsars of the Julian family in public employment so early as the 11th century of the first Punic war; about A. U. C. 500: and from that period there were always some of that branch in public offices, till the time of that great general.

(3.) CÆSAR, in Roman antiquity, a title borne by all the emperors from Julius Cæsar to the destruction of the empire. It was also used as a title of distinction for the presumptive heir of the empire, as *king of the Romans* is now used for that of the German. This title took its rise from the name of the first emperor, (N^o 1.) which, by a decree of the senate, all the succeeding emperors were to bear. Under his successor, the appellation of AUGUSTUS being appropriated to the emperors, in compliment to that prince, the title *Cæsar* was given to the second person in the empire, though still it continued to be also given to the first; and hence the difference between Cæsar used simply, and Cæsar with the addition of Imperator Augustus. The dignity of Cæsar remained to the second of the empire, till Valerius Maximianus having elected Nicephorus Melissenus Cæsar, by contract; and it being necessary to confer some higher dignity on his own brother Valerius, he created him SEBASTOCRATOR, with the precedence over Melissenus; ordering, that in acclamations, &c. Valerius Sebastocrator should be named the second, and Melissenus Cæsar the first.

(4.) CÆSAR, Sir Julius, a learned civilian, was descended by the female line from the dukes de Carini in Italy; and was born near Tottenham in Middlesex, in 1557. He was educated at Oxford, advanced to many honourable employments, Vol. IV. PART. II.

admitted LL. D. of Oxford and Paris, and for the last 20 years of his life was master of the rolls. He was remarkable for his extensive bounty and charity to all persons of worth, so that he seemed to be the almoner general of the nation. He died in 1639, in the 79th year of his age. It is very remarkable that the M. SS. of this lawyer were offered, by the executors of some of his descendants, to a cheesemonger for waste paper; but being timely inspected by Mr Samuel Paterson, that gentleman discovered their worth, and had the satisfaction to find his judgment confirmed by the profession, to whom they were sold in lots for upwards of 500l. in 1757.

(1.) CÆSAREA, an ancient city on the coast of Phenicia. It was conveniently situated for trade; but had a very dangerous harbour, so that no ships could be safe in it when the wind was at S. W. Herod the Great, king of Judea, remedied this inconvenience at an immense expence and labour, and made it one of the most convenient havens on that coast. He also beautified it with many buildings, and bestowed 12 years on the finishing and adorning it.

(2.) CÆSAREA, the ancient name of CHERTSEY in Surry.

(3.) CÆSAREA, the ancient name of Jersey.

(4.) CÆSAREA AUGUSTA, in ancient geography, a Roman colony situated on the river Iberus in Spain, before called SALDUBA, in the territories of the Edetani; now commonly thought to be SARAGOSSA.

(5.) CÆSAREA JULIA, the name given by the Romans to ALGIERS.

* CÆSAREAN. See CESARIAN.

CÆSARIAN OPERATION. See MIDWIFERY. CÆSARIANS, } in Roman antiquity, were CÆSARIENSES, } officers or ministers of the Roman emperors; they kept the account of the revenues of the emperors; and took possession, in their name, of such things as devolved or were confiscated to them.

CÆSARIENSIS, FLAVIA, } ancient divisions CÆSARIENSIS, MAXIMA; } of Britain. See BRITAIN, N^o 1. § 4.

CÆSARIS EMPLASTRUM, among physicians, a name given to a plaister composed of astringents, to prevent abortion.

CÆSARODUNUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Turones in Celtic Gaul; now called TOURS. See TOURS.

(1.) CÆSAROMAGUS, in ancient geography, a town of the Trinobantes in Britain; by some supposed to be CHELMSFORD, by others BARENTFORD, and by others BURSTED.

(2.) CÆSAROMAGUS was also the ancient name of BEAUVAIS, in France.

CÆSAROPAPPIA, [*Καισαροπαις*,] a word used by Ahtedius to express the unnatural mixture of the temporal and spiritual tyranny assumed by the Popes.

CÆSAR'S HILL, in Suffex, near Findon.

CÆSENA, in ancient geography, a town of Gallia Cispadana, situated on the rivers Isapis and Rubicon; now called CESSNA.

CÆSIA. See CÆCIA.

CÆSIA SYLVA, in ancient geography, a wood

in Germany, part of the great Sylva Hercynia, situated partly in the duchy of Cleves, and partly in Westphalia between Wesel and Kessel.

CÆSONES, a denomination given to those cut out of their mother's wombs. Pliny ranks this as an auspicious kind of birth; the elder Scipio Africanus, and the first of the family of Cæsars, was brought into the world in this way.

(1.) **CÆSTUS**, in antiquity, a large gantlet made of raw hide, which the wrestlers made use of when they fought at the public games.—It was a kind of leathern strap, strengthened with lead or plates of iron; which encompassed the hand, the wrist, and part of the arm; to defend these parts as well as to enforce their blows.

(2.) **CÆSTUS**, or **CÆSTUM**, was also a kind of girdle, made of wool, which the husband untied for his bride the first day of marriage, before they went to bed. This relates to Venus's girdle, which Juno borrowed of her to entice Jupiter to love her. See **CASTRUS**.

(1.) * **CÆSURA**, *n. f.* [Lat.] A figure in poetry, by which a short syllable after a complete foot is made long.

(2.) **CÆSURA**, in the ancient poetry, is when, in the scanning of a verse, a word is divided, so that one part seems cut off, and goes to a different foot from the rest; *e. gr.*

Mentiri noli: nunquam mendacia profiant.
where the syllables *ri*, *li*, *quam*, and *men*, are *cæsuras*. Or, it denotes a certain agreeable division of the words between the feet of a verse; where by the last syllable of a word becomes the first of a foot: as in

Arma virumque canos Trojæ qui primus ab oris.
where the syllables *no* and *ja* are *cæsuras*.

(3.) **CÆSURA**, or *caesura* in the modern poetry, denotes a rest or pause towards the middle of an Alexandrian verse, by which the voice and pronunciation are aided, and the verse, as it were, divided into two hemistichs. See **PAUSE**.

CÆTERIS PARIBUS, a Latin term in frequent use among mathematical and physical writers. The words literally signify, *the rest, or other things, being alike or equal*. Thus we say the heavier the bullet, *cæteris paribus*, the greater the range; *i. e.* by how much the bullet is heavier, if the length and diameter of the piece and strength of the powder be the same, by so much will the utmost range or distance of a piece of ordnance be the greater. Thus also, in a physical way, we say, the velocity and quantity circulating in a given time through any section of an artery, will, *cæteris paribus*, be according to its diameter, and nearness to or distance from the heart.

CÆTOBRIX, in ancient geography, a town of Iulitania, near the mouth of the Tagus on the E. Sea; now extinct. It had its name from its fishery; and there are still extant fish-ponds on the shore, done with plaster of Paris, which illustrate the name of the ruined city.

CÆYX, in mythology, a king of Thrace, who was metamorphosed into a halcyon.

CAFER, Bos. See Bos, N° IV. § vi.

(1.) **CAFFA**, in commerce, painted cotton-manufactured in the East Indies, and sold in bags.

(2.) **CAFFA**, or **KAFFA**, a city and port town of Crim Tartary, situated on the S. E. part of the peninsula. It is the most considerable town in the country, and gives name to the straits, (N° 3.) which was anciently called **THEODOSIA**; and this name has been restored to it, since the Russians got possession of the country. It is 150 miles N. E. of Constantinople. Lon. 35. 45. E. Lat. 45. 2. N.

(3.) **CAFFA**, **STRAITS OF**, run from the Euxine or Black Sea to the Palus Meotus, or sea of Azoph. **CAFFACA**, in natural history, a name given by the Turks and Tartars to a peculiar kind of earth, of a grey colour, having a light cast of green in it. It is very soft and unctuous, and resembles fuller's earth; but is more astringent, and adheres very firmly to the tongue; these people use this earth when they bathe.

(1.) **CAFFILA**, a company of merchants or travellers who join together in order to go with more security through the dominions of the Grand Mogul, and other countries on the continent of the East Indies. The Caffila differs from a caravan, at least in Persia: for the caffila belongs properly to some sovereign or some powerful company in Europe, whereas a caravan is a company of particular merchants, each trading upon his own account. The English and Dutch have each of them their caffila at Gambrow. There are also such caffilas which cross some parts of the coast of Africa, particularly that called the *sea of Zangar*, which lies between the kingdom of Morocco and those of Tombut and Gaigo. This is a journey of 400 leagues; and takes up two months in going, and as many in coming back; the caffila travelling only by night, on account of the excessive heat of that country. The chief merchandise they bring back consists in gold dust, which they call **ATIBAR**, and the Europeans **TIBIR**.

(2.) **CAFFILA** on the coast of Guzerat or Cambaya, signifies a small fleet of merchant ships.

CAFFRARIA, the country of the Caffres, is the most southerly part of Africa lying in the form of a crescent about the inland country of Mosmotapa, between 35° Lat. S. and the tropic of Capricorn: and bounded on the E. S. and W. by the Indian and Atlantic oceans. Such is the description given by most geographers, who confound Caffraria with the country of the Hottentots; but Mr Walker (in his *Univ. Geog.*) makes them quite distinct; and says "Caffraria extends along the Indian Ocean to the mouth of the Great Fish-river, in Lat. 30° 30' S. by which it is divided from the country of the Hottentots." He adds "its other boundaries are uncertain. The country is very fertile, and the people have large herds of cattle, which are rather small but very docile, coming at a whistle." Indeed the description he gives of the inhabitants shows, that they must be a very different people from the Hottentots. See next article.

CAFFRES, the natives of Caffraria, whom Mr Walker thus describes: "The Caffres are tall, active, and strong, and evince great courage in attacking lions and other beasts of prey. Their complexions are black: their clothing consists of hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth." Perhaps this kind of clothing has led voyagers to confound them with the Hottentots. "Indeed

is the leading trait in the character of the Caffres. The men employ much of their time in hunting; the women in cultivating the land. They also make earthen ware and curious baskets. They have a high opinion of the Supreme Being, and of his power; believe in a future state of rewards and punishments; and think that the world had no beginning, and will be everlasting. They have no forms of prayer, nor priests; yet undergo, at years of age, the initiatory rite of the Hebrews. Their government is limited monarchy, and their king is often poorer than many of his subjects. He is allowed a plurality of wives."

CAPRES, {from *cafir*, Arab. an infidel,} an opprobrious appellation given by the Arabs to all who are not Mahometans.

* **CAFTAN**. *n. f.* [Persick.] A Persian or Turkish vest or garment.

* **CAG**. *n. f.* A barrel or wooden vessel, containing 4 or 5 gallons. Sometimes *keg*.

(1.) **CAGADO DE AGOA**, in zoology, a name by which the Portuguese in America call a species of tortoise, known among authors by its Brazilian name, *JURURA*.

(2.) **CAGADO DE TERRA**, in zoology, the name by which the Portuguese in America call a remarkable species of tortoise, called by the Brazilians *JABOTI*.

CAGANUS, or **CACANUS**, an appellation anciently given by the Huns to their kings. The word appears also to have been formerly applied to the princes of Muscovy, now called **CZARS**. From the same also, probably, the Tartar title **CHAM**, or **CAN**, had its origin.

CAGAO, in natural history, the Indian name of a large bird which inhabits the mountains, and feeds on pistachio nuts, and other fruits, which it wallows whole. It is very voracious, and is of the size of a hen, but has a longer neck.

CAGASTRUM is used by Paracelsus to denote morbidic semen, not comate or hereditary, but accidental. The pleurisy, plague, fever, &c. are ranked by that author in the number of *cagastic* diseases.

CAGAYAN. See **CAGEAN**.

(1.) * **CAGE**. *n. f.* [cage, Fr. from *cavea*, Lat.] An inclosure of twigs or wire, in which birds are kept.—See whether a cage can please a bird? or whether a dog grow not fiercer with tying? *Idney*.—He taught me how to know a man in the cage; in which cage of rushes, I am sure, you are not a prisoner. *Shakespeare*.—

Tho' slaves, like birds that sing not in a cage,
They lost their genius, and poetick rage;
Homers again and Pindars may be found,
And his great actions with their numbers crown'd.
Waller.

And parrots, imitating human tongue,
And singing birds in silver cages hung;
And ev'ry flagrant flow'r, and od'rous green,
Were sorted well, with lumps of amber laid between.
Dryden.

—A man recurs to our fancy, by remembering his argument, a beast, bird, or fish; by the cage, or court yard, or cistern, wherein it was kept. *Watts in the Mind*.—The reason why so few marriages are happy, is, because young ladies spend their time in making nets, not in making cages. *Swift*.

2. A place for wild beasts, inclosed with palisades. 3. A prison for petty malefactors.

(2.) **CAGE** is by some derived from the Italian *gaggia*, of the Latin *CAVEA*, which signifies the same: *a caveis theatralibus in quibus includebantur servi*.

(3.) **CAGE**, in carpentry, signifies an outer work of timber, enclosing another within it. In this sense we say *the cage of a wind mill*. The cage of a stair case denotes the wooden sides or walls which inclose it.

(4.) **CAGES**, **CAVEÆ**, in antiquity, were places in the ancient amphitheatres, (§ 2.) wherein wild beasts were kept, ready to be let out for sports. These beasts were usually brought to Rome shut up in oaken or beechen cages, artfully formed, and covered or shaded with boughs, that the creatures, deceived with the appearance of a wood, might fancy themselves in their forest. The fiercer sort were pent in iron cages, lest wooden prisons should be broke through. The *caveæ* were a sort of iron cages different from dens, which were under ground and dark; whereas the *caveæ* being airy and light, the beasts rushed out of them with more alacrity and fierceness than if they had been pent under ground.

* **TO CAGE**. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To inclose in a cage.—

He swoln, and pamper'd with high fare,
Sits down, and shorts, *cag'd* in his basket chair.
Dunlop.

CAGEAN, or **CAGAYAN**, a province of the island of Lytzen, or Manila, in the East Indies. It is the largest in the island, being 80 leagues in length, and 40 in breadth. The principal city is called *Nuevo Segovia*, and 15 leagues eastward from this city lies cape Bajador. Doubling that cape, and coasting along 20 leagues from N. to S. the province of Cagean ends, and that of Ilocos begins. The peaceable Cageans who pay tribute are about 9000; but there are many not subdued. The whole province is fruitful: the men apply to agriculture, and are of a martial disposition; and the women to several works in cotton. The mountains afford food for a vast number of bees, in consequence of which wax is so plenty, that the poor burn it instead of oil. They make their candles in the following manner: they leave a small hole at each end of a hollow stick for the wick to run through; and then, stopping the bottom, fill it with wax at the top: when cold, they break the mould, and take out the candle. On the mountains there is abundance of brass, ebony, and other valuable woods. In the woods are store of wild boars and other beasts; but not so good as those of Europe. There are also abundance of deer, which they kill for their skins and horns, to sell to the Chinese.

CAGEANS, the people of **CAGEAN**.

CAGGAW, in botany, a name given by the people of Guinea, to a plant which they boil in water, and use the decoction to wash the mouth with, as a cure for the toothach. Its leaves are smooth and shining, like those of the Laurel, but they are thin, and bend like those of the bay.

CAGHRYARIFF, a town of Ireland, in County

CAGIA, *n. f.* in old records, a cage.

CAGIT, in natural history, a name given by

to a small kind of bark used in the navigation of the Black Sea. It is equipped with 40 or 50 soldiers: their employment is a kind of piracy.

CAICOS, islands of America, lying N. of St Domingo; between Lon. 112. 10. and 113. 16. W. Lat. 21. 40. N.

CAICUS, a river of Asiatic Turkey, which falls into the Archipelago.

CAJEPUT, an oil brought from the East Indies, resembling that of Cardamom.

CAIER, a river in Caermarthen-shire.

(1.) CAIETA, in ancient geography, a port and town of Latium, so called from Æneas's purse; now called GAETA.

(2.) CAIETA, a town in Naples.

CAJETAN, Cardinal, was born at Cajeta, in Naples, in 1469. His proper name was *Thomas*; but he adopted that of *Cajetan* from the place of his nativity. He defended the authority of the Pope, which suffered greatly at the council of Nice, in a work entitled *Of the Power of the Pope*; and for this work he obtained the bishopric of Cajeta. He was afterwards raised to the archiepiscopal see of Palermo, and in 1517 was made a cardinal by Pope Leo X. The year after, he was sent as legate into Germany, to quiet the seditions raised against indulgences by Martin Luther; but Luther, under protection of Frederick, elector of Saxony, set him at defiance; for though he obeyed the cardinal's summons in repairing to Augsberg, yet he rendered all his proceedings ineffectual. Cajetan was employed in several other negotiations and transactions, being as busy at business as at letters. He died in 1534. He wrote Commentaries upon Aristotle's philosophy; and upon Thomas Aquinas's theology; he made a literal translation of the Old and New Testament.

CAMPONG, or } a large, populous, and rich
CAMPUM, } town of Asia, in China, situated in the middle of a large and well cultivated plain. It stands in a bottom; and when besieged by the rebels in 1642, they ordered the dykes of the river Hohangho to be cut, which drowned the city, and destroyed 300,000 of its inhabitants. Lon. 112. 27. E. Lat. 35. 0. N.

CAILLE, Nicholas Louis DE LA, an eminent mathematician and astronomer, was born at a small town in the diocese of Rheims, in 1713. His father had served in the army; and in his retirement studied mathematics; and amused himself with mechanic exercises, wherein he proved the happy author of several inventions of considerable use to the public. Nicholas, almost in his infancy, took a fancy to mechanics, which proved a signal service to him in his maturer years. He was sent young to school at Mantes sur Seine, where he discovered early tokens of genius. In 1729, he went to Paris; where he studied the mathematics, philosophy, and mathematics. Afterwards he studied divinity at Navarre, was ordained a priest, and officiated in the church of the college of Mazarin several years; but he never entered orders, apprehending that his astronomical studies might too much interfere with his religious duties. In 1739, he was conjoined with Pierre Thury, son of M. Cassini, in verifying the motions of the royal observatory through the

whole kingdom of France. In November the same year, whilst he was engaged day and night in the operations which this grand undertaking required, and at a great distance from Paris, he was, without any solicitation, elected into the vacant mathematical chair, which the celebrated M. Varignon had so worthily filled. Here he began to teach about the end of 1740; and an observatory was erected for his use in the college, and furnished with the best instruments. In May, 1741, he was admitted into the royal academy of sciences as an adjunct member for astronomy. Besides many excellent papers in their memoirs, he published Elements of geography, mechanics, optics, and astronomy. He carefully computed all the eclipses of the sun and moon that had happened since the Christian æra, which were printed in a book published by two Benedictines, entitled *l'Art de vérifier les dates*, &c. Paris, 1750, in 4to. Besides these, he compiled a volume of astronomical ephemerides, from 1745 to 1755; another from 1755 to 1765; a third from 1765 to 1775; an excellent work entitled *Astronomia fundamenta novissimis solis et stellarum observationibus auzbita*; and the most correct solar tables that ever appeared. Having gone through a seven years series of astronomical observations in his own observatory, he formed a project of going to observe the southern stars at the Cape of Good Hope. This was highly approved of by the academy, and by the prime minister Comte de Argenson, and readily agreed to by the states of Holland. Upon this, he drew up a plan of the method he proposed to pursue in his southern observations; setting forth, that, besides settling the places of the fixed stars, he proposed to determine the parallax of the moon, Mars, and Venus. But whereas this required correspondent observations to be made in the northern parts of the world, he sent to those of his correspondents who were expert in practical astronomy previous notice, in print, whatever observations he designed to make at such and such times for the said purpose. At length, on the 21st of Nov. 1750, he sailed for the Cape, and arrived there on the 19th April, 1751. He forthwith got his instruments on shore; and, with the assistance of some Dutch artificers, set about building an astronomical observatory, in which his instruments were properly disposed, as soon as it was fit to receive them. The sky at the Cape is generally pure and serene, unless when a S. E. wind blows. But this often happens, and when it does, it is attended with some strange and terrible effects. The stars look bigger, and seem to caper; the moon has an undulating tremor; and the planets have a sort of beard like comets. Two hundred and twenty-eight nights did our astronomer survey the face of the southern heavens; during which space, which is almost incredible, he observed more than 10,000 stars; and whereas the ancients filled the heavens with monsters and odd wives tales, the abbe de la Caille chose rather to adorn them with the instruments and machines which modern philosophy has made use of for the discovery of nature. See the Planisphere in his *Cælum Australe Stelliferum*. With no less success did he attend to the parallax of the moon, Mars, Venus, and the sun. Having thus executed the

purpose of his voyage, and no present opportunity offering for his return, he thought of employing the vacant time in another arduous attempt; no less than that of taking the measure of the earth; as he had already done that of the heavens. This indeed had, through the munificence of the French king, been done before by different sets of learned men both in Europe and America; some determining the quantity of a degree under the equator, and others under the arctic circle: but it had not as yet been decided whether in the southern parallels of latitude the same dimensions obtained as in the northern. His labours were rewarded with the satisfaction he wished for; having determined a distance of 410,814 feet from a place called *Klip Fontyn* to the Cape, by means of a base of 38,802 feet, 3 times actually measured; whence he discovered a new secret of nature, namely that the radii of the parallels in S. latitude are to the same as those of the corresponding parallels in N. latitude. About the 23d degree of S. lat. he found a degree on the meridian to contain 342,422 Paris feet. He returned to Paris the 27th Sept. 1754; having in his almost four years absence expended no more than 9144 livres on himself and his companion; and at his coming into port, he refused a bribe of 100,000 livres, offered by one that thirsted less after glory than gain; to be sharer in his immunity from custom house searches. After receiving the congratulatory visits of his more intimate friends and the astronomers, he drew up a reply to some strictures, which professor Buler had published relative to the meridian, and then he settled the results of the comparison of his own with the observations of other astronomers for the parallaxes. That of the sun he fixed at 94"; of the moon, at 56' 56"; of Mars in his opposition, 36"; of Venus 38". He also settled the laws whereby astronomical refractions are varied by the different density or rarity of the air, by heat or cold, and dryness or moisture. And he showed an easy method practicable by common navigators; of finding the longitude at sea by means of the moon, which he illustrated by examples selected from his own observations during his voyages. His fame was now established upon a firm basis, and he was unanimously elected a member of the royal society at London; of the institute of Bologna; of the imperial academy at Petersburg; and of the royal academies of Berlin, Stockholm, and Gottingen. In 1760, he was attacked by a severe fit of the gout; which, however, did not interrupt his studies; for he then planned out a new and immense work, no less than a history of astronomy through all ages, with a comparison of the ancient and modern observations, and the construction and use of the instruments employed in making them. In order to pursue this task, in a suitable retirement, he obtained a grant of apartments in the royal palace of Vincennes; and whilst his astronomical apparatus was erecting there, he began printing his catalogue of the southern stars, and the 3d volume of his Ephemerides. The state of his health was, towards the end of 1763, greatly relaxed. His blood grew inflamed; he had pains in the head, obstructions of the kidneys, loss of sight, with an oppletion of the whole habit.

His mind remained unaffected, and he resolutely persisted in his studies as usual. In the month of March, medicines were administered to him, which rather aggravated than alleviated his symptoms; and he was now sensible, that the same distemper which in Africa, ten years before, yielded to a few simple remedies, did in his native country bid defiance to the best physicians. This induced him to settle his affairs; his MSS. he committed to the care and discretion of his esteemed friend M. Maraldi. It was at last determined that a vein should be opened: but this brought on an obstinate lethargy, of which he died, aged 49.

CAIMACAN, or CARMACAM, in the Turkish affairs, a dignity in the Ottoman empire, answering to lieutenant, or rather deputy amongst us. There are usually two Caimacans; one resides at Constantinople, as governor thereof; the other attends the grand vizir in quality of his lieutenant, secretary of state, and first minister of his council, and gives audience to ambassadors. Sometimes there is a 3d caimacan, who attends the sultan, whom he acquaints with any public disturbance, and receives his orders concerning them.

(1.)* CAIMAN. *n. s.* The American name of a crocodile.

(2.) CAIMAN ISLANDS, American islands lying south of Cuba, and N. W. of Jamaica, between 81° and 86° of lon. W. and in 21° of lat. N. They are most remarkable on account of the fishery of tortoise, which the people of Jamaica carry home alive, keeping them in pens for food, and killing them as they want them.

CAIN, the eldest son of Adam and Eve, and the first man born into this world. He is generally stiled the first *murderer*, but although it is certain, that he killed his brother Abel, it appears by no means equally certain that he intended it. Death, except that of the beasts sacrificed by Abel, was then hardly known; and the extent of suffering, which the human body could bear, without inducing death, was totally unknown. It seems therefore probable, that Cain had killed his brother in a fit of passion, when he intended nothing more than a severe drubbing. This seems farther confirmed by the punishment inflicted on him, by the Searcher of hearts; which was only banishment, a punishment often inflicted since for manslaughter. He is the first builder on record. Philo pretends that he built 7 cities. *Alfred. Chron. p. 21.*

(1.) CAINAN, or KENAN, the son of Enoch, great grandson of Adam, and the 4th of the Antediluvian patriarchs, was born A. M. 325; begat Mahalaleel in 395, and died in 1235, aged 910.

(2.) CAINAN, the name of an ideal personage, introduced into St Luke's genealogy of our Saviour, (ch. iii. 36.) probably by the mistake of some transcriber, as the son of Arphaxad. But that no such person ever existed appears evident from Gen. x, 24. xi, 12. and I Chron. i, 18.

CAINIANS, or } a sect of heretics in the 3d
CAINITES, } century, so called on account of their great respect for Cain. They pretended that the virtue which produced Abel was of an order inferior to that which had produced Cain, and that this was the reason why Cain had the victory over Abel and killed him; for they admitted a great number of geni, which they called

ed virtues, of different ranks and orders. They honoured those who carry in Scripture the most visible marks of reprobation; as the inhabitants of Sodom, Esau, Korah, Dathan, and Abiram. They had, in particular, a very great veneration for the traitor Judas, under pretence, that through him the death of Jesus Christ had saved mankind. They had a forged gospel of Judas, to which they paid great respect.

CAINITO, in botany, the name given by Plinier to the star-apple. See *CHRYSOPHYLLUM*.

CAINON, in ancient geography, a city of Syria, said by St Augustine to have been named after Cain.

CAINS, in the island of Candia, denote Greeks revolted, and retired to the Venetians, either at Iuda or Spina Longa; who, in time of war, burn, pillage, and commit all manner of cruelties on their ancient brethren under the Turks. When Cain is taken, there is no mercy for him; they either impale him, or put him to the ganche.

* To CAJOLE. *v. a.* [*cageoller*, Fr.] To flatter; to soothe; to coax: a low word.—

Thought he, 'tis no mean part of civil State prudence, to *cajole* the devil. *Hudibras*. The one affronts him, while the other *cajoles* and soothes him; takes up his quarrel, shakes his head at it, clasps his hand upon his breast, and then protests and protests. *L'Estrange*.—

My tongue that wanted to *cajole* I try'd, but not a word wou'd troll. *Rymer*.

* CAJOLER. *n. s.* [from *cajole*.] A flatterer; a wheedler.

* CAJOLERY. *n. s.* [*cajolerie*, Fr.] Flattery.

CAIOSTER, a town in Lincolnshire, 55 m. from London.

CAJOU, CASHEW, or CASSU. See *ANACARDIUM*.

CAIOUS, a river of Turkey, in Asia, which runs into the Mediterranean.

CAIQUE. See *CAIC*.

CAIRA, [Fr. pronounced *Sa ira*,] The name, rather chorus, of a political French song, very popular all over France, in the beginning of the revolution. The words literally signify, *Come on, we will do*,—or *Come, it will go on*, and are said to have been used almost proverbially by the late Mr Franklin, during and after the American revolution, every time he heard any piece of news favourable to liberty; from which circumstance they were adopted as the chorus of the French revolution song. Songs, however, as well as states, are subject to revolutions. This song and the Marseilloise hymn, another popular French song, were both prohibited from being sung in public, by the French directory, soon after the last revolution in July 1794, in consequence of the overrated zeal of some individuals, who had occasioned riots about them, at the theatres in Paris, similar to those that took place in our own country about the King's Anthem.

CAIRINA, in ornithology, a name given by some authors to the Muscovy duck. See *ANAS*, p. 29.

(1.) CAIRN, [Gael. a stone or rock,] a village of Scotland, in Wigtonshire, about 4 m. from Lochran.

(2.) CAIRN-BAY, is safe and commodious: but

the coast of Wigtonshire, contiguous to the village; (N. 1.) which has anchoring ground for ships of any burden. Vessels entering or coming from the Frith of Clyde fly to it for shelter in stormy weather.

CAIRNGORM, a mountain of Scotland, in Strathspey, Inverness-shire, famous for its rock crystals of various tints, from a dark brown to a fine yellow topaz colour.

CAIRNHILL, a hill of Ireland, in Meath.

CAIRNKINNOW, a high mountain of Scotland, in Dumfries-shire; from the top of which may be seen Airshire, Clydesdale, Annandale, Galloway, Cumberland and Westmoreland.

CAIRNLOUGH, a town of Antrim, Ireland.

CAIRNPAT, a mountain of Scotland, 800 feet above the level of the sea, supposed to be the 2d highest in Galloway. England, Ireland, Isle of Man, and part of the Highlands of Scotland, are seen from the top of it.

CAIRNS, or CARNES, the vulgar name of those heaps of stones which are to be seen in many places of Britain, particularly Scotland and Wales. They are composed of stones of all dimensions thrown together in a conical form, a flat stone crowning the apex: see *BARROWS*, § 22, and *Plate L.IV.* Various causes have been assigned by the learned for these heaps of stones. They have supposed them to have been, in times of inauguration, the places where the chieftain elect stood to show himself to best advantage to the people; or the place from whence judgment was pronounced; or to have been erected on the road side in honour of Mercury; or to have been formed in memory of some solemn compact, particularly where accompanied by standing pillars of stones; or for the celebration of certain religious ceremonies. Such might have been the reasons, in some instances, where the evidences of stone chests and urns are wanting: but these are so generally found that they seem to determine the most usual purpose of the piles in question to have been for sepulchral monuments. Even this destination might render them suitable to other purposes; particularly religious, to which by their nature they might be supposed to give additional solemnity. According to Toland, fires were kindled on the tops of flat stones, at certain times of the year, particularly on the eve of the 1st of May and the 1st of November, for the purpose of sacrificing; at which time all the people having extinguished their domestic fires relit them from the sacred fires of the cairns. In general, therefore, these accumulations appear to have been designed for the sepulchral protection of heroes and great men. The stone chests, the repository of the urns and ashes, are lodged in the earth: sometimes only one, sometimes more, are found thus deposited; and Mr Pennant mentions an instance of 17 being discovered under the same pile. Cairns are of different sizes, some of them very large: Mr Pennant describes one in the island of Arran, 114 feet over, and of a vast height. They may justly be supposed to have been proportioned in size to the rank of the person, or to his popularity; the people of a whole district assembled to show their respect to the deceased; and, by an act of honouring of his memory, soon accumu-

ted heaps equal to those that astonish us at this time. But these honours were not merely those of the day; as long as the memory of the deceased endured, not a passenger went by without adding a stone to the heap: they supposed it would be an honour to the dead, and acceptable to his manes. To this moment there is a proverbial expression among the Highlanders allusive to the old practice: a suppliant will tell his patron, *Cuir mi cloch or do charne*, "I will add a stone to your cairn;" meaning, When you are no more, I will do all possible honour to your memory. Cairns are to be found in all parts of our islands, in Cornwall, Wales, and all parts of North Britain; they were in use among the northern nations; Dahlberg, in his 323 plate, has given the figure of one. In Wales they are called *carneddau*; but the proverb taken from them there, is not of the complimentary kind: *Karn ar dy ben*, or, "A cairn on your head," is a token of imprecation.

CAIRNSAIGH, [Celtic. i. e. the hill of peace,] a mountain of Scotland, in Ayrshire.

CAIRNY, a parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, consisting of the united parishes of BORTARY, RATHVEN, and part of DRUMDELFY. It is part of the lordship of Strathbogie, which king Robert Bruce took from the Cummins, and gave to Sir Adam Gordon. The population in 1792, as stated by the rev. Mr Alexander Chalmers, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2600, which was 90 below the number in 1755. In winter it contains about 3000 black cattle, besides some sheep. The soil is good and would produce much corn, if farming were encouraged.

(1.) **CAIRO**, or the capital of Egypt, situated in a plain at the foot of a mountain. It was founded by Jawhar, a Magrebian general, in the year of the Hegira 358. He had laid the foundation of it under the horoscope of Mars; and for that reason gave his new city the name of *Al Kabirab*, or the *Victorious*, an epithet applied by the Arab astronomers to that planet. In 362 it became the residence of the kaliffs of Egypt, and of consequence the capital of that country, and has ever since continued to be so. It is divided into the New and Old cities. See N. 1. and 2. Lon. 31. 23. E. Lat. 30. 3. N.

1. **CAIRO, NEW**, which is properly Cairo, is seated in a sandy plain about two miles and a half from the old city. It stands on the western side of the Nile, from which it is not $\frac{1}{4}$ of a mile distant. It is extended along the mountain on which the castle is built, for the sake of which it was removed hither, to be under its protection. However the change is much for the worse, as well with regard to air as water, and the pleasantness of the prospect. Bulac is the port of Cairo. See BULAC. Some travellers have made Cairo of a most enormous magnitude, by taking in Bulac, with the old city and the new; the real circumference of it, however, is not above ten miles, but it is extremely populous. The first thing that strikes a traveller is the narrowness of the streets, and the appearance of the houses. These are so daubed with mud on the out side, that one would think they were built with nothing else. Besides, as the streets are unpaved, and always full of people, walking in them is very inconvenient, espe-

cially to strangers. To remedy this, there are a great number of asses, always ready to be hired for a penny a mile. The owners drive them along and give notice to the crowd to make way. The Christians in this, as well as other parts of the Turkish dominions, are not permitted to ride upon horses. The number of the inhabitants can only be guessed at; but it must be very great, for in some years the plague will carry off 250,000, without their being much missed. The houses are from 1 to 2 or 3 stories high, and flat at the top, where they take the air, and often sleep all night. The higher ranks have a court on the inside, like a college. The common run of houses have very little room, and even among great people it is unusual for 20 or 30 to lie in the same hall. Some houses will hold 300 persons of both sexes, among whom are 20 or 30 slaves, and those of ordinary rank have generally 3 or 4. There is a canal called *Malis*, which runs along the city from one end to the other, with houses on each side, which make a large straight street. There are also several lakes, which are called *barks* in the language of the country. The principal of these, which is near the castle, is 560 paces in diameter. The most elegant houses in the city are built on its banks; but what is extraordinary, eight months in the year it contains water, and the other four it appears with a charming verdure. When the quantity of water is sufficient, it is always crowded with gilded boats, barges, and barks, in which people of condition take their pleasure towards night, at which time curious fire-works are exhibited with variety of music. New Cairo is surrounded with walls built with stone, on which are handsome battlements, and at every distance of a hundred paces, there are very fine towers, which have room for a great number of people. The walls were never very high, and are in many places gone to ruin. The basha lives in the castle, which was built by Saladin 700 years ago. It stands in the middle of the famous mountain, *Mokattam*, which terminates here, after stretching along the banks of the Nile from Ethiopia. This castle is the only place of defence in Egypt; and yet the Turks take no notice of its decay, inasmuch that in process of time it will become a heap of rubbish. The principal part in it is a magnificent hall, environed with 12 columns of granite, of a prodigious height and thickness, which sustain an open dome, under which Saladin distributed justice to his subjects. Round the dome there is an inscription in relief, which mentions the date and by whom it was built. From this place the whole city of Cairo may be seen, and above 30 miles along the Nile, with the fruitful plains near it; as well as the mosques, pyramids, villages, and gardens, with which their fields are covered. These granite pillars were the work of antiquity, for they were got out of the ruins of Alexandria. There are likewise in the mosques and in the principal houses no less than 40,000 more, besides great magazines, where all kinds are to be had at very low rates. A janissary happened to find five in his garden, as large as those in the castle; but could not find any machine of strength sufficient to move them, and therefore had them sawed in pieces to make mill-stones!

is believed that there have been 30 or 40,000 of these pillars brought from Alexandria, where there are yet many more to be had. Cairo has 3 gates, which are very magnificent; and about 300 public mosques, some of which have six minarets. The mosque of 'Ashar hath several buildings adjoining, which were once a famous university, and 5,000 scholars and students were maintained on its foundation; but has now not above 1400, and these are only taught to read and write. All the mosques are built upon the same plan, and differ only in magnitude. The entrance is through the principal gate into a large square, open on the sides, but well paved. Round this are covered galleries, supported by pillars; under which they perform their prayers, in the shade. On one side of the square there are particular places with basins of water, for the convenience of performing the ablutions enjoined by the Koran. The most remarkable part of the mosque, besides the minaret, is the dome. This is often bold, well proportioned, and of an astonishing magnitude. The inside of the domes are carved like lace, flowers, and melons. They are built so firm, and with such art, that they will last 600 or 700 years. About the outward circumference there are large Arabic inscriptions, in relief, which may be read by those who stand below, though they are sometimes of wonderful height. The khans or caravanseras are numerous and large, with courts in the middle, like their houses. Some are several stories high, and are always full of people and merchandise. The Nubians, the Abyssinians, and other African nations, which come to Cairo, have one apartment themselves, where they always meet with lodging. Here they are secure from insults, and their effects are safe. Besides these, there is a BAZAR, where all sorts of goods are to be sold. This is a long broad street; and yet the crowd is so great, one can hardly pass along. At the end of this street is another short one, but pretty broad, with shops full of the best sort of goods, and precious merchandise. At the end of this short street there is a great khane, where all sorts of white oxen are to be sold. Farther than this is another khane, where a great number of blacks, of both sexes, are exposed to sale. Not far from the best market-place is an hospital, and a mosque for mad people. They also receive and maintain sick people into this hospital, but they are poorly looked after. The increase of the Nile generally begins in May, and in June the inhabitants proclaim about the city how much it is risen. Over against the old Cairo the basha has a house, wherein the water enters to a column, which has lines at the distance of every inch, and marks at every two feet as far as 30. When the water rises to 22 feet, it is thought to be of a sufficient height; when it rises much higher, it does a great deal of mischief. There is much pomp and ceremony used in letting the water into the canal above-mentioned. The basha gives the first stroke towards the removal of the dike or dam. When the water has filled the canal and lakes in the city, and the numerous cisterns that are in the mosques and private houses, it is let into a vast plain, to the N. E. the extent of which is 50 miles. When the country is covered with water, it is no unpleasant sight to

view the towns appearing like little islands, and the people passing and repassing in boats. New Cairo lies 100 miles S. from the mouth of the Nile.

2. CAIRO, OLD, lies on the E. side of the Nile, and has scarce any thing remarkable but the granaries of Joseph; which are nothing but a high wall, lately built, which includes a square spot of ground, where they deposit wheat, barley, and other grain, which is a tribute to the basha, paid by the owners of land. This has no other covering but the heavens, and therefore the birds are always sure to have their share. There is likewise a tolerably handsome church, which is made use of by the Copts, who are Christians and the original inhabitants of Egypt. Joseph's well is in the castle, and was made by Mohammed about 700 years ago. It is called JOSEPH'S WELL, because they attribute every thing extraordinary to that great prime minister of Egypt. It is cut in a rock, and is 180 feet in depth. The water is drawn up to the top by oxen, placed on platforms, at proper distances, which turn about the machines that raise it. The descent is so gradual that, though there are no steps, the oxen can descend and ascend with ease.

(II.) CAIRO, INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, &c. OF. The inhabitants of Cairo are a mixture of Moors, Turks, Jews, Greeks, and Copts, or Coptis. The only difference between the habit of the Moors and Coptis is their turbans; those of the Moors being white, and of the Coptis white striped with blue. The common people generally wear a long black loose frock, sewed together all down before. The Jews wear a frock of the same fashion, made of cloth; and their caps are like a high crowned hat, without brims, covered with the same cloth, but not so taper. The Jewish women's are not very unlike the men's, but more light and long. The Greeks are habited like the Turks, only their turbans differ. Provisions of all kinds are exceedingly plenty; for 20 eggs may be bought for a *parrab* or penny, and bread is six times as cheap as with us. They have almost all sorts of flesh and fish; particularly tame buffaloes, which are very useful. They bring goats into the streets in great numbers, to sell their milk. Their gardens are well stocked with fruit trees of various kinds, as well as roots, herbs, melons, and cucumbers. The most common animal food is mutton. The goats are very beautiful, and have ears two feet in length; but their flesh is in no great esteem.

CAIROAN, or a city of Africa, in the kingdom of Tunis, seated in a sandy barren soil, about 5 miles from the gulph of Capres. It has neither spring, well, nor river; and therefore the inhabitants are obliged to preserve rain water in tanks and cisterns. It was built by the Aglabites; and is the ancient CYRENE, but hath now lost its splendor. There is still, however, a very superb mosque, and the tombs of the kings of Tunis are yet to be seen. It lies 80 miles S. of Tunis. Lon. 9. 12. E. Lat. 35. 40. N.

CAISHOW, a district in Buckinghamshire, so named from its ancient inhabitants the CAESHII.

CAISSE D'ESCOMPTE, {Fr. i. e. box or office of discount,} a bank established at Paris by the old government of France, with a view to restore public

public credit, a short time before the revolution. It was at first under the direction of the celebrated M. Neckar, in 1789; but was suppressed by the convention, on the motion of Cambon, 24th Aug. 1793.

(1.) * **CAISSON**. *n. f.* [Fr.] 1. A chest of bombs or powder, laid in the enemy's way, to be fired at their approach. 2. A wooden case in which the piers of bridges are built within the water.

(2.) **CAISSON** signifies also a covered waggon to carry bread, or ammunition.

CAISTOR, a town in Lincolnshire.

CAITAIA, in zoology, the name of an American monkey, remarkable for its sweet smell, having somewhat of a scent of musk; its hair is long and of a whitish yellow colour; its head is round; its forehead depressed, and very small; its nose small and flatted, and its tail arched. It is easily tamed, but very clamorous and quarrellsome.

CAITHNESS, otherwise called the county of **WICK**, is the most northern county of Scotland. It is bounded on the E. by the ocean, and by Strathnaver and Sutherland on the S. and S. W. from thence it is divided by the mountains Orde, and a continued ridge of hills as far as Knockfin, and thence by the whole course of the river Hallowdale. On the N. it is washed by the Pentland frith, which divides it from the Orkneys. It extends 35 miles from N. to S. and about 20 from E. to W. The coast is rocky, and remarkable for a number of bays and promontories. Of these, the principal are Sandside head to the W. pointing to the opening of Pentland frith; Orcas, now Holborn head, and **DUNNET HEAD**, both pointing northward to the frith. **SCRIBISTER** bay, on the N. W. is a good harbour, where ships may ride securely. **RICE** bay, on the east side, extends 3 miles in breadth; but is of dangerous access, on account of some sunk rocks at the entrance. At the bottom of this bay appear the ruins of two strong castles, the seat of the Earl of Caithness, called *Castle Sinclair*, and *Gernego*, joined to each other by a draw-bridge. **Duncan's** bay, otherwise called *Dunby-head*, is the N. E. point of Caithness, and the most extreme promontory in Britain. At this place, the breadth of the frith does not exceed 12 miles. It is the ordinary ferry to the Orkneys. Here is likewise *Clythness* pointing E. and *Noshead* pointing N. E. The sea in this place is very impetuous, being in continual agitation from violent counter-tides, currents, and vortices. The only island belonging to this county is that of **STROMA**, in the Pentland frith, two miles from the main land. The county of Caithness, though chiefly mountainous, flattens towards the sea coast, where the ground is arable, and produces good harvests of oats and barley, sufficient for the natives, and yielding a surplus for exportation. Caithness is well watered with small rivers, brooks, lakes, and fountains, and affords a few woods of birch, but is in general bare of trees; and even those the inhabitants plant are stunted in their growth. Lead is found at Dunnet, copper at Old Urk, and iron ore at several places; but these advantages are not improved. The air of Caithness is temperate, though in the latitude of 58°, where the longest day in summer lasts 18 hours; and when the

sun sets, he makes so small an arch of a circle above the horizon, that the people enjoy twilight until he rises again. The fuel used by the inhabitants of Caithness consists of peat and turf, which the ground yields in great plenty. The forests of Moravins and Berridale afford abundance of deer and roe-bucks: the country is well stored with hares, rabbits, grouse, heathcocks, plovers, and all sorts of game; besides a peculiar species of birds called **SNOW-FLEETS**; which are about the size of a sparrow, exceedingly delicious, and come hither in large flights about the middle of February, and depart in April. The hills are covered with sheep and black cattle; which are numerous, that a fat cow has been sold for 40s. The rocks along the coasts are frequented by eagles, hawks, and all kinds of sea fowl, whose eggs and young are taken in vast quantities by the natives. The rivers and lakes abound with trout, salmon and eels; and the sea affords a very extensive fishery. Divers obelisks and ancient monuments appear in this district, and several Pictish chapels are still standing. The last great war in Scotland was occasioned by a dispute relating to this county. An earl of Breadalbane married an heiress of Caithness: the inhabitants would not admit her title, but set up another person in opposition. The earl, according to the custom of those times, designed to assert his right by the use of arms: he raised an army of 1500 men; but thinking the number too great, he dismissed one 500, and then another. With the remainder he marched to the borders of Caithness. He added stratagem to force. He knew that the enemy's army waited for him on the other side of the promontory of Ord. He knew also, that whisky was then the nectar of Caithness; and therefore ordered a ship laden with that liquor to pass round the point, and be purposely stranded on the shore. The directions were punctually obeyed; and the earl, in a seeming fright escaped in their boats before the invading army. The Caithness men made a prize of the ship; but making too free with the freight, became an easy prey to the earl, who attacked them during their intoxication, and gained the county, which he disposed of very soon after his conquest. Caithness is well peopled with a sort of hardy inhabitants, who employ themselves chiefly in fishing, and breeding sheep and black cattle. They are remarkably industrious; for between Wick and Dunbeath, one continued track of rugged rocks, extending 12 miles, they have made several little harbours for their fishing boats, and cut artificial steps from the beach to the top of the rocks, where they have erected houses, in which they cure and dry the fish for market. The county sends out in some years about 20,000 head of black cattle; but in bad seasons the farmers sell and salt vast numbers for sale. Great numbers of swine are also reared; but the rev. Dr Morison, minister of Canisbay, says "the damage they do in winter to the grass and corn lands, as they are allowed to roam at large, far exceeds any advantages that can accrue from them." (*Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* viii. 150.) These animals seem to be a peculiar species of swine. They are short, high-backed, long-bristled, sharp, slender, and well-proportioned; have long erect ears, and most frequently

cks. Here are neither barns nor granaries: the corn is threshed out, and preserved in the chaff in cakes; which are stacks, in the shape of bee hives, pitched quite round, where it will keep good for 20 years. Vast numbers of salmon are taken at Mistle-hill, Dunnet, Wick, and Thurso. A miraculous draught occurred at this last place; not less than 2500 being taken at one tide, within the memory of man; and Mr Smollet informs us, that, in the neighbourhood, above 300 good salmon have been taken at one draught of the net. In November, great numbers of seals are taken in the caverns that open into the sea, and run some hundreds of yards under ground. The entrances of these caverns are narrow, but the inside lofty and spacious. The seal-hunters enter these in all boats with torches, which they light as soon as they land, and then with loud shouts alarm the animals, which they kill with clubs as they attempt to pass. This is a hazardous employment; should the wind blow hard from sea, these adventurers are inevitably lost. Sometimes a large quantity of seals, 12 feet long, have been killed on the coast. During the spring, great quantities of herring fish resort to this coast, and are the prey of the seals, as appears from the number of skins of these fishes which at that season float ashore. At certain times also the seals seem to be visited by a great mortality; for, at those times, multitudes of them are seen dead in the water. Much lime is found in this country, which when burnt is made into a compost with turf and sea plants. Vituluses (which were formerly unlimited,) still exist less or more in many parts of this county, till they be totally abolished, must prove insurmountable obstructions to its improvement. Mr Gun, minister of Latheron, justly observes, they are both slavish and detrimental to the tenants. They tend to hurt their morals, as well as to hinder industry and improvement." (*Stat. Acc.* xvii. 26.) It can be more disgraceful than to see women sitting in droves of 60 or 70 to the fields with baskets of dung on their backs, filled at pleasure from the dunghills by their lords and masters? At least was the slavery the people were under within these 20 years. But the public-spirited exertions of Sir J. Sinclair are making rapid improvements in this county, and every where. *Emancipation*, (says Dr Morison, above quoted,) is every where prevailing, and the monster *Feudalism* is hiding his head in shame." *Stat. Acc.* viii. 148.

CAITIFF. *n. f.* [*cattivo*, Ital. a slave; whence came to signify a bad man, with some implication of meanness; as *knave* in English, and *fur* in German; so certainly does slavery destroy virtue.—*ὁ δούλος καὶ ὁ ἀνὴρ ἀποκαίνονται διὰ τοῦτο ἕνα.* *Homer.* A slave and a scoundrel are signified by the same words in many languages.] A mean villain; a despicable knave: it often implies a mixture of wickedness and misery.—

Vile *caitiff*, vassal of dread and despair,
Unworthy of the common breathed air;
Why livest thou, dead dog, a longer day,
And dost not unto death thyself prepare? *Spens.*

'Tis not impossible
But one, the wickedest *caitiff* on the ground
May seem as shy, as grave, as just, as absolute,
As Angelo. *Shakespeare.*

The wretched *caitiff*, all alone,

As he believ'd, began to moan,

And tell his story to himself.

Hudibras.

CAITIFNESS, *n. f. obs.* Slavery. *Chauc.*

CAITISNED, *adj. obs.* Chained. *Chauc.*

CAITIVE, *adj. obs.* Miserable.

(1.) **CAIUS**, a Roman prænomen. See **CAIA**.

(2.) **CAIUS**, Dr John. See **KAYE**.

(1.) * **CAKE**. *n. f.* [*cach*, Teut.] 1. A kind of delicate bread.—You must be seeing christenings? do you look for ale and *cakes* here, you rude rascals? *Shakespeare.*

My *cake* is dough, but I'll in among the rest,

Out of hope of all, but my share of the feast.

Shakespeare.

The dismal day was come, the priests prepare

Their leaven'd *cakes*, and fillets for my hair.

Dryden.

2. Any thing of a form rather flat than high; by which it is sometimes distinguished from a loaf.—

There is a *cake* that groweth upon the side of a dead tree, that hath gotten no name, but it is large and of a chesnut colour, and hard and pithy. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

3. Concreted matter; coagulated matter.—

Then when the fleecy skies new clothe the wood,

And *cakes* of rustling ice come rolling down the flood.

Dryden.

(2.) **CAKES** are of various compositions, such as *seed-cakes*, made of flour, butter, cream, sugar, coriander and caraway seeds, mace, and other spices and perfumes baked in the oven; *plum-cakes*, made much after the same manner, only with fewer seeds, and the addition of currants; *pan-cakes*, made of a mixture of flower, eggs, &c. fried; *cheese-cakes*, made of cream, eggs, and flour, with or without cheese curd, butter, almonds, &c. *oaten-cakes*, made of fine oaten flour, mixed with yeast and sometimes without, rolled thin, and laid on an iron or stone to bake over a slow fire; *sugar-cakes*, made of fine sugar beaten and searced with the finest flour, adding butter, rose-water, and spices; *rose-cakes*, *placenta rosacea*, leaves of roses dried and pressed into a mass, sold in the shops for epithems. The ancient Hebrews had several sorts of cakes, which they offered in the temple. They were made of the meal either of wheat or barley; they were kneaded sometimes with oil and sometimes with honey. Sometimes they only rubbed them over with oil when they were baked, or fried them with oil in a frying pan upon the fire. In the ceremony of Aaron's consecration, cakes unleavened, of fine wheaten flour, tempered with oil, made part of the offering. *Exod.* xxix. 2.

* **To CAKE**. *v. z.* [from the noun.] To harden, as dough in the oven.—This burning matter, as it sunk very leisurely, had time to *cake* together, and form the bottom, which covers the mouth of that dreadful vault that lies underneath it. *Addison on Italy.*

This is that very Mah,

That plaits the manes of horses in the night,

And *cakes* the elflocks in foul sluttish hairs. *Shak.*

He rins'd the wound,

And wash'd away the strings and clotted blood,

That *cak'd* within.

Addison.

C c c c 2

CAKET,

immovable and heavy over the earth. At Palmira the atmosphere had become so stifling, that many people thought part of the town was burning. It was afterwards ascertained, that an unusual heat had affected the skins of several persons just before the shock; the rivers assumed a pearly tinge.

Calabria Ulterior, is one of the 15 provinces of the Kingdom of Naples; and is bounded on the S. by Calabria Inferior, on the N. by Sicily, and on the W. by the sea; Cosenza is the capital.

2. CALABRIA ULTERIOR, or ULTRA-MARE, formerly Calabria, is washed by the Ionian Sea on the E. S. and W. and bounded by Calabria Citerior on the N. Reggio is the capital.

CALABRIANS, the people of **CALABRIA**.

CALABRINI, in botany. See **LONCHITIS**.

CALACINE, or **CALLACHENE**, in ancient geography, an extensive district of Assyria, N. E. of Tigris, and S. of the Gordian mountains of Media.

CALADE, in the manege, the sloping declivity or manege ground, upon which we ride down several times, putting him to a short gallop, with his fore hams in the air, to learn him to stop or bend his haunches, and form his stop upon the aids of the calves of the legs, the stay of the bridle, and the cavesson seasonably given.

CALAE, } a species of Indian tin, which,
CALAEM, or } by force of fire, is transmutable
CALAEMUM, } into ceruss, like that made of lead.

CALAGORINA, or } called also **NASICA**, in
CALAGURIS, } ancient geography, a town of the Vascones in the Hither Spain; now named **CALAHORRA**.

CALAH, an ancient city of Assyria, built soon after the deluge by Ashur; from which the adjacent country was named **CALACINE**.

CALAHORRA, an episcopal town of Spain, in Castile, seated on a fertile soil, on the side of a hill which extends to the banks of the river Ebro. It is 60 m. N. W. of Saragossa. Lon. 2, 7. W. Lat. 42. 12. N.

CALAINUS. See **CALLIMUS**.

1.) **CALAIS**, a strong town of France, in the department of the Straits of Calais, (N. 4.) and the old province of Lower Picardy, with a citadel and a fortified harbour. It is built in the form of a triangle, one side of which is towards the sea. The citadel is as large as the town, and has but one entrance. It is a trading place, with some streets and several churches. The number of inhabitants is reckoned 4000. Calais was taken by Edward III. in 1347. Hither he marched his victorious army from Crecy, and invested the town on the 8th Sept. But finding that it could not be taken by force without the destruction of great multitudes of his men, he turned the siege into a blockade; and having made strong encampments to secure his army from the enemy, and to protect them from the inclemency of the weather, and stationed a fleet before the harbour to prevent the introduction of provisions, he resolved to wait with patience till the place fell into his hands by famine. The besieged, discovering his intention, turned 1700 women, children, and old people, out of the town, to save their provisions; and Edward had the goodness, after entertaining them with a dinner, and giving them 10 pence a piece, to suffer them to pass. The garrison and inhabitants of Calais having at length consumed all their provisions, and even eaten all the horses, dogs, cats, and vermin, in the place, the governor John de Vienne appeared upon the walls, and offered to capitulate. Edward, greatly incensed at their obstinate resistance, which had detained him 11 months under their walls, at an immense expence both of men and money, sent Sir Walter Mauny, an illustrious knight, to acquaint the governor, that he would grant them any terms; but that they must surrender at discretion. At length, however, at the spirited remon-

strances of the governor, and the persuasions of Sir Walter Mauny, Edward consented to grant their lives to all the garrison and inhabitants, except six of the principal burgeses, who should deliver to him the keys of the city, with ropes about their necks. When these terms were made known to the people of Calais, they were plunged into the deepest distress; and after all the miseries they had suffered, they could not think without horror of giving up six of their fellow citizens to certain death. In this extremity, when the whole people were drowned in tears, and uncertain what to do, Eustace de St Pierre, one of the richest merchants in the place, stepped forth, and voluntarily offered himself to be one of the 6 devoted victims. His noble example was soon imitated by other 5 of the most wealthy citizens. These true patriots, barefooted and bareheaded, with ropes about their necks, were attended to the gates by the whole inhabitants, with tears, blessings, and prayers, for their safety. When they were brought into Edward's presence, they laid the keys of the city at his feet, and falling on their knees implored his mercy in such moving strains, that all the noble spectators melted into tears. The king's resentment was so strong for the many losses he had suffered in this tedious siege, that he was in danger of forgetting his usual humanity; when the queen, falling upon her knees before him, earnestly begged and obtained their lives. This excellent princess conducted these virtuous citizens, to her own apartment, entertained them honourably, and dismissed them with presents. Edward took possession of Calais Aug. 4th; and to secure a conquest of so great importance, he found it necessary to turn out all the ancient inhabitants, who had discovered so strong an attachment to their native prince, and to people it with English subjects. Calais remained subject to England till the inglorious reign of queen Mary, when it was retaken by the duke of Guise. This general began to invest Calais, Jan. 1, 1557; and, by various judicious manœuvres, recovered in 8 days, a fortress which cost the victorious Edward III. a whole year's siege, and which had been now 210 years in the possession of the English, without so much as a single attempt to retake it. There are very different accounts given of this matter; Some English historians say, that king Philip penetrating the design of the French upon this fortress, gave notice of it in England, and offered to take the defence of it upon himself; but that this, out of jealousy, was refused, it being believed to be only an artifice, to get a place of such consequence into his own hands. The truth seems to be this: The strength of Calais consisted in its situation and outworks, which required a very numerous garrison; and this being attended with a very large expence, the best part of the troops had been sent to join Philip's army, so that the governor had not above 500 men, and there were not more than 250 of the townsmen able to bear arms. As to ammunition, artillery, and provisions, the French found abundance there, but with so slender a garrison, that it was impossible to make a better defence; and therefore, when lord Wentworth, the governor, was tried by his peers for the loss of the place, he

was acquired. The duke obliged all the English inhabitants to quit Calais; and bestowed the government of it upon des Termes. It was bombarded in 1696 by the English, but with little effect. The fortifications of Calais are good; but its greatest strength is its situation among the marshes, which may be overflowed at the approach of an enemy. The harbour is not so good as formerly, nor will it admit vessels of any great burden. In times of peace, there are packet-boats going twice a week between Dover and Calais. It is 21 m. E. S. E. of Dover and 152 N. of Paris. Lon. 1. 56. E. Lat. 50. 58. N.

(2.) CALAIS, in fabulous history, the twin brother of ZEPHES. They were said to have been the sons of Boreas and Orythia, and to have had wings. They went on the voyage to Colchis with the Argonauts, delivered Phineus from the harpies, and were slain by Hercules.

(3.) CALAIS, ST, a town of France, in the department of Sarte. Lon. 0. 43. E. Lat. 47. 55. N.

(4.) CALAIS, STRAITS OF, a department of France, bounded on the E. by the department of the North; on the S. by that of Somme; on the W. by the British Channel, and on the N. by the Straits of Dover. It is formed partly out of the cèdevant province of Artois, and partly from that of Picardy. Calais, (N. 1.) St Omers, Bethune, Hesdin, Arras, and Bapaume, are its chief towns.

(1.) * CALAMANCO. *n. f.* [a word derived, probably by some accident, from *calamancus*, Lat. which, in the middle ages, signified a hat.] A kind of woollen stuff.—He was of a bulk and stature larger than ordinary, had a red coat, hung open to shew a *calamanco* waistcoat. *Tatler*.

(2.) CALAMANCO is manufactured in England and Brabant. It has a fine gloss; and is checkered in the warp, whence the checks appear only on the right side. Some calamancos are quite plain, others have broad stripes adorned with flowers, some with plain broad stripes, some with narrow stripes, and others watered.

CALAMARIÆ. See BOTANY, *Index*.

CALAMATA, or CALAMETA, a considerable town of European Turkey, in the Morea, and province of Belvedera. It was taken by the Venetians in 1685; but the Turks retook it with all the Morea. It stands on the river Spinarza, 8 miles from the sea. Lon. 28. 15. E. Lat. 37. 8. N.

CALAMBA, or } in commerce, a kind of wood
CALAMBAC, } brought from China, usually
fold under the denomination of AGALLOCHUM,
OR ALOES WOOD.

CALAMIANES, 3 small islands of Asia, between Borneo and the Philippines; remarkable for the birds nests gathered there for food. See BIRDS-NESTS, § 4.

CALAMIFEROUS, *adj.* a denomination given by some to CULMIFEROUS plants.

CALAMINARIS LAPIS. See CALAMINE, § 2.

(1.) * CALAMINE, or *Lapis Calaminaris. n. f.* A kind of fossile bituminous earth, which, being mixed with copper, changes it into brass.—We must not omit those, which, though not so much beauty, yet are of greater use, *viz.* loadstones, whetstones of all kinds, limestones, *calamine*, or *lapis calaminaris*. *Locke*.

(2.) CALAMINE, CALAMY, LAPIS CALAMINARIS, or CADMIA FOSSILIS is a stone or mineral containing zinc, iron, and sometimes other substances. It is considerably heavy, and the more is the better; moderately hard and brittle; of a consistence between stone and earth: the colour is sometimes whitish or grey: sometimes yellowish, or of a deep yellow; sometimes red; sometimes brown or blackish. It is plentiful in several places of Europe, as Hungary, Transylvania, Poland, Spain, Sweden, Bohemia, Saxony, Goslar, France, and England, particularly in Derbyshire, Gloucestershire, Nottinghamshire, and Somersetshire; also in Wales. The calamine of England, however, is by the best judges allowed to be superior in quality to that of most other countries. It seldom lies very deep, being chiefly found in clayey grounds near the surface. In some places it is mixed with lead ores. It is the only true ore of zinc, and is used as an ingredient in making brass. Newmann relates various experiments with this mineral, the only result of which was to show, that it contained iron as well as zinc. The most remarkable are the following. A saturated solution of calamine in the marine acid, concentrated by evaporating part of the liquor, exhibits in the cold an appearance of fine crystals, which on the application of warmth dissolve and disappear. A little of this concentrated solution tinges a large quantity of water of a bright yellow colour; and at the same time deposits by degrees a fine, specky, brownish precipitate. Glue dissolved in this solution, and afterwards inspissated, forms an extremely slippery tenacious mass, which does not become dry, and, were it not too expensive, might be of use for entangling flies, caterpillars, &c. Sulphur boiled in the solution seems to acquire some degree of transparency. This mineral is an article in the materia medica; but, before it comes to the shops, is usually calcined, in order to separate any arsenical or sulphureous matter which in its crude state it is supposed to contain, and to render it more easily reducible into a fine powder. In this state it is employed in collyria against defluxions of thin acrid humours upon the eyes, for drying up the moist running ulcers, and healing excoriations. It is the basis of an official epulotic CERATE. Though the lapis calaminaris is the only native ore of zinc, there is another substance from which that semi-metal is also obtained; called CADMIA FORNACUM. See CADMIA, N. I. § i. 3—5.

(3.) CALAMINE, or CALAMO, in geography, an island in the Archipelago, near the coast of Asia.

(1.) * CALAMINT. *n. f.* [*calamintba*, Lat.] The name of a plant.

(2.) CALAMINT. See MELISSA.

(3.) CALAMINT, WATER. See MENTHA.

CALAMIST. *n. f.* One who plays on a reed.

CALAMISTRUM. See PILULARICA.

(1.) CALAMITA, or CALAMITIS, is used to denote the magnet or loadstone.

(2.) CALAMITA ALBA, in natural history, the name of an earth dug in Spain and Italy, of a hard texture, a white colour, and styptic taste. They pretend that this attracts flesh as the magnet does iron, and thence call it MAGNES CARNEUS.

(3.) CALAMITIS, in natural history, the name given

which by some to the osteocolla, which, when in small pieces, sometimes pretty exactly resembles the barrel of a quill; others have called some of the fossil coralloides by this name, there being frequently in them the resemblance of several hills cemented together, in stone.

(1.) CALAMITIS. See CADMIA, No. 1. § i, 2.

* CALAMITOUS. *adj.* [*calamitosus*, Lat.] 1. Miserable; involved in distress; oppressed with calamity; unhappy; wretched: applied to men. This is a gracious provision God Almighty hath made in favour of the necessitous and *calamitous*; the state of some, in this life, being so extremely wretched and deplorable, if compared with others.

Calam. 2. Full of misery; distressful: applied to external circumstances.—What *calamitous* effects the air of this city wrought upon us the last year, you may read in my discourse of the plague. *Harvey on Consumption.*—

Strict necessity

Subdues me, and *calamitous* constraint!
Lest on my head both sin and punishment,
However insupportable, be all
Devolv'd.

Milton.

Much rather I shall chuse
To live the poorest in my tribe, than richest,
And be in that *calamitous* prison left. *Milton.*
In this sad and *calamitous* condition, deliverance from an oppressor would have even revived them.

* CALAMITOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *calamitous*.] Misery; distress.

CALAMITUS, in old records, a gag for a dog.

* CALAMITY. *n. f.* [*calamitas*, Lat.] 1. Misfortune; cause of misery; distress.—Another ill incident is drought, and the spindling of the corn, which with us is rare, but in hotter countries common; inasmuch as the word *calamity* was derived from *calamus*, when the corn would not get out of the stalk. *Bacon.* 2. Misery; distress.—

This infinite *calamity* shall cause
To human life, and household peace confound.

Milton.

From adverse shores in safety let her hear
Foreign *calamity*, and distant war;
Of which, great heav'n, let her no portion bear.

Prior.

CALAMO. See CALAMINE, No. 3.

(1.) * CALAMUS. *n. f.* [Lat.] A sort of reed or sweet-scented wood, mentioned in scripture with the other ingredients of the sacred perfumes. It is a knotty root, reddish without, and white within, which puts forth long and narrow leaves, and is brought from the Indies. The prophets speak of it as a foreign commodity of great value. These sweet reeds have no smell when they are green, but when they are dry only. Their form differs from other reeds, and their smell is perceived soon entering the marishes. *Calmet.*—Take thou unto thee principal spices of pure myrrh, of sweet cinnamon, and of sweet *calamus*. *Exodus*, ix. 23.

(2.) CALAMUS, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the hexandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 5th order, Tripetaloidæ. The calyx is apophyllous, there is no corolla, the fruit is a

dry monospermous berry, imbricated backwards. There is but one species, viz.

CALAMUS ROTANG. The stem is without branches, has a crown at top, and is every where beset with straight spines. This is the true Indian cane, which is not visible on the outside; but the bark being taken off discovers the smooth stick, which has no marks of spine on the bark, and is exactly like those which the Dutch sell to us, keeping this matter very secret, lest travellers going by should take as many canes out of the woods as they please. Sumatra is said to be the place where most of these sticks grow. Such are to be chosen as are of proper growth between two joints, suitable to the fashionable length of canes as they are then worn; but such are scarce. The *calamus rotang* is one of several plants from which the drug called DRAGON'S BLOOD is obtained.

(3.) CALAMUS, in the ancient poets, denotes a simple kind of pipe, the musical instrument of the shepherds, usually made either of an oaten stalk or a reed.

(4.) CALAMUS, AROMATICUS, or SWEET-SCENTED FLAG, in the materia medica, a species of flag called *acorus* by Linnæus. See No. 1. and ACORUS.

(5.) CALAMUS SCRIPTORIUS, in antiquity, a reed or rush to write with. The ancients made use of styles to write on tables covered with wax; and of reed, or rush, to write on parchment, or Egyptian paper.

(1.) CALAMY, Edmund, an eminent presbyterian divine, born at London in 1600, and educated at Cambridge, where his attachment to the Arminian party excluded him from a fellowship. Dr Felton bishop of Ely, however, made him his chaplain; and, in 1639, he was chosen minister of St Mary Aldermary, in London. Upon the opening of the long parliament, he distinguished himself in defence of the Presbyterian cause; and had a principal hand in writing the famous *Smectymnus*, which he says, gave the first deadly blow to episcopacy. The authors of this tract were 5, the initials of whose names formed the name under which it was published, viz. Stephen Marshall, Edmund Calamy, Thomas Young, Matthew Newcomen, and William Sparstow. He was afterwards an active member in the assembly of divines, was a strenuous opposer of sectaries, and used his utmost endeavours to prevent those violences committed after the king was brought from the isle of Wight. In Cromwell's time, he lived privately, but was assiduous in promoting the king's return; for which he was afterwards offered a bishopric, but refused it. He was ejected for nonconformity in 1662; and died of grief at the sight of the great fire of London, in 1666.

(2, 3.) CALAMY, Edmund, grandson of the preceding, by his eldest son Mr Edmund Calamy, who was ejected out of the living of Moxton in Essex on St Bartholomew's day 1662. He was born in London, April 5th 1671. After having learned the languages, and gone through a course of natural philosophy and logic, at a private academy in England, he studied philosophy and civil law, at the university of Utrecht, and attended the lectures of the learned Grævius. While he resided there, an offer of a professor's chair in the university

the creature easily makes way with it through the
coat or skin that covers the grain, and gets at the
fascia on which it feeds; the inside of the
also the place where the female deposits

the king and council unanimously agreed in and
the capitoul, or chief magistrate of Toulouse,
was degraded and fined; and Calas was declared
to have been innocent; and every step was

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65
66
67
68
69
70
71
72
73
74
75
76
77
78
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
90
91
92
93
94
95
96
97
98
99
100
101
102
103
104
105
106
107
108
109
110
111
112
113
114
115
116
117
118
119
120
121
122
123
124
125
126
127
128
129
130
131
132
133
134
135
136
137
138
139
140
141
142
143
144
145
146
147
148
149
150
151
152
153
154
155
156
157
158
159
160
161
162
163
164
165
166
167
168
169
170
171
172
173
174
175
176
177
178
179
180
181
182
183
184
185
186
187
188
189
190
191
192
193
194
195
196
197
198
199
200
201
202
203
204
205
206
207
208
209
210
211
212
213
214
215
216
217
218
219
220
221
222
223
224
225
226
227
228
229
230
231
232
233
234
235
236
237
238
239
240
241
242
243
244
245
246
247
248
249
250
251
252
253
254
255
256
257
258
259
260
261
262
263
264
265
266
267
268
269
270
271
272
273
274
275
276
277
278
279
280
281
282
283
284
285
286
287
288
289
290
291
292
293
294
295
296
297
298
299
300
301
302
303
304
305
306
307
308
309
310
311
312
313
314
315
316
317
318
319
320
321
322
323
324
325
326
327
328
329
330
331
332
333
334
335
336
337
338
339
340
341
342
343
344
345
346
347
348
349
350
351
352
353
354
355
356
357
358
359
360
361
362
363
364
365
366
367
368
369
370
371
372
373
374
375
376
377
378
379
380
381
382
383
384
385
386
387
388
389
390
391
392
393
394
395
396
397
398
399
400
401
402
403
404
405
406
407
408
409
410
411
412
413
414
415
416
417
418
419
420
421
422
423
424
425
426
427
428
429
430
431
432
433
434
435
436
437
438
439
440
441
442
443
444
445
446
447
448
449
450
451
452
453
454
455
456
457
458
459
460
461
462
463
464
465
466
467
468
469
470
471
472
473
474
475
476
477
478
479
480
481
482
483
484
485
486
487
488
489
490
491
492
493
494
495
496
497
498
499
500
501
502
503
504
505
506
507
508
509
510
511
512
513
514
515
516
517
518
519
520
521
522
523
524
525
526
527
528
529
530
531
532
533
534
535
536
537
538
539
540
541
542
543
544
545
546
547
548
549
550
551
552
553
554
555
556
557
558
559
560
561
562
563
564
565
566
567
568
569
570
571
572
573
574
575
576
577
578
579
580
581
582
583
584
585
586
587
588
589
590
591
592
593
594
595
596
597
598
599
600
601
602
603
604
605
606
607
608
609
610
611
612
613
614
615
616
617
618
619
620
621
622
623
624
625
626
627
628
629
630
631
632
633
634
635
636
637
638
639
640
641
642
643
644
645
646
647
648
649
650
651
652
653
654
655
656
657
658
659
660
661
662
663
664
665
666
667
668
669
670
671
672
673
674
675
676
677
678
679
680
681
682
683
684
685
686
687
688
689
690
691
692
693
694
695
696
697
698
699
700
701
702
703
704
705
706
707
708
709
710
711
712
713
714
715
716
717
718
719
720
721
722
723
724
725
726
727
728
729
730
731
732
733
734
735
736
737
738
739
740
741
742
743
744
745
746
747
748
749
750
751
752
753
754
755
756
757
758
759
760
761
762
763
764
765
766
767
768
769
770
771
772
773
774
775
776
777
778
779
780
781
782
783
784
785
786
787
788
789
790
791
792
793
794
795
796
797
798
799
800
801
802
803
804
805
806
807
808
809
810
811
812
813
814
815
816
817
818
819
820
821
822
823
824
825
826
827
828
829
830
831
832
833
834
835
836
837
838
839
840
841
842
843
844
845
846
847
848
849
850
851
852
853
854
855
856
857
858
859
860
861
862
863
864
865
866
867
868
869
870
871
872
873
874
875
876
877
878
879
880
881
882
883
884
885
886
887
888
889
890
891
892
893
894
895
896
897
898
899
900
901
902
903
904
905
906
907
908
909
910
911
912
913
914
915
916
917
918
919
920
921
922
923
924
925
926
927
928
929
930
931
932
933
934
935
936
937
938
939
940
941
942
943
944
945
946
947
948
949
950
951
952
953
954
955
956
957
958
959
960
961
962
963
964
965
966
967
968
969
970
971
972
973
974
975
976
977
978
979
980
981
982
983
984
985
986
987
988
989
990
991
992
993
994
995
996
997
998
999
1000
1001
1002
1003
1004
1005
1006
1007
1008
1009
1010
1011
1012
1013
1014
1015
1016
1017
1018
1019
1020
1021
1022
1023
1024
1025
1026
1027
1028
1029
1030
1031
1032
1033
1034
1035
1036
1037
1038
1039
1040
1041
1042
1043
1044
1045
1046
1047
1048
1049
1050
1051
1052
1053
1054
1055
1056
1057
1058
1059
1060
1061
1062
1063
1064
1065
1066
1067
1068
1069
1070
1071
1072
1073
1074
1075
1076
1077
1078
1079
1080
1081
1082
1083
1084
1085
1086
1087
1088
1089
1090
1091
1092
1093
1094
1095
1096
1097
1098
1099
1100
1101
1102
1103
1104
1105
1106
1107
1108
1109
1110
1111
1112
1113
1114
1115
1116
1117
1118
1119
1120
1121
1122
1123
1124
1125
1126
1127
1128
1129
1130
1131
1132
1133
1134
1135
1136
1137
1138
1139
1140
1141
1142
1143
1144
1145
1146
1147
1148
1149
1150
1151
1152
1153
1154
1155
1156
1157
1158
1159
1160
1161
1162
1163
1164
1165
1166
1167
1168
1169
1170
1171
1172
1173
1174
1175
1176
1177
1178
1179
1180
1181
1182
1183
1184
1185
1186
1187
1188
1189
1190
1191
1192
1193
1194
1195
1196
1197
1198
1199
1200
1201
1202
1203
1204
1205
1206
1207
1208
1209
1210
1211
1212
1213
1214
1215
1216
1217
1218
1219
1220
1221
1222
1223
1224
1225
1226
1227
1228
1229
1230
1231
1232
1233
1234
1235
1236
1237
1238
1239
1240
1241
1242
1243
1244
1245
1246
1247
1248
1249
1250
1251
1252
1253
1254
1255
1256
1257
1258
1259
1260
1261
1262
1263
1264
1265
1266
1267
1268
1269
1270
1271
1272
1273
1274
1275
1276
1277
1278
1279
1280
1281
1282
1283
1284
1285
1286
1287
1288
1289
1290
1291
1292
1293
1294
1295
1296
1297
1298
1299
1300
1301
1302
1303
1304
1305
1306
1307
1308
1309
1310
1311
1312
1313
1314
1315
1316
1317
1318
1319
1320
1321
1322
1323
1324
1325
1326
1327
1328
1329
1330
1331
1332
1333
1334
1335
1336
1337
1338
1339
1340
1341
1342
1343
1344
1345
1346
1347
1348
1349
1350
1351
1352
1353
1354
1355
1356
1357
1358
1359
1360
1361
1362
1363
1364
1365
1366
1367
1368
1369
1370
1371
1372
1373
1374
1375
1376
1377
1378
1379
1380
1381
1382
1383
1384
1385
1386
1387
1388
1389
1390
1391
1392
1393
1394
1395
1396
1397
1398
1399
1400
1401
1402
1403
1404
1405
1406
1407
1408
1409
1410
1411
1412
1413
1414
1415
1416
1417
1418
1419
1420
1421
1422
1423
1424
1425
1426
1427
1428
1429
1430
1431
1432
1433
1434
1435
1436
1437
1438
1439
1440
1441
1442
1443
1444
1445
1446
1447
1448
1449
1450
1451
1452
1453
1454
1455
1456
1457
1458
1459
1460
1461
1462
1463
1464
1465
1466
1467
1468
1469
1470
1471
1472
1473
1474
1475
1476
1477
1478
1479
1480
1481
1482
1483
1484
1485
1486
1487
1488
1489
1490
1491
1492
1493
1494
1495
1496
1497
1498
1499
1500
1501
1502
1503
1504
1505
1506
1507
1508
1509
1510
1511
1512
1513
1514
1515
1516
1517
1518
1519
1520
1521
1522
1523
1524
1525
1526
1527
1528
1529
1530
1531
1532
1533
1534
1535
1536
1537
1538
1539
1540
1541
1542
1543
1544
1545
1546
1547
1548
1549
1550
1551
1552
1553
1554
1555
1556
1557
1558
1559
1560
1561
1562
1563
1564
1565
1566
1567
1568
1569
1570
1571
1572
1573
1574
1575
1576
1577
1578
1579
1580
1581
1582
1583
1584
1585
1586
1587
1588
1589
1590
1591
1592
1593
1594
1595
1596
1597
1598
1599
1600
1601
1602
1603
1604
1605
1606
1607
1608
1609
1610
1611
1612
1613
1614
1615
1616
1617
1618
1619
1620
1621
1622
1623
1624
1625
1626
1627
1628
1629
1630
1631
1632
1633
1634
1635
1636
1637
1638
1639
1640
1641
1642
1643
1644
1645
1646
1647
1648
1649
1650
1651
1652
1653
1654
1655
1656
1657
1658
1659
1660
1661
1662
1663
1664
1665
1666
1667
1668
1669
1670
1671
1672
1673
1674
1675
1676
1677
1678
1679
1680
1681
1682
1683
1684
1685
1686
1687
1688
1689
1690
1691
1692
1693
1694
1695
1696
1697
1698
1699
1700
1701
1702
1703
1704
1705
1706
1707
1708
1709
1710
1711
1712
1713
1714
1715
1716
1717
1718
1719
1720
1721
1722
1723
1724
1725
1726
1727
1728
1729
1730
1731
1732
1733
1734
1735
1736
1737
1738
1739
1740
1741
1742
1743
1744
1745
1746
1747
1748
1749
1750
1751
1752
1753
1754
1755
1756
1757
1758
1759
1760
1761
1762
1763
1764
1765
1766
1767
1768
1769
1770
1771
1772
1773
1774
1775
1776
1777
1778
1779
1780
1781
1782
1783
1784
1785
1786
1787
1788
1789
1790
1791
1792
1793
1794
1795
1796
1797
1798
1799
1800
1801
1802
1803
1804
1805
1806
1807
1808
1809
1810
1811
1812
1813
1814
1815
1816
1817
1818
1819
1820
1821
1822
1823
1824
1825
1826
1827
1828
1829
1830
1831
1832
1833
1834
1835
1836
1837
1838
1839
1840
1841
1842
1843
1844
1845
1846
1847
1848
1849
1850
1851
1852
1853
1854
1855
1856
1857
1858
1859
1860
1861
1862
1863
1864
1865
1866
1867
1868
1869
1870
1871
1872
1873
1874
1875
1876
1877
1878
1879
1880
1881
1882
1883
1884
1885
1886
1887
1888
1889
1890
1891
1892
1893
1894
1895
1896
1897
1898
1899
1900
1901
1902
1903
1904
1905
1906
1907
1908
1909
1910
1911
1912
1913
1914
1915
1916
1917
1918
1919
1920
1921
1922
1923
1924
1925
1926
1927
1928
1929
1930
1931
1932
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
1938
1939
1940
1941
1942
1943
1944
1945
1946
1947
1948
1949
1950
1951
1952
1953
1954
1955
1956
1957
1958
1959
1960
1961
1962
1963
1964
1965
1966
1967
1968
1969
1970
1971
1972
1973
1974
1975
1976
1977
1978
1979
1980
1981
1982
1983
1984
1985
1986
1987
1988
1989
1990
1991
1992
1993
1994
1995
1996
1997
1998
1999
2000
2001
2002
2003
2004
2005
2006
2007
2008
2009
2010
2011
2012
2013
2014
2015
2016
2017
2018
2019
2020
2021
2022
2023
2024
2025
2026
2027
2028
2029
2030
2031
2032
2033
2034
2035
2036
2037
2038
2039
2040
2041
2042
2043
2044
2045
2046
2047
2048
2049
2050
2051
2052
2053
2054
2055
2056
2057
2058
2059
2060
2061
2062
2063
2064
2065
2066
2067
2068
2069
2070
2071
2072
2073
2074
2075
2076
2077
2078
2079
2080
2081
2082
2083
2084
2085
2086
2087
2088
2089
2090
2091
2092
2093
2094
2095
2096
2097
2098
2099
2100
2101
2102
2103
2104
2105
2106
2107
2108
2109
2110
2111
2112
2113
2114
2115
2116
2117
2118
2119
2120
2121
2122
2123
2124
2125
2126
2127
2128
2129
2130
2131
2132
2133
2134
2135
2136
2137
2138
2139
2140
2141
2142
2143
2144
2145
2146
2147
2148
2149
2150
2151
2152
2153
2154
2155
2156
2157
2158
2159
2160
2161
2162
2163
2164
2165
2166
2167
2168
2169
2170
2171
2172
2173
2174
2175
2176
2177
2178
2179
2180
2181
2182
2183
2184
2185
2186
2187
2188
2189
2190
2191
2192
2193
2194
2195
2196
2197
2198
2199
2200
2201
2202
2203
2204
2205
2206
2207
2208
2209
2210
2211
2212
2213
2214
2215
2216
2217
2218

guilt was removed from the family, who also received from the king and clergy considerable gratuities.

(1.) * **CALASH**, *n. f.* [*caleche*, Fr.] A small carriage of pleasure.—

Daniel, a sprightly swain, that us'd to flash
The vigorous steeds, that drew his lord's *calash*.

King.

—The ancients used *calashest*, the figures of several of them being to be seen on ancient monuments. They are very simple, light, and drove by the traveller himself. *Arbutnot on Coins.*

(2.) **CALASH**, or **CALESH**, is made with very low wheels, and is for the most part richly decorated, and open on all sides for the convenience of the air and prospect, or at most inclosed with light mantlets of wax-cloth to be opened and shut at pleasure. In the Philosophical Transactions there is a description of a new sort of calash going on two wheels, not hung on traces, yet easier than the common coaches, over which it has this further advantage, that whereas a common coach will overturn if one wheel go on a surface a foot and an half higher than the other, this will admit of a difference of $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet without danger of overturning. It also turns over and over; that is, after the spokes being so turned, that they are parallel to the horizon, and one wheel flat over the head of him that rides in it, and the other flat under him, it will turn once more, by which the wheels are placed *in situ quo*, without any disorder to the horse or rider.

CALASIO, Marius, a Franciscan, and professor of Hebrew at Rome. He published there, in 1621, a concordance of the Bible, which consisted of 4 great volumes in folio. This work has been highly approved and commended both by Protestants and Papists, and is indeed a most admirable work. For besides the Hebrew words in the Bible, which are in the body of the book, with the Latin version over against them; there are, in the margin, the differences between the septuagint version and the vulgate; so that at one view may be seen wherein the 3 Bibles agree, and wherein they differ. Moreover, at the beginning of every article there is a kind of dictionary, which gives the signification of each Hebrew word; affords an opportunity of comparing it with other oriental languages; viz. with the Syriac, Arabic, and Chaldee; and is extremely useful for determining more exactly the true meaning of the Hebrew words.

CALASIRIS, or } in antiquity, a linen tunic
CALASSIS, } fringed at the bottom, and worn by the Egyptians under a white woollen garment: which last they pulled off when they entered the temples, being only allowed to appear there in linen.

CALATA-FIMI, a town of Sicily in the valley of Mazara.

CALATA-GIRONA, a town of Sicily seated on a craggy mountain, in the valley of Noto, near the river Drillo.

CALATAJUD, or } a large and handsome
CALATAJUND, } town of Spain, in the kingdom of Arragon; situated at the confluence of the rivers Xalon and Xiloca, at the end of a

very fertile valley, with a good castle on a rock. Long. 2. 9. W. Lat. 41. 22. N.

CALATA-NICETTA, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Noto, seated on a mountain, near the river Salso.

CALATA-XIBETO, a town of Sicily, in Noto, seated among the mountains, near the source of the river Ditana.

(1.) **CALATHUS**, in antiquity, a kind of hand basket made of light wood or rushes; used by the women sometimes to gather flowers, but chiefly, after the example of Minerva, to put their work in. The figure of the calathus, as represented on ancient monuments, is narrow at the bottom, and widening upwards like that of a top. Pliny compares it to that of a lily. The Calathus or work basket of Minerva is no less celebrated among the poets than her distaff.

(2.) **CALATHUS** was also the name of a cup for wine used in sacrifices.

CALATIA. See **CAJAZZO**.

CALATOR, [from *καλεω*, to call,] in antiquity, a cryer, appointed to publish any thing aloud, or call the people together. Such ministers the pontifices had, whom they used to send before them, when they went to sacrifice on holidays, to advertise the people to leave off work. The magistrates also used *calatores*, to call the people to the comitia, *curiata centuriata*. The officers in the army also had *calatores*; as had also many private families, to invite their guests to entertainments.

(1.) **CALATRAVA**, a city of Spain in New Castile, situated on the river Guadiana, 45 miles S. of Toledo. Lon. 4. 20. W. Lat. 39. 6. N.

(2.) **CALATRAVA, KNIGHTS OF**, a military order in Spain, instituted under Sancho III. king of Castile, upon the following occasion. When that prince took the strong fort of Calatrava from the moors of Andalusia, he gave it to the templars, who, wanting courage to defend it, returned it to him again. Then Don Raymond, of the order of Cistercians, accompanied with several persons of quality, made an offer to defend the place, which the king thereupon delivered up to them, and instituted that order. It increased so much under the reign of Alfonso, that the knights desired to have a grand master, which was granted. Ferdinand and Isabella afterwards, with the consent of pope Innocent VIII. re-united the grand-mastership of Calatrava to the Spanish crown; so that the kings of Spain are now become perpetual administrators thereof. The knights of Calatrava bear a cross gules, flower-devised with green, &c. Their rule and habit was originally that of the Cistercians.

CALATUM, the ancient name of **TADCASTER**;
GALAUREA, an epithet of Diana.

CALAURIA, in ancient geography, an island of Greece in the Saronic bay, over against the port of Troezen, at the distance of 40 stadia. Hither Demosthenes went twice into banishment; and here he died. Neptune was said to have accepted this island from Apollo in exchange for Delos. The city stood on a high ridge nearly in the middle of the island, commanding an extensive view of the gulph and its coasts. There was

his holy temple. The priestess was a virgin, who was dismissed when marriageable. Seven of the cities near the island held a congress at it, and sacrificed jointly to the deity. Athens, Ægina, and Epidaurus were of this number, with Nauplia, for which place Argos contributed. The Macedonians, when they had reduced Greece, were afraid to violate the sanctuary, by forcing from it the fugitives, his suppliants. Antipater commanded his general to bring away the orators, who had offended him, alive; but Demosthenes could not be prevailed on to surrender. His monument remained in the 2d century, within the inclosure of the temple. The city of Calauria has been long abandoned. Traces of buildings, and of ancient walls, appear nearly level with the ground; and some stones, in their places, each with a seat and back, forming a little circle, once perhaps a bath. The temple, which was of the Doric order, and not large, as may be inferred from the fragments, is reduced to an inconsiderable heap of ruins. The island is now called Poro.

CALaurITIS, in the ancient materia medica, a sort of litharge, brought from Calauria.

CALBARI, or } the name of, 1. a river; 2. a

CALBARY, } territory; and 3. a village of Africa, in the kingdom of Benin.

CALBEN, a town of Germany, in the old march of Brandenburg, between Domitz and Magdeburg, 32 m. from each. It has a good castle.

CALBENDRA, a town in Cornwall, near Tregony.

CALCADA, or **SANTO DOMINGO DE LA CALCADA**, a town of Spain in old Castile, seated at the foot of a mountain, near Laglera, in a fruitful valley, 48 m. E. of Burgos. Lon. 3. 12. W. Lat. 42. 36. N.

CALCADIS, in the materia medica, a name given by the Arabians to white vitriol.

CALCAGIUM, in middle age writers, a tax paid towards making or repairing a common causeway.

CALCANEUM, } or **CALCAR**, the OS CAL-
CALCANEUS, } CIS, or heel bone. See **ANATOMY**, § 160.

CALCANTHUM, red vitriol. See **VITRIOL**.

(1.) **CALCAR**, a very strong town of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, and duchy of Cleves. It belongs to the king of Prussia, and is seated near the Rhine. Lon. 5. 41. E. Lat. 51. 45. N.

(2.) **CALCAR**, in anatomy. See **CALCANEUM**.

(3.) **CALCAR**, in glass-making, a small oven, or reverberatory furnace, in which the first calcination of sand and salt of potashes is made for the turning them into what is called FRIT. This furnace is made in the fashion of an oven 10 feet long, 7 broad in the widest part, and 2 deep. On one side of it is a trench six inches square, the upper part of which is level with the calcar, and separated only from it at the mouth by bricks 9 inches wide. Into this trench they put sea coal, the flame of which is carried into every part of the furnace, and is reverberated from the roof under the frit, over the surface of which the smoke is black, and goes out at the mouth of the

calcar; the coals burn on iron grates, and the ashes fall through.

(4.) **CALCAR**, John DE, a celebrated painter, was the disciple of Titian, and perfected himself by studying Raphael. Among other pieces he drew a nativity, representing the angels around the infant Jesus; and so ordered the disposition of his picture, that the light all proceeds from the child. He died at Naples, in 1546, in the flower of his age. He designed the anatomical figure of Vesal, and the portraits of the painters of Venice.

CALCAREOUS, *adj.* partaking of the nature and qualities of CALX or lime.

CALCAREUS LAPIS, lime-stone. See **CALX**.

CALCEA, in old records, a road made with stones.

CALCEARIUM, in antiquity, a largess bestowed on Roman soldiers for buying shoes. In monasteries, *calcearium* denoted the daily service of cleaning the shoes of the religious.

CALCEATA, in old records, a causeway.

* **CALCEATED**, *adj.* [*calceatus*, Lat.] Shod; fitted with shoes.

CALCEDEN, a town in Warwickshire, near Coventry.

CALCEDON. See **CHALCEDON**.

CALCEDONIANS, a denomination given by Coptic writers to the MELCHITES, on account of their adherence to the council of Calcedon. See **COPHTI**, **MONOPHYSITES**, &c.

(1.) * **CALCEDONIUS**, *n. f.* [Lat.] A kind of precious stone.—*Calcedonius* is of the agate kind, and of a misty grey, clouded with blue, or with purple. Woodward on Fossils.

(2.) **CALCEDONIUS LAPIS**. See **CHALCEDONY**.

(3.) **CALCEDONIUS**, or **CALCEDON**, is also a term used by the jewellers for a defect in some precious stones; when, in turning them, they find white spots, or stains, like those of the calcedon. This defect is frequent in granates and rubies. The lapidaries usually remedy it by hollowing the bottom of the stone.

CALCEDONY. See **CHALCEDONY**.

CALCENA, a term used by some medical writers for a morbid tartareous humour in the body.

CALCEOLUS, in botany, the name given by Tournefort to the lady's slipper. See **CYCLAPEDIUM**.

CALCEOLARIA, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the diandria class of plants. The corolla is ringent and inflated; the capsule has two cells, and two valves; the calyx is four-parted and equal.

CALCETUM, in old records, a causeway.

CALCHACCA, a name given by some botanists to the **CASSIA LIGNEA**. See **LAURUS**.

CALCHAS, in fabulous history, a famous diviner, who followed the Greek army to Troy. He foretold that the siege would last ten years; and that the fleet, which was detained in the port of Aulis by contrary winds, would not sail till Agamemnon's daughter had been sacrificed to Diana. After the taking of Troy, he retired to Calophon; where, it is said, he died of grief, because he could not divine what another of his profession, called Mopsus, had discovered.

CALCHOCRUM, in botany, a name by which some authors call the **FUMARIA** or **FUMITORY**.

CALCIOPHONOS LAPIS, among the ancients, a name given to a stone of a black colour, and considerable hardness, which, when cut into thin plates, and struck against by any other hard body, gave a sound like that of brass: it seems to have been one of the hard black marbles.

CALCIFRAGA, in botany, a name given by authors to *sampshire*, and sea fennel. See **CRITH- IUM**.

CALCIFRAGUS, *i. e.* *stone-breaking*, an appellation given by some to the **SCOLOPENDRIUM**; by others to pimpernel, on account of their lithontriptic quality. See **ANAGALLIS**.

* **To CALCINATE**. See **To CALCINE**. In hardening, by baking without melting, the heat at these degrees; first, it induratheth, then maketh fragile, and, lastly it doth *calcinate*. *Bacon's Natural History*.

(1.) * **CALCINATION**. *n. f.* [from *calcine*; *calcination*, Fr.] Such a management of bodies by fire, as renders them reducible to powder; therefore it is called chymical pulverization. This is the next degree of the power of fire beyond that of fusion; for when fusion is longer continued, not only the more subtile particles of the body itself fly off, but the particles of fire likewise imminute themselves in such multitudes, and are so blended through its whole substance, that the fluidity, first caused by the fire, can no longer subsist. From this union arises a third kind of body, which, being very porous and brittle, is easily reduced to powder; for, the fire having penetrated every where into the pores of the body, the particles are both hindered from mutual contact, and divided into minute atoms. *Quincy*.—Divers residences of bodies are thrown away, as soon as the distillation or *calcination* of the body that yieldeth them is ended. *Boyle*.—This may be effected, but not without a *calcination*, or reducing it by art into a subtile powder. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*.

(2.) **CALCINATION**. See **CHEMISTRY**, *Index*. **CALCINATO**, a town of Italy, in Mantua, memorable for a victory gained over the Imperials by the French in 1706. Lon. 9. 55. E. Lat. 45. 35. N.

* **CALCINATORY**. *n. f.* [from *calcinate*.] A vessel used in calcination.

(1.) * **To CALCINE**. *v. a.* [*calciner*, Fr. from *calx*, Lat.] 1. To burn in the fire to a calx, or friable substance. See **CALCINATION**.—The solid bodies seem to be earth, bound together with some oil; for if a bone be *calcined*, so as the least force will crumble it, being emersed in oil, it will grow firm again. *Arbutnot on Aliments*. 2. To burn up.—

Fiery disputes that union have *calcin'd*,
Almost as many minds as men we find. *Denham*.

(2.) * **To CALCINE**. *v. n.* To become a calx by heat.—This chrysal is a pellucid fissile stone, clear as water, and without colour, enduring a red heat without losing its transparency, and, in a very strong heat, *calcining* without fusion. *Newton's Opticks*.

CALCIS OS. See **ANATOMY**, § 160.
CALCITRAPA, and } in botany, synonymes
CALCITRAPOIDES, } of the **CENTAUREA**.
CALCOGRAPHIST, *n. f.* an engraver on brass.

CALCOGRAPHY, *n. f.* [from *calamus*, *brush*, and *grapho*, to write,] the art of writing on brass.

CALCUA. See **ATREBATES**, N. 2.

CALCULARII, in antiquity, a sort of jugglers who practised slight of hand. Their art consisted in laying several calculi, or counters on the table, then covering them with cups, and shifting and changing them with dexterity, like what is practised by our jugglers.

CALCULARY, a congeries of little strong knots dispersed through the whole parenchyma of a pear. The calculary is most observed in rough-tasted or choke-pears. The knots lie more contiguous and compact together towards the pear, where they surround the **ACETARY**. About the stalks they stand more distant; but towards the cork, or stool of the flower, they still grow closer, and there at last gather into the firmness of a plumb stone. The calculary is no essential part, but rather a disease of the fruit; the several knots whereof it consists being only so many concretions or precipitations out of the sap, as we see in urines, wines, and other liquors.

(1.) * **To CALCULATE**. *v. a.* [*calculator*, Fr. from *calculus*, Lat. a little stone or bead, used in operations of numbers.] 1. To compute; to reckon: as, he *calculates* his expences. 2. To compute the situation of the planets at any certain time.—

A cunning man did *calculate* my birth,
And told me that by water I should die.

Shakef. Hen. VI.

Why all these fires, why all these gliding
ghosts,

Why old men fools, and children *calculate*,

Why all these things change from their ordinance?
Shakef.

—Who were there then in the world, to observe the births of those first men, and *calculate* their nativities, as they sprawled out of ditches? *Bentley*.

3. To adjust; to project for any certain end.—The reasonableness of religion clearly appears, as it tends so directly to the happiness of men, and is, upon all accounts, *calculated* for our benefit. *Tillotson*.

(2.) * **To CALCULATE**. *v. n.* To make a computation.

(1.) * **CALCULATION**. *n. f.* [from *calculate*.] 1. A practice, or manner of reckoning; the art of numbering.—Cypher, that great friend to *calculation*; or rather, which changeth *calculation* into easy computation. *Holder on Time*. 2. A reckoning; the result of arithmetical operation.—If then their *calculation* be true, for so they reckon. *Hooker*.—Being different from *calculations* of the ancients, their observations confirm not ours. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*.

(2.) **CALCULATION**, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) See **ARITHMETIC**.

(3.) **CALCULATION** is particularly used for the computations in astronomy and geometry, for making tables of logarithms, ephemerides, finding the time of eclipses, &c. See **ASTRONOMY**, **GEOMETRY**, and **LOGARITHMS**.

(1.) * **CALCULATOR**. *n. f.* [from *calculate*.] A computer; a reckoner.

(2.) **CALCULATOR** is also a name given to Mr Ferguson's Orrery. See **ASTRONOMY**, *Index*.

CALCULATORES. See **CALCULUS**, § 2.

* **CALCULATORY.** *adj.* [from *calculate*.] Belonging to calculation.

* **CALCULE.** *n. f.* [*calculus*, Lat.] Reckoning; compute: obsolete.—The general *calcule*, which was made in the last perambulation, exceeding eight millions. *Howel's Vocal Forest*.

CALCULONES, computists. See **CALCULUS**, § 2.

* **CALCULOSE.** } *adj.* [from *calculus*, Lat.]

* **CALCULOUS.** } Stony; gritty.—The volatile salt of urine will coagulate spirits of wine; and thus, perhaps, the stones, or *calculose* concretions in the kidney or bladder, may be produced. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*.—I have found, by opening the kidneys of a *calculous* person, that the stone is formed earlier than I have suggested *Sharp*.

(1.) * **CALCULUS.** *n. f.* [Lat.] The stone in the bladder.

(2.) **CALCULUS**, in antiquity, [*i. e.* a little stone or pebble,] was used in making computations, taking suffrages, playing at tables, and the like. In after times, pieces of ivory, and counters struck of silver, gold, &c. were used in lieu thereof, but still retaining the ancient names. Computists were by the lawyers called **CALCULONES**, when they were either slaves or newly freed men; those of a better condition were named **CALCULATORES** or **NUMERARII**: ordinarily there was one of these in each family of distinction. The Roman judges anciently gave their opinions by calculi, which were white for absolution, and black for condemnation. Hence **CALCULUS ALBUS**, in ancient writers, denotes a favourable vote, either in a person to be absolved and acquitted of a charge, or elected to some dignity or post; as **CALCULUS NIGER** did the contrary. This usage is said to have been borrowed from the Thracians, who marked their happy or prosperous days by *white*, and their unhappy by *black*, pebbles, put each night into an urn. Besides the diversity of colour, there were some calculi also which had characters engraven on them, as those which were in use in taking the suffrages in the senate and at assemblies of the people. These calculi were made of thin wood, polished and covered over with wax. Their form is still seen in some medals of the *Cassian* family; and the manner of casting them into the urns, in the medals of the *Licinian* family. The letters marked upon these calculi were A, V.R—C, or N.L. See A, § 3. Calculus is also used in ancient grammatic writers for a kind of weight equal to two grains of cicer. Some make it equivalent to the *siliqua*, which is equal to 3 grains of barley. Two calculi made the *CEXATIUM*.

(3.) **CALCULUS**, in medicine, implies a stone either in the kidneys or bladder: calculus in the bladder (§ 1.) is called **LITHIASIS**; and in the kidneys, **NEPHRITIS**. See **MEDICINE** and **SURGERY**. Human calculi are commonly formed of different strata or incrustations; sometimes smooth and heavy like mineral stones; but oftener rough, spongy, light, and full of inequalities or protuberances: chemically analysed, or distilled in an open fire, they nearly yield the same principles as
 * If, or at least an empyreumatic volatile matter, together with a great deal of air.

They never have naturally, any foreign matter for a basis, but they may by accident; an instance of which is related by Dr Percival. A bougie had unfortunately slipped into the bladder, and upon it a stone of a considerable size was formed in less than a year. This stone had so much the appearance of chalk, that the Doctor was induced to try whether it could be converted into quicklime. His experiment succeeded, both with that and some other calculi; from which he conjectured, that hard waters which contain calcareous earth may contribute towards the formation of these calculi. Dr Beddoe, in his *Observ. on the Nature and cure of Calculus*, &c. (p. 9, 10.) recommends the following formula as “extremely beneficial in calculous complaints;” and adds “that it may, without injury be taken in very large quantities, and continued for a great length of time.—Take nitre or sal sodæ in crystals; pound it coarsely, and expose it to a warm dry air, till it entirely crumbles into a white powder: make this powder into pills with a quantity of soap, rather more than equal to the weight of the calcined alkali.”

(4.) **CALCULUS ALBUS.** See § 2.

(5.) **CALCULUS DIFFERENTIALIS** is a method of differencing quantities, or of finding an infinitely small quantity, which being taken infinite times, shall be equal to a given quantity; or, it is the arithmetic of the infinitely small differences of variable quantities.—The foundation of this calculus is an infinitely small quantity, or an infinitesimal, which is a portion of a quantity incomparable to that quantity, or that is less than any assignable one, and therefore accounted as nothing; the error accruing by omitting it being less than any assignable one. Hence two quantities, only differing by an infinitesimal, are reputed equal. Thus, in astronomy, the diameter of the earth is an infinitesimal, in respect of the distance of the fixed stars; and the same holds of abstract quantities. The term, infinitesimal, therefore, is merely relative, and involves a relation to another quantity; and does not denote any real *ens*, or being. Now infinitesimals are called *differentials*, or *differential quantities*, when they are considered as the differences of two quantities. Sir Isaac Newton calls them *moments*: considering them as the momentary increments of quantities, *e. g.* of a line generated by the flux of a point, or of a surface by the flux of a line. The differential calculus, therefore, and the doctrine of fluxions, are the same thing under different names; the former given by M. Leibnitz, and the latter by Sir Isaac Newton: each of whom lay claim to the discovery. There is, indeed, a difference in the manner of expressing the quantities resulting from the different views wherein the two authors consider the infinitesimals; the one as moments, the other as differences: Leibnitz, and most foreigners, express the differentials of quantities by the same letters as variable ones, only prefixing the letter *d*: thus the differential of *x* is called *d x*; and that of *y*, *d y*: now *d x* is a positive quantity, if *x* continually increase; negative, if it decrease. The English, with Sir Isaac Newton, instead of *d x* write *x* (with a dot over it;) for *d y*, *y*, &c. which foreigners object against, on account of that confusion of points which they imagine

Imagine arises when differentials are again differenced; besides that the printers are more apt to overlook a point than a letter. The rules for differencing quantities are the very same as those for finding their fluxions. See FLUXIONS.

(6.) CALCULUS EXPONENTIALIS is a method of differencing exponential quantities, or of finding and summing up the differentials or moments of exponential quantities; or at least bringing them to geometrical constructions.—By exponential quantity, is here understood a power, whose exponent is variable; e. g. x^x , a^x , x^y , where the exponent x does not denote the same in all the points of a curve, but in some stands for 2, in others for 3, in others for 5, &c.—To difference an exponential quantity; is the same problem as to find its fluxion. See FLUXIONS.

(7.) CALCULUS INTEGRALIS, or SUMMATORIUS, is a method of integrating, or summing up moments, or differential quantities; i. e. from a differential quantity given, to find the quantity from whose differencing the differential results.—The integral calculus, therefore, is the inverse of the differential one: and is similar to the *inverse method of fluxions*, the rules of which also apply to the *calculus integralis*. See FLUXIONS.

(8.) CALCULUS LITERALIS, or LITERAL CALCULUS, is the same with specious arithmetic, or ALGEBRA, so called from its using the letters of the alphabet; in contradistinction to numeral arithmetic, which uses figures. See ALGEBRA.

(9.) CALCULUS MINERVÆ, among the ancient lawyers, denoted the decision of a cause, wherein the judges were equally divided. The expression taken from the history of Orestes, represented by Æschylus and Euripides; at whose trial, before the Areopagites, for the murder of his mother, the votes being equally divided for and against him, Minerva interposed, and gave the casting calculus or vote in his behalf. M. Cramer, professor at Marburg, has a discourse *De Calculo Minervæ*; wherein he maintains, that all the effect of an entire equality of voices can have, is to leave the cause in *statu quo*.

(10.) CALCULUS NIGER. See § 2.

(11.) CALCULUS SUMMATORIUS. See § 7.

(12.) CALCULUS TIBURTINUS, a sort of figured stone, found in great plenty about the catacombs of the Anio, and other rivers in Italy; of a white colour, and in shape oblong, round, or elongated. They are a species of the *Stria lapideæ*, and so like sugar plums, that it is a common jest at Rome to deceive the unexperienced by serving them up at deserts.

(1.) CALCUTTA, the capital of Bengal, and the seat of the governor general of the British dominions in the East Indies; is situated on the river Ganges, the W. arm of the Ganges, about 100 m. from the sea. It is a modern city, built on the site of a village called GOVINDPOUR. The English first obtained the Mogul's permission to settle at this place in 1690; and Mr Job Channock, the company's agent, chose the spot on which the city stands, on account of a large shady grove; though on other respects it was the worst he could have pitched upon; for 3 miles to the N. coast, there is a salt-water lake, which overflows in September, and when the flood retires in December, leaves

behind such a quantity of fish and other putrescent matter, as renders the air very unhealthy. The custom the Gentoos have, of throwing the dead bodies of their poor people into the river, is also very disgusting, and undoubtedly adds to the unhealthiness of the place. Calcutta is now become a large and populous city, being supposed to contain at least 500,000 inhabitants. The part inhabited by the English is elegantly built, but the greatest part is built after the general fashion of the cities of India: their streets are exceedingly confined, narrow, and crooked, with a vast number of ponds, reservoirs, and gardens interspersed. A few of them are paved with brick. The houses are built, some with brick, others with mud, and a still greater number with bamboos and mats; all which different kinds of fabrics, intermixed, form a very uncouth appearance. The brick houses are seldom above two stories high, but those of mud and bamboos are only one storey, and are covered with thatch. The roofs of the brick houses are flat and terraced. These, however, are much fewer in number than the other two kinds; so that fires, which often happen, do not sometimes meet with a brick house to obstruct their progress in a whole street. Within these 35 years Calcutta has been greatly improved both in appearance and in the salubrity of its air: the streets have been properly drained, and the ponds filled; thereby removing a vast surface of stagnant water, the exhalations of which were particularly hurtful. The citadel is named FORT WILLIAM, and is superior as a fortress to any in India; but is now on too extensive a scale to answer the purpose for which it was intended, viz. the holding a post in case of extremity. It was begun on this extended plan by Lord Clive immediately after the battle of Plassey. The expence attending it was supposed to amount to two millions Sterling. Calcutta is the emporium of Bengal. Its flourishing state is in a great measure owing to the unlimited toleration of all religions; the Pagans being suffered to carry their idols in procession, the Mahomedans not being discountenanced, and the Roman Catholics being allowed a church. The mixture of European and Asiatic manners, that may be observed in Calcutta, is curious: coaches, phaetons, single-horse chaises, with the pаланкеens and hackeries of the natives, the passing ceremonies of the Hindoos, and the different appearances of the fakirs, form a sight more novel and extraordinary, perhaps, than any city in the world can present. Calcutta lies 1030 miles N. E. by N. of Madras. Lon. 88. 28. E. Lat. 22. 23. N.

(2.) CALCUTTA, EXPIATORY PENANCE PERFORMED IN. About a mile from the town is a plain, where the natives annually undergo a very strange kind of penance on the 9th of April; some for the sins they have committed, others for those they may commit, and others in consequence of a vow made by their parents. This ceremony is performed in the following manner. Thirty bamboos, each about the height of 20 feet, are erected in the plain above mentioned. On the top of these they contrive to fix a swivel, and another bamboo of 30 feet or more crosses it, at both ends of which hangs a rope. The people pull down one end of this rope, and the devotee placing himself

himself under it, the Brahmin pinches up a large piece of skin under both the shoulder blades, sometimes in the breasts, and thrusts a strong iron hook through each. These hooks have lines of Indian grass hanging to them, which the priest makes fast to the rope at the end of the cross bamboo, and at the same time puts a sash round the body of the devotee, laying it loosely in the hollow of the hooks, lest, by the skin giving way, he should fall to the ground. The people then haul down the other end of the bamboo; by which the devotee is immediately lifted up 30 feet or more from the ground, and they run round as fast as their legs can carry them. Thus the devotee is thrown out the whole length of the rope, where, as he swings, he plays a thousand antic tricks; being painted and dressed in a very particular manner, on purpose to make him look more ridiculous. Some of them continue swinging half an hour, others less. The devotees undergo a preparation of four days for this ceremony. On the first and third they abstain from all kinds of food; but eat fruit on the other two. During this time of preparation they walk about the streets in their fantastical dresses, dancing to the sound of drums and horns; and some, to express the greater ardour of devotion, run a wire of iron quite through their tongues, and sometimes through their cheeks.

(3.) CALCUTTA, HISTORY OF THE CAPTURE OF. Before the war of 1755, Calcutta was commonly garrisoned by 300 Europeans, who were frequently employed in conveying the company's vessels from Patna, loaded with Salt-petre, piece goods, opium, and raw silk. The trade of Bengal alone supplied rich cargoes for 50 or 60 ships annually, besides what was carried on in small vessels to the adjacent countries. This flourishing state of Calcutta probably was one motive for the Nabob Surajah Dowlah to attack it in 1756; when he marched against it with all his forces, amounting to 70,000 horse and foot, with 400 elephants, and invested the place on the 15th of June. Previous to any hostilities, however, he wrote a letter to Mr Drake the governor, offering to withdraw his troops, on condition that he would pay him his duty on the trade for 15 years past, defray the expence of his army, and deliver up the black merchants who were in the fort. This being refused, he attacked one of the redoubts at the entrance of the town; but was repulsed with great slaughter. On the 16th he attacked another advanced post, but was likewise repulsed, with great loss. He renewed the attempt however on the 18th, when the troops abandoned these posts, and retreated into the fort; on which the Nabob's troops entered the town, and plundered it for 24 hours. An order was then given for attacking the fort; for which purpose a small breast-work was thrown up, and a twelve-pounders mounted upon it; but without firing oftener than two or three times an hour. The governor calling a council of war, was informed, that there was not ammunition in the fort to serve 3 days; in consequence of which the principal ladies were sent on board the ships lying before the fort. They were followed by the governor, declared himself a quaker, and left the place

to be defended by Mr John Zephaniah Holwell, the second in council. Besides the governor, &c. the council, 8 gentlemen in the company's service, 40 officers, and 100 soldiers, with 52 free merchants, captains of ships, &c. escaped on board the ships, where were also 59 ladies, with 33 children. The whole number left in the fort were about 250 effective men, with Mr Holwell, 4 captains, 5 lieutenants, 6 ensigns, and 5 serjeants; also 14 sea captains, and 19 gentlemen of the factory. Mr Holwell then having held a council of war, divided 3 chests of treasure among the discontented soldiers; making them large promises also, if they behaved with courage and fidelity; after which he boldly stood on the defence of the place, notwithstanding the immense force which opposed him. The attack was very vigorous; the enemy having got possession of the houses, galled the English from thence, and drove them from the bastions; but they themselves were several times dislodged by the fire from the fort, which killed upwards of 12,000 men, with the loss of only 5 English soldiers the first day. The attack, however, was continued till the afternoon of the 20th; when many of the garrison being killed and wounded, and their ammunition almost exhausted, a flag of truce was hung out. Mr Holwell intended to have availed himself of this opportunity to make his escape on board the ships, but they had fallen several miles down from the fort without leaving a single boat to facilitate the escape of those who remained. In the mean time, the back gate was betrayed by the Dutch guard, and the enemy, entering the fort, killed all they first met, and took the rest prisoners. The fort was taken before 4 in the evening; and, in an hour after, Mr Holwell had three audiences of the Nabob, the last being in the durbar or council. In all of these the governor had the most positive assurances that no harm should happen to any of the prisoners; but the Nabob was surprised and enraged at finding only 5000 l. in the fort, instead of the immense treasures he expected; and to this, as well as perhaps to the resentment of the jemmidars or officers, of whom many were killed in the siege, we may impute the shocking catastrophe that followed. See § 4.

(4.) CALCUTTA, HORRID CATASTROPHE AT THE BLACK HOLE OF. As soon as it was dark, the English prisoners, to the number of 146, were directed by the jemmidars who guarded them, to collect themselves into one body, and sit down quietly under the arched veranda, or piazza, to the westward of the Black Hole prison. Another guard was placed at the south end of this veranda to prevent the escape of any of them. About 500 gunmen, with lighted matches, were drawn up on the parade; and soon after the factory was in flames to the right and left of the prisoners, who had various conjectures on this appearance. The fire advanced with rapidity on both sides; and the English began to suspect that they were to be suffocated between the two fires. On this they soon came to a resolution of rushing on the guard, seizing their scymitars, and attacking the troops upon the parade, rather than be tamely roasted to death: but Mr Holwell advanced, and found the Moors were only searching for

face to confine them in. At that time Mr Holwell might have made his escape, by the assistance Mr Leech, the company's smith, who had es-
 ed when the Moors entered the fort, and re-
 ed just as it was dark, to tell Mr Holwell he
 provided a boat, and would insure his escape,
 e would follow him through a passage few
 acquainted with, and by which he then en-
 d. This might easily have been accomplished,
 e guard took little notice of it: but Mr Hol-
 told Mr Leech, he was resolved to share the
 of the gentlemen and the garrison; to which
 Leech gallantly replied, that "then he was
 ived to share Mr Holwell's fate, and would
 leave him." The guard on the parade ad-
 ed, and ordered them all to rise and go into
 barracks. Then, with their muskets present-
 they ordered them to go into the Black Hole
 m; while others, with clubs and scymitars,
 led upon them so strong, that they were obli-
 to give way and enter; the rest following like
 rent. Few among them, the soldiers excep-
 had the least idea of the dimensions of the
 e; else they would at all events have rushed u-
 the guard, and been cut to pieces, as the lesser
 . It was about 8 o'clock when these 146 un-
 py persons, exhausted by continual action and
 ue, were thus crammed together in a close
 ry night, into a dungeon about 18 feet square,
 up to the E. and S. the only quarters from
 ch air could reach them, by dead walls, and
 wall and door to the N. open only to the
 by two windows, strongly barred with iron,
 n which they could receive scarce any circula-
 of fresh air. They had been but few minutes
 ined before every one fell into a perspiration
 profuse, that no idea can be formed of it. This
 ight on a raging thirst, which increased in pro-
 tion as the body was drained of its moisture.
 ious expedients were thought of to give more
 Every man was stripped, and every hat put
 motion: they several times sat down on their
 es; but each time several fell, and were in-
 itly suffocated or trod to death. Before 9, their
 ft grew intolerable, and respiration difficult.
 orts were again made to force the door; but
 in vain. "Water, water," became the ge-
 al cry. Some water was brought; but these
 plies, like water sprinkled on fire, only served
 raise and feed the flames. The confusion be-
 ne general and horrid, from the cries and ra-
 gs for water. This scene of misery proved en-
 ainment to the brutal wretches without, who
 plied them with water, that they might have
 satisfaction of seeing them fight for it, as they
 rased it; and held up lights to the bars, that
 y might lose no part of the inhuman diversion.
 ore 11 o'clock, one third of the whole were
 ad. Thirst grew intolerable: but Mr Holwell
 pt his mouth moist by sucking the perspiration
 t of his shirt sleeves, and catching the drops as
 y fell from his head and face. By half an hour
 or 11 most of the living were in an outrageous
 irium. They found that water heightened their
 easiness; "Air, air," was the general cry.
 ery insult that could be devised against the
 and, all the opprobrious names that the vice-
 y and his officers could be loaded with, were re-

peated, to provoke the guard to fire upon them.
 Every man had eager hopes of meeting the first
 shot. Then a general prayer to heaven, to hasten
 the approach of the flames to the right and left of
 them, and put a period to their misery. Some
 expired on others; while a steam arose from the
 living as well as the dead, which was very offen-
 sive. About two in the morning, they crowded
 so much to the windows, that many died stand-
 ing, being so pressed all round, that they could
 not fall down. When the day broke, the stench
 arising from the dead bodies was intolerable. At
 that juncture, the Sonbah, who had received an
 account of the havoc death had made among
 them, sent one of his officers to enquire if the
 chief survived. Mr Holwell was shown to him;
 and a little before 6 o'clock an order came for
 their release. Thus they had remained in this in-
 fernal prison from 8 at night until 6 in the morn-
 ing, when the poor remains of 146 souls, only 23,
 came out barely alive, and most of them in a high
 putrid fever. The dead bodies were dragged out
 of the hole by the soldiers, and thrown promiscu-
 ously into the ditch of an unfinished ravelin, which
 was afterwards filled with earth.

(5.) CALCUTTA, IMPROVED STATE OF. The
 injuries which Calcutta suffered at this time, (§ 4.)
 were soon repaired. It was retaken by Admiral
 Watson and Colonel Clive, early in 1757. The
 victory of Plassey followed: the inhuman Surajah
 Dowlah was defeated, deposed, and put to death;
 and Meer Jaffier, who succeeded him in the Na-
 bobship, engaged to pay an enormous sum for the
 indemnification of the inhabitants. Since that
 time the immense acquisition of territory by the
 British in this part of the world, with the constant
 security enjoyed by this city, have given an op-
 portunity of embellishing and improving it very
 much. One of the greatest of these improvements
 was that of Sir William Jones; who, on the 15th
 Jan. 1784, instituted a society for inquiring into
 the history civil and natural, the antiquities, arts,
 sciences, and literature of Asia; and thus the lite-
 rature of Europe, and along with it, it is to be
 hoped, the arts of humanity, beneficence, and
 peace, have at length obtained a footing in the
 rich empire of Indostan, so long a prey to the ra-
 pine and violence of tyrants and usurpers.

CALDA, [contract. for *calida aqua*,] hot water,
 anciently much used among the Romans, as a
 drink, partly for pleasure, and partly for health.

CALDARIA JUDICIARIA, in our ancient bar-
 barous customs, the method of trial by boiling
 water. See ORDEAL.

(1.) CALDARIUM, in the ancient baths, de-
 noted, 1. A brazen vessel or cistern, placed in the
 hypocaustum, full of hot water, to be drawn
 thence into the *piscina* or bath, to give it the ne-
 cessary degree of heat: 2. A stove, or sudatory,
 being a close vaulted room, wherein by hot dry
 fumes, without water, people were brought to a
 profuse sweat.

(2.) CALDARIUM ÆS, denotes POT METAL.

CALDBECK, a village E. of Cumberland.

CALDCOT, the name of 11 English villages:
 viz. 1. in Bucks, in Newport parish: 2. seven m.
 from Cambridge: 3. in Cheshire, N. W. of Mal-
 pas: 4. in Hertfordshire, near Ashwell and Hinx-
 worth:

Assembly at Glasgow, June 8th, 1610, in which Lord Dunbar presided as commissioner; but considered every thing transacted in it as null and void. In May following, king James went to Scotland; and on the 17th June held a parliament at Edinburgh: when the clergy met in one of the churches, to advise with the bishops. This assembly was contrived in order to resemble the English convocation. Mr Calderwood was present at it, but declared publicly that he did not take such meetings to resemble a convocation; being opposed by Dr Whitford and Dr Hutton, who favoured the bishops, he took his leave of them in these words: "It is absurd to see men sitting in silks and sattins, and to cry poverty in the kirk, when purity is departing." The parliament proceeded in the mean while in the dispatch of business; and Mr Calderwood, with several other ministers, being informed that all was depending to empower the king, with the advice of the archbishops, bishops, and such a number of the ministry as he should think proper, to consider and conclude as to matters decent for the external policy of the church, not repugnant to the word of God; and that such conclusions should have the strength and power of ecclesiastical laws. Against this they protested, for 4 reasons: "1. Because their church was so perfect, it, instead of needing reformation, it might be a pattern to others: 2. General assemblies, as now established by law, and which ought always to continue, might by this means be overthrown: 3. Because it might be a means of creating schism, and disturb the tranquillity of the church: 4. Because they had received assurances, that no attempts should be made to bring them to a conformity with the church of England. They desire therefore, that all thoughts of passing such a law might be laid aside: but in case this be not done, they protest for themselves and their brethren who will adhere to them, that they can yield no obedience to this law when it shall be enacted, because it is destructive of the liberty of the church; and therefore shall submit to such penalties, and undergo such punishments, as may be inflicted on them for disobeying that law." This protest was presented to the clerk register, who refused to read it before the states in parliament. However, though not read, it had its effect; for although the bill had the consent of parliament, yet the king refused it to be laid aside, and not long after called a general assembly at St Andrews. Soon after the parliament was dissolved, and Mr Calderwood was summoned to appear before the high commission court at St Andrews, on the 8th of July following, to answer for his mutinous and seditious behaviour. July 10th, the king came to that court in person; when Mr Calderwood, being called upon, and refusing to comply with what the king in person required of him, was committed to prison. Afterwards the privy council ordered him to banish himself out of the king's dominions before Michaelmas next; and not to return without licence. Having applied to the king for a prorogation of his sentence without success, because he would neither acknowledge his offence, nor promise conformity for the future, he retired to Holland, where, in 1623, he published his celebrated piece, entitled *Altare Damascenum*. Mr Calderwood having, in 1624, been afflicted with a long fit of sickness, and nothing having been heard of him for some time, one Patrick Scot, as Calderwood himself informs us, took it for granted that he was dead; and thereupon wrote a recantation in his name, as if, before his decease, he had changed his sentiments. This imposture being detected, Scot went over to Holland, and staid 3 weeks at Amsterdam, where he made a diligent search for the author of *Altare Damascenum*, with a design to have dispatched him. But Calderwood had privately retired into his own country, where he lived several years. Scot gave out that the king had furnished him with the matter for the pretended recantation, and that he only put it in order. During his retirement, he collected all the memorials relating to the ecclesiastical affairs of Scotland, from the beginning of the reformation to the death of king James; which collection is still preserved in the university library of Glasgow: that which was published under the title of "The true history of Scotland," is only an extract from it. In the advertisement prefixed to the last edition of his *Altare Damascenum* mention is made of his being minister of Pencaitland near Edinburgh in 1638; but we find nothing said there, or any where else, of his death. He was a man of sound learning and quick parts.

(1.) CALDEY, an island in Pembrokeshire, 2 m. S. W. of Fenby.

(2.) CALDEY MAGNA, } Two villages in Che-

(3.) CALDEY PARVA, } shire, seated on the Dee, near Hyle Lake.

CALDICOT, in the parish of Guiting-Power, Gloucestershire.

CALDMERTON, a town in Northumberland.

CALDMORE, in Staffordshire, N. of Walsal.

(1.) * CALDRON. *n. f.* [*chauldron*, Fr. from *calidus*, Lat.] A pot; a boiler; a kettle.—

In the midst of all

There placed was a *caldron* wide and tall,

Upon a mighty furnace, burning hot. *Fairy Q.*

Some strip the skin, some portion out the spoil;

The limbs, yet trembling, in the *caldrons* boil;

Some on the fire the reeking entrails broil.

Dryden's Æneid.

—In the late eruptions, this great hollow was like a vast *caldron*, filled with glowing and melted matter, which, as it boiled over in any part, ran down the sides of the mountain. *Addison.*

(2.) CALDRONS are much larger than "pots, boilers, or kettles," (§ 1.) and are commonly made of copper; having a moveable iron handle, whereby to hang them on the chimney hook.

(3.) CALDRONS, BOILING IN, (*caldoris decoquere*,) is a capital punishment spoken of in writers of the middle age, decreed to divers sorts of criminals, but chiefly to debasers of the coin. One of the torments, inflicted on the ancient Christian martyrs, was boiling in caldrons of water, oil, &c.

CALDWALL, Richard, a learned English physician, born in Staffordshire about 1513. He studied physic at Oxford; and was examined, admitted into, and made censor of, the college of physicians at London, all in one day. Six weeks

after he was chosen one of the elects; and in 1570, was elected president. He wrote several medical pieces, and translated a book on the art of surgery, written by one Horatio More, a Florentine physician. We learn from Camden, that Caldwell founded a chirurgical lecture in the college of physicians, and endowed it with a handsome salary. He died in 1585.

CALDWELL, the name of 4 villages; viz. 1. near Bedford: 2. in Stapenhill parish, Derbysh. 3. in Worcestershire. near Kidderminster: and 4. in Yorkshire, near Forcet.

(1.) **CALE**, or **KALE**, a species of **BRASSICA**.

(2.) **CALE**, **SEA**. See **CRAMBE**.

CALEA, in botany, a genus of the polygamia equalis order, belonging to the syngenesia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, Compositæ. The receptacle is paleaceous, the pappus hairy, and the calyx imbricated. There are 3 species.

CALE-ACTE. See **ARTEMISIUM**, N. 1.

(1.) **CALEB**, the son of Jephunneh, of the tribe of Judah, one of the 12 spies who were sent to view the land of Canaan, and the only one who joined with Joshua in giving a favourable report of it. Num. xiii and xiv. His capture of Hebron, defeat of the Anakims, and portioning of his daughter Achsah, are recorded in Josh. xiv, 6-15. xv, 13-19, and Judg. i, 9-15. This hero had 3 sons and a numerous posterity. He is to be distinguished from the two following. See N° 2 & 3.

(2.) **CALEB**, or **CHELUBAI**, the son of Hezron, had 3 wives, 2 concubines, and a numerous posterity. 1 Chron. ii.

(3.) **CALEB**, the son of Hur, and grandson of Caleb, N. 2. His posterity peopled the whole country about Bethlehem, Kirjath-jearim, &c.

(4.) **CALEB**, or } a city of Judah, where Ca-
CALEB-EPHRATAH } leb, (N. 2.) and his wife Ephratah dwelt. To the elders of this town, David sent part of the spoils he took from the Amalekites. 1 Sam. xxx, 14.

* **CALECHE**. The same with **CALASH**.

(1.) **CALEDONIA**, the ancient name of Scotland. From the testimonies of Tacitus, Dio, and Solinus, we find, that the ancient Caledonia comprehended all that country lying N. of the Forth and Clyde. In proportion as the Silures or Cimbri advanced toward the N. the Caledonians, being circumscribed within narrower limits, were forced to emigrate into the islands on the western coasts of Scotland. It is in this period, probably, we ought to place the first great migration of the British Gaël into Ireland; that kingdom being much nearer to the promontory of Galloway and Cantire, than many of the Scottish isles are to the continent of North Britain. To the country which the Caledonians possessed, they gave the name of *Gaël-doch*; which is the only appellation the Scots, who speak the Gaelic language, know for their own division of Britain. *Gaël-doch* is a compound, made up of *Gaël* or *Caël*, the first colony of the ancient Gauls who emigrated into Britain, and *doch*, a district or division of a country. The Romans, by transposing the letter *l* in *Caël*, and by softening into a Latin termination the *ch* of *doch*, formed the well known name of Caledonia. This appears to be a much more natural etymology

than that of Camden, from the old British word *kaled*, *hard*, because the people were a hardy rustic race.

(2.) **CALEDONIA**, the name of a settlement made by the Scots on the W. side of the gulph of Darien, in 1698; out of which they were starved at the request of the East India company; for the English government who at first encouraged the settlement, afterwards prohibited the other colonies from sending them any provisions; so they were obliged to leave it in 1700. Such are the blessed fruits of monopolies. This piece of barbarous policy, with the massacre of Glenco, forms indelible infamy on the reign and character of K. William III.

(3.) **CALEDONIA**, **NEW**, an island in the South Sea, discovered by captain Cook, and next to New Holland and New Zealand, the largest that has yet been discovered in that sea. It extends from 19°. 37' to 22°. 30'. Lat. S. and from 167°. 37' to 167°. 14'. Lon. E. Its length from N. W. to S. W. is about 80 leagues; but its greatest breadth does not exceed 10 leagues. This island is diversified by hills and valleys of various size and extent. From the hills issue abundance of rivulets, which contribute to fertilize the plains. Along its N. E. shore the land is flat; and being well watered, and cultivated by the inhabitants after their manner, appeared to great advantage to captain Cook's people. Were it not, indeed, for those fertile spots on the plains, the whole country would be a dreary waste: the mountain and higher parts of the land are in general incapable of cultivation. They consist chiefly of rocks, many of which are full of mundic; the little soil that is upon them is scorched and burnt up by the sun; it is, however, covered with coarse grass and other plants, and here and there covered with trees and shrubs. The country in general bears a great resemblance to those parts of New South Wales, which lie under the same parallel of latitude. Several of its natural productions are the same, and the woods are without underwood, as in that country. The whole coast seems to be surrounded by reefs and shoals, which render all access to it extremely dangerous; but at the same time guard the coasts against the wind and sea; rendering it easily navigable along the coast by canoes, and causing it abound with fish. Every part of the coast seems to be inhabited; the plantations in the plains are laid out with great judgment, and cultivated with much labour. They begin their cultivation by setting fire to the grass, &c. with which the ground is covered, but have no notion of preserving its vigour by manure; they, however, recruit it by letting it lie for some years untouched. On the beach was found a large irregular mass of rock, not less than a cube of 10 feet, consisting of a close-grained stone, speckled full of granates somewhat bigger than pins heads, from whence it seems probable that some valuable minerals may be found on this island. It differs from all the other islands yet discovered in the South Sea, in being entirely destitute of volcanic productions. Several plants of a new species were found, particularly a new species of papaver flower; and a few young bread fruit trees, not then sufficiently grown to bear fruit, seemed to have

ve come up without culture : plantains and sugar canes are here in small quantity, and the coconut trees are small and thinly planted. Several CAPUTI, or MELALEUCA trees were also found in flower. Musketos are very numerous. A great variety of birds were seen of different classes, for the most part entirely new ; particularly a beautiful species of parrot before unknown to zoologists. A new species of fish, of the genus called Linnæus TETRAODON, was caught ; and its liver, which was very large, presented at supper. Several species of this genus being reckoned poisonous, and this species being remarkably ugly, Messrs Forsters hinted their suspicions of its quality ; but the temptation of a fresh meal, and the assurances of captain Cook, that he had formerly eaten this identical sort of fish without harm, got the better of their scruples. Its oiliness, however, though it had no other bad taste, prevented them from taking above a morsel or two. In a few hours after they had retired to rest, they were awakened by very alarming symptoms, being all seized with an extreme giddiness ; their hands and feet benumbed, so that they were scarcely able to crawl ; and a great languor and oppression seized them. Emetics were administered with some success, but sudorifics gave the greatest relief. Some dogs who had eaten the remainder of the liver were likewise taken ill ; and a pig which had eaten the entrails died soon after, having swelled to an unusual size. The effects of this poison did not go entirely off in less than six weeks. There are great numbers of turtles on this island. The houses, or huts, are circular, something like a beehive, and full as close and warm ; the entrance by a long square hole, just big enough to admit a man bent double : the side walls are about 4½ feet high ; but the roof is lofty, and peaked to a point at the top. The framing is of small spars, reeds, &c. and both sides and roof are thick, and are covered with thatch made of coarse long grass. In the inside of the house are set up posts, to which cross spars are fastened, and platforms made, for the convenience of laying any thing on. Some houses have two floors, one above another ; the floor is laid with dried grass, and mats are spread for the principal people to sit or sleep on. In these there is no passage for the smoke, but through the door ; they were intolerably smoky, and insupportably hot to those unaccustomed to them : probably the smoke is intended to drive out the musketos which swarm here. They commonly erect 2 or 3 of these huts near each other under a cluster of lofty fig-trees, whose leaves are impervious to the rays of the sun. The canoes are heavy clumsy vessels, made of two trees hollowed out, having a raised gunnel about two inches high, and closed at each end with a bulkhead of the same height ; so that the whole is like a long square trough, about 3 feet shorter than the body of the canoe. Two canoes thus fitted are fastened to each other about 3 feet asunder, by means of cross spars, which project about a foot over each side. Over these is laid a deck made of plank and small round spars, on which they have a hearth, and generally a fire burning ; they are navigated by one or two latteen sails, ex-

tended to a small latteen yard, the end of which is fixed in a notch in the deck.

(4.) CALEDONIA, NEW, INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, &c. OF. The inhabitants are very stout, tall, and in general well proportioned ; their features mild ; their beards and hair black, and strongly frizzled, so as to be somewhat woolly, in some individuals : their colour is a dark chestnut brown. A few measured 6 feet 4 inches. They are remarkably courteous, not at all addicted to pilfering ; in which character of honesty they are singular, all the other nations in the South Sea being remarkably thievish. Some wear their hair long, and tie it up to the crown of their heads ; others suffer only a large lock to grow on each side, which they tie up in clubs ; many others as well as all the women, wear it cropped short. They use a kind of comb made of sticks of hard wood, from 7 to 10 inches long, and about the thickness of knitting needles. These combs they also wear in their hair on one side of their head. Some had a kind of concave cylindrical stiff black cap, which appeared to be a great ornament among them, and was supposed to be worn only by the chiefs and warriors. The men go naked ; only tying a string round their middle, and another round their neck. A little piece of a brown cloth made of the bark of a fig-tree, sometimes tucked up to the belt, and sometimes pendulous, scarcely deserves the name of a covering ; nor indeed does it seem intended for it. This piece of cloth is sometimes of such a length, that the extremity is fastened to the string round the neck ; to this string they likewise hang small round beads of a pale green nephritic stone. They had also coarse garments made of a sort of matting ; but they seemed never to wear them, except when in their canoes and unemployed. The women seemed to be in a servile state : they were the only persons who had any employment, and several of them brought bundles of sticks and fuel on their backs : those who had children carried them on their backs in a kind of satchel. The women also dig up the earth to plant it. They are in general of a dark chestnut, and sometimes mahogany brown ; their stature middle-sized, though some are tall, and their whole form rather stout, and somewhat clumsy. Their dress is a short petticoat or fringe, consisting of filaments or little cords, about 8 inches long, fastened to a very long string, which they tie several times round their waist. These filaments lie above each other in several layers, all round the body, but do not near cover the thigh : they were sometimes dyed black ; but frequently of a dirty grey. There was not a single instance, during the ships stay at this island, of the women permitting any indecent familiarity with an European. The general ornaments of both sexes are ear-rings, necklaces, amulets, and bracelets made of shells, stones, &c. Notwithstanding the inoffensive disposition of the inhabitants of New Caledonia, they are well provided with offensive weapons ; as clubs, spears, darts, and slings. Their clubs are about 2½ feet long, and variously formed ; some like a scythe, others like a pick-axe ; some with a head like a hawk, others with round heads ; but all are neatly made, and ornamented.

... as a student, to complete the 101 days of the
... the 101 days of the
... the 101 days of the

ary year. These five days do not belong to any month. They were first named *SANS-CULOTTES*, in honour of the *Sans-Culottes*, or inferior ranks of society; but this name was changed, (and it is the only change made in the calendar,) soon after the revolution in July 1794. Each month is divided into three decades of 10 days each; distinguished by 1st, 2d, and 3d decade. The years which receive an intercalary day, when the position of the equinox requires it, which we call olympic; and the period of 4 years, ending with an olympic year, is called an olympiad. The intercalary day, on that occasion, is placed after the ordinary 5 supplementary days, and, being the last day of the olympic year, is dedicated to olympic games to be celebrated in honour of the revolution; and to the renovation of the national oath, "To live free or die." The months have all new names, expressive of their respective relations, either to the season of the year, the tem-

perature of the air, or the state of the vegetation. See the TABLE. Each day from midnight to midnight, is divided into 10 parts, each part into 10 others, and so on to the last measurable portion of time. The days of the decade are denominated from the first ten numbers, thus; *Primidi*, *Duodi*, *Tridi*, *Quatridi*, *Quintidi*, *Sextidi*, *Septidi*, *Octidi*, *Nonidi*, *Decadi*. In the almanac, or annual calendar, instead of the numerous names of saints, in the popish calendars, every day is inscribed with the name of some animal, utensil, work, fruit, flower, or vegetable, suited to the day or the season. The following table exhibits the names of the months with their signification and duration: and will suit any year except leap year; when by the intervention of the 29th Feb. the first of Germinal happens upon the 20th of March, and every day thereafter one day later than is stated in the table, till the 6th supplementary day, on the 21st Sept. brings the French calendar to its usual equation with the Gregorian,

TABLE of the MONTHS and SUPPLEMENTARY DAYS, according to the NEW FRENCH CALENDAR.

	NAMES.	SIGNIFICATION.		DURATION.
AUTUMN.	Vindemiaire,	Vintage month,	from	Sept. 22. to Oct. 21.
	Brumaire,	Fog month,	—	Oct. 22. — Nov. 20.
	Frimaire,	Sleet month,	—	Nov. 21. — Dec. 20.
WINTER.	Nivose,	Snow month,	—	Dec. 21. — Jan. 19.
	Pluviose,	Rainy month,	—	Jan. 20. — Feb. 18.
	Ventose,	Windy month,	—	Feb. 19. — March 20.
SPRING.	Germinal,	Sprout month,	—	March 21. — April 19.
	Floreal,	Flower month,	—	April 20. — May 19.
	Priarial,	Pasture month,	—	May 20. — June 18.
SUMMER.	Messidor,	Harvest month,	—	June 19. — July 18.
	Thermidor,	Hot month,	—	July 19. — Aug. 17.
	Fructidor,	Fruit month,	—	Aug. 19. — Sept. 16.

SUPPLEMENTARY DAYS, dedicated as feasts to

Les Vertus,	The Virtues,	Sept. 17.	L'Opinion,	Opinion,	Sept. 20.
Le Génie,	Genius,	Sept. 18.	Les Recompenses,	Rewards,	Sept. 21.
Le Travail,	Labour,	Sept. 19.			

(4.) CALENDAR OF NATURE. See NATURE, § 3.

(5.) CALENDAR OF PRISONERS; in law, a list of all the prisoners names in the custody of each sheriff. See EXECUTION.

CALENDARIS, an epithet of Juno.

(1.) CALENDARIUM FESTUM. The Christians retained much of the ceremony and wantonness of the calends of January, which for many ages was held a feast, and celebrated by the clergy with great indecencies, under the names of *festum kalendarium*, or *hypodiconorum*, or *stultorum*, i. e. the feast of fools. The people met masked in the church, and in a ludicrous way proceeded to the election of a mock pope, who exercised a jurisdiction over them suitable to the festivity of the occasion. Fathers, councils, and popes long laboured to restrain this licence, to little purpose. The feast of the calends was in use as low as the close of the 15th century.

(2.) CALENDARIUM FLORE, in botany, a calendar containing an exact register of the respective times in which the plants of any given province or climate germinate, expand, and shed their leaves and flowers, or ripen and disperse their seeds. See DEOLIATIC, EFFLORESCEN-

TIA, FRONDESCENTIA, FRUCTESCENTIA, GERMINATIO, and NATURE, § 3.

(1.) * CALENDER. *n. s.* [from the verb.] A hot press; a press in which clothiers smooth their cloth.

(2.) CALENDER, in geography. See CALLANDER.

(3.) CALENDER, in manufactories, (§ 1.) is used to press woollen and filken stuffs and linens, to make them smooth, even, and glossy, or to give them waves, or water them, as in Mohairs and tabbies. This machine is composed of two thick cylinders or rollers, made of very hard and well polished wood, round which the stuffs to be calendered are wound: These rollers are placed across between two very thick boards, the lower serving as a fixed base, and the upper moveable by means of a thick screw with a rope fastened to a spindle which makes its axis: The uppermost board is loaded with large stones weighing 20,000lb. or more. At Paris there is an extraordinary machine of this kind. The lower table or plank is made of a block of smooth marble, and the upper is lined with a plate of polished copper. The alternate motion of the upper board some-

times one way and sometimes another, together with the prodigious weight laid upon it, gives the stuffs their gloss and smoothness; or gives them the waves, by making the cylinders on which they are put roll with great force over the undermost board. When they would put a roller from under the calender, they only incline the undermost board of the machine. The dressing alone, with the many turns they make the stuffs and linens undergo in the calender, gives the waves, or waters them, as the workmen call it. Mr Chambers is mistaken, in supposing, that they use rollers with a shallow indenture or engraving cut into them.

* *To* CALENDER. *v. a.* [*calendrer*, Fr. Skinner.] To dress cloth; to lay the nap of cloth smooth.

CALENDERI, Santon, the founder of a sect of Mahometan friars. He went bare-headed, without a shirt, and with the skin of a wild beast thrown over his shoulders. He wore a kind of apron before, the strings of which were adorned with counterfeit precious stones. See next article.

CALENDERS, a sect of Dervises or Mahometan friars, the disciples of Santon Calenderi. They are rather a sect of Epicureans than a society of religious. They honour a tavern as much as they do a mosque; and think they pay as acceptable worship to God by the free use of his creatures, as others do by the greatest austerities and acts of devotion. They are called, in Persia and Arabia, ABDALS, or ABDALLAT, *i. e.* persons consecrated to the honour and service of God. Their garment is a single coat, made up of a variety of pieces, and quilted like a rug. They preach in the market places, and live upon what their auditors bestow on them.

* CALENDREUR. *n. f.* [from *calender*.] The person who calenders.

(1.) * CALENDUS. *n. f.* [*calendæ*, Lat. It has no singular.] The first day of every month among the Roman.

(2.) CALENDUS, in Roman antiquity. See KALENDUS.

(3.) CALENDUS, GREEK, a proverbial expression among the Romans, adopted into most modern languages, signifying *never*, because the Greeks had no calends.

(I.) CALENDULA, in botany, the MARIGOLD, a genus of the polygamia necessaria order, belonging to the syngenesia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, *Compositæ*. The receptacle is naked, there is no pappus, the calyx is polyphyllous and equal, the seeds of the disk membranaceous. Of this there are 8 species, none of them natives of Europe. The common kind is so well known as to need no description; and none of the others merit any, except

CALENDULA FRUCTICOSA, which has lately been introduced from the Cape of Good Hope. It has a slender shrubby perennial stalk, which rises to the height of 7 or 8 feet, but requires support: this sends out a great number of weak branches from the bottom to the top, which hang downward unless they are supported: they are garnished with oval leaves, having short flat footstalks, of a shining green colour on their upper side, but pale underneath: the flowers come out

at the end of the branches, on short naked footstalks. This is easily propagated by cuttings, which may be planted at any time in summer in a shady border, or shaded with mats in the heat of the day; in 5 or 6 weeks they will have taken root, when they should be separately taken up, each put in a separate pot, and placed in the shade till they have taken fresh root; then they may be placed, with other hardy exotic plants, in a sheltered situation, where they may remain till the frost begins, when they must be removed into the green-house, placing them near the windows, that they may enjoy the free air; for this plant only requires protection from frost. The seeds of the common sort may be sown in March or April, where the plants are to remain; and will require no other culture but to keep them clear of weeds, and to thin the plants where they are too thick. The flowers of the common marigold are supposed to be aperient, attenuating, cardiac, alexipharmac, and sudorific; they are principally celebrated in uterine obstructions, the jaundice, and for throwing out the small pox. Their sensible qualities, however, give little foundation for these virtues: they have scarce any taste, and have no considerable smell. The leaves of the plant discover a viscid sweetishness, accompanied with a more durable saponaceous pungency and warmth; these seem capable of answering some useful purposes as a stimulating, aperient, and antiscorbutic medicine.

(II.) CALENDULA, in ornithology, a species of the MOTACILLA, found in Pennsylvania.

CALENTIUS, Elifius, a Neapolitan poet and prose author. He was preceptor to Frederic the son of Ferdinand king of Naples, and the earliest writer on the illegality of putting criminals to death, for any crime except murder. He died in 1503.

(1.) * CALENTURE. *n. f.* [from *calere*, Lat.] A distemper peculiar to sailors in hot climates; wherein they imagine the sea to be green fields, and will throw themselves into it. *Quint.*

And for that lethargy was there no cure,
But to be cast into a *calenture*. *Dennis.*

So, by a *calenture* misled,
The mariner with rapture sees,

On the smooth ocean's azure bed,
Enamell'd fields, and verdant trees;

With eager haste, he longs to rove
In that fantastic scene, and thinks

It must be some enchanting grove;
And in he leaps, and down he sinks. *Sayst.*

(2.) CALENTURE has been cured by vomiting, bleeding, a spare diet, and the neutral salts; a single vomit commonly removing the delirium, and the cooling medicines completing the cure. In some cases, however, the stimulant plant of cure might be of service.

CALENUS, an epithet applied by Horace and Juvenal to a generous wine, produced in Cales.

CALEPIN, Ambrosius, an Augustine monk of Calepio, whence he took his name, in the 16th century. He is author of a dictionary of 8 languages, since augmented by Passerat and others.

CALES, in ancient geography, a municipal city of some note in Campania near Caplinum.

CALETES, a people of Gallia Cælica, on the coast

provinces of Belgica, situated between the sea and the Sequana. They inhabited the country now called CAUX.

(1.) CALETURE, a fort in the island of Ceylon, at the mouth of the river, No. 2. The Dutch became masters of it in 1655; but were afterwards obliged to leave it. Lon. 80. 51. E. Lat. 5. 38. N.

(2.) CALETURE, a river in Ceylon.

(1.) * CALF. *n. f. calves* in the plural. [*cealf*, Saxon; *kalf*, Dutch.] 1. The young of a cow. —The colt hath about four years growth; and so the fawn, and so the calf. *Bacon's Nat. History.* —Acosta tells us of a fowl in Peru, called condore, which will kill and eat up a whole calf at a time. *Wilkins.*—

Ah! Blouzelind, I love thee more by half

Than does their fawns, or cows the new fall'n calf.

Gay.

1. *Calves* of the lips, mentioned by Hosea, signify sacrifices of praise and prayer, which the captives of Babylon addressed to God, being no longer in a condition to offer sacrifices in his temple. *Calmet.*—Turn to the Lord, and say unto him, Take away all iniquity, and receive us graciously: so will we render the calves of our lips. *Hosea*, xiv. 1. 3. By way of contempt and reproach applied to a human being; a dolt; a stupid wretch.—

When a child haps to be got,

That after proves an idiot;

When folk perceive it thriveth not,

Some silly doating brainless calf,

That understands things by the half,

Says, that the fairy left the oaf,

And took away the other.

Drayt Nym.

1. The thick plump, bulbous part of the leg. [*kalf*, Dutch.]—

Into her legs I'd have love's issue fall,

And all her calf into a gouty small.

Suckling.

—The calf of that leg blistered. *Wifeman's Surg.*

(2.) CALF, in zoology. See BOS, No. IV. §

ii. 1. A calf should be allowed to suck and follow its mother during the first 6 or 8 days. After this it begins to eat pretty well, and two or three sucks in a day will be sufficient. But if the object be to have it quickly fattened for the market, a few raw eggs every day, with boiled milk, and a little bread, will make it excellent veal in 4 or 5 weeks. This management applies only to such calves as are designed for the butcher. When intended to be brought up, they ought to have at least two months suck; as the longer they suck, they grow the stronger and larger. Those that are brought forth in April, May, or June, are the most proper for this purpose; when calved later in the season, they do not acquire sufficient strength to support them during the winter. There are two ways of breeding calves that are intended to be reared. The one is to let the calf run about with its dam all the year round; which is the method in the cheap breeding countries, and is generally allowed to make the best cattle. The other is to take them from the dam after they have sucked about a fortnight; they are then to be taught to drink flat milk, which is to be made out just warm, it being very dangerous to give them too hot. The best time of weaning calves is from January to May; they should have milk

for 12 weeks after; and a fortnight before that is left off, water should be mixed with the milk in larger and larger quantities. When they have been fed on milk for a month, little wisps of hay should be placed about them, in cleft sticks to induce them to eat. In the beginning of April they should be turned out to the grass: only for a few days they should be taken in for the night, and have milk and water given them; the same may also be given them in a pail sometimes in the field, till they are so able to feed themselves that they do not regard it. The grass they are turned into must not be too rank, but short and sweet, that they may like it, and yet get it with some labour. Calves should always be weaned at grass; for if it be done with hay and water, they often grow big belly'd, and rot. When those among the males are selected which are to be kept as bulls, the rest should be gelded for oxen; the sooner the better. Between 10 and 20 days is a proper age. About London, almost all the calves are fatted for the butcher, as there is a good market for them; and the lands there are not so profitable to breed upon as in cheaper countries. The way to make calves fat and fine is, to keep them very clean; give them fresh litter every day; and to hang a large chalk-stone, where they can easily get at it to lick it, but where it is out of the way of being fouled by the dung and urine. The coops are to be placed so as not to have too much sun upon them, and so high above the ground that the urine may run off. Some bleed them once when they are a month old, and a 2d time before they kill them; which is a great addition to the beauty and whiteness of their flesh; the bleeding is by some repeated much oftener, but this is sufficient. Calves are very apt to be loose in their bowels; which wastes and very much injures them. The remedy is to give them chalk scraped among milk, pouring it down with a horn. If it does not succeed, give them bole armeniac in large doses, and use the cold bath every morning. If a cow will not let a strange calf suck her, the common method is to rub both her nose and the calf's with a little brandy; which generally reconciles them.

(3.) CALF, GOLDEN, an idol set up and worshipped by the Israelites at the foot of mount Sinai. Our version makes Aaron fashion this calf with a graving tool after he had cast it in a mould: the Geneva translation makes him engrave it first, and cast it afterwards. Others, render the whole verse thus; "And Aaron received them (the golden earrings), and tied them up in a bag, and got them cast into a molten calf;" which version is authorised by the different senses of the word *tzar*, which signifies to tie up or bind, as well as to shape or form; and of the word *cherret*, which is used both for a graving tool and a bag. See AARON. Some of the ancient fathers have been of opinion that this idol had only the face of a calf, and the shape of a man from the neck downwards, in imitation of the Egyptian Isis. Others have thought it was only the head of an ox without a body. But the most general opinion is, that it was an entire calf in imitation of the Apis worshipped by the Egyptians; among whom the Israelites had acquired their propensity to idolatry. This calf Moses is said to have burnt with fire, ground

ground to powder, and strewed upon the water which the people were to drink. How this could be accomplished hath been a question. Many have thought, that as gold is indestructible, it could only be burnt by the miraculous power of God; but M. Stahl conjectures, that Moses dissolved it by means of liver of sulphur. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*. M. Voltaire, in his *Essay on Toleration*, (in other respects an excellent work,) argues much upon the *impossibility of grinding to powder* so ductile a metal as gold; but any goldsmith could have informed him, that nothing is easier; for the purest gold may at any time be made as brittle as glass, by mixing with it a small quantity of brass:—nay, such an antipathy exists between the two metals, that gold, in working, will often become quite unmalleable, by only accidentally touching a piece of brass, while it is warm. And if we suppose the Egyptian goldsmiths to have been as fond of profit, as the modern jewellers of Europe, it is probable they might have put brass pins (a practice now not uncommon) in the joints of the gold ear-rings, which they had sold or lent to the Hebrew ladies; in which case, the whole mass being melted together, when the calf was made, Moses would require no miraculous power to enable him to grind it to powder; nor would he even need to throw in any additional quantity of brass, to render it brittle, when he *burnt*, or *melted* it, (as perhaps the word should be rendered) *with fire*.

(4.) CALF, SEA. See PHOCA.

(1.) CALF-SKINS, in the leather manufacture, are prepared and dressed by the tanners, skimmers, and curriers, who sell them for the use of the shoe-makers, saddlers, book-binders, and other artificers, who employ them in their several manufactures. The English calf-skin is much valued abroad, and the commerce thereof very considerable in France and other countries; where divers attempts have been made to imitate it, but hitherto in vain. What baffles all endeavours for imitating the English calf in France is, the smallness and weakness of the calves about Paris; which at 15 days old are not so big as the English ones when newly calved.

(2.) CALF-SKINS DRESSED IN SUMACH are the skins of these animals curried black on the hair side, and dyed of an orange colour on the flesh side, by means of sumach, chiefly used in the making of belts.

CALF'S-SNOUT. See ANTIRRHINUM.

CALHOURN, a village in W. Medina, in the Isle of Wight.

(1.) CALI, a town of South America, in Popayan, seated in the valley, (N. 2.) on the river Cauca. The governor of the province usually resides in it. Lon. 77. 5. W. Lat. 3. 15. N.

(2.) CALI, a valley in Popayan.

(3.) CALI. See KALI.

(1.) * CALIBER. *n. f.* [*calibre*, Fr.] The bore; the diameter of the barrel of a gun; the diameter of a bullet.

(2.) CALIBER, or CALIPER, properly denotes the diameter of any body; thus we say, two columns of the same caliber; the caliber of a bullet, &c.

(3.) CALIBER COMPASSES, CALIPER COM-

PASSES, or CALLIPERS, a sort of compasses with arched legs to take the diameter of round or swelling bodies. See COMPASSES. Caliber compasses, are chiefly used by gunners, for taking the diameters of the several parts of a piece of ordnance, or of bombs, bullets, &c. See § 4. 1. Their legs are therefore circular; and move on an arch of brass, whereon is marked the inches and half inches, to show how far the points of the compasses are opened asunder. The gaugers also sometimes use calibers, to embrace the two heads of any cask, in order to find its length. The calibers used by carpenters and joiners, are a piece of board notched triangular-wise in the middle for taking measures.

(4.) CALIBER COMPASSES, CALIBER RULE, or GUNNER'S CALLIPERS, are instruments where in a right line is so divided as that the first part being equal to the diameter of an iron or leaden ball of 1 lb. weight, the other parts are to the first as the diameters of balls of 2, 3, 4, &c. pounds are to the diameter of a ball of 1 lb. The caliber is used by engineers, from the weight of the ball given, to determine its diameter, or *vice versa*. The gunner's callipers consist of two thin plates of brass joined by a rivet, so as to move quite round each other: the length from the centre of the joint is between six inches and a foot, and the breadth from one to two inches; that of the most convenient size is about 9 inches long. Many scales, tables, and proportions, &c. may be introduced on this instrument; but none are essential to it, except those for taking the caliber of shot and cannon, and for measuring the magnitude of salient and entering angles. The most complete and best set of calipers, however, usually contain the following articles, viz. 1st, the measure of convex diameters in inches, &c. 2d, of concave diameters; 3d, the weight of iron shot of given diameters; 4th, the weight of iron shot for given gun bores; 5th, the degrees of a semicircle; 6th, the proportion of troy and avoirdupois weight; 7th, the proportion of English and French feet and pounds weight; 8th, factors used in circular and spherical figures; 9th, tables of the specific gravities and weight of bodies; 10th, tables of the quantity of powder necessary for the proof and service of brass and iron guns; 11th, rules for computing the number of shot or shells in a complete pile; 12th, rules for the fall or descent of heavy bodies; 13th, rules for the raising of water; 14th, rules for firing artillery and mortars; 15th, a line of inches; 16th, logarithmic scales of numbers, sines, versed sines, and tangents; 17th, a sectoral line of equal parts, or the line of lines; 18th, a sectoral line of planes and superficies; and 19th, a sectoral line of solids.

(5.) CALIBER COMPASSES, DESCRIPTION OF. These are fully exhibited in *Plate L. fig. 1*. The 4 faces of this instrument are distinguished by the letters A, B, C and D.—A and D consist of a circular head and leg; B and C consist only of a leg. On the circular head adjoining to the leg of the face A, are divisions denominated *shot diameters*; which show the distance in inches and tenths of an inch of the points of the callipers when they are opened; so that if a ball not exceeding ten inches be introduced between them, the bevel edge E marks its diameter among these divisions.

the circular bevil part E of the face B is a scale of divisions distinguished by *lb. weight of iron shot*. When the diameter of any shot is taken between the points of the callipers, the inner edge of the scale A shows its weight in avoirdupoise pounds, provided it be lb. $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, $1\frac{1}{2}$, 2, 3, 4, $5\frac{1}{2}$, 6, 8, 9, 16, 18, 24, 26, 32, 36, or 42; the figures are all the bevil edge answering to the short lines of the scale, and those behind them to the longer strokes. This scale is constructed on the following geometrical theorem, *viz.* that the weights of spheres are as the cubes of their diameters. On the lower part of the circular head of the face A is a scale of divisions marked *bore of guns*; for the use of which, the legs of the callipers are slipped across each other, till the steel points touch the concave surface of the gun in its greatest breadth; then the bevil edge F of the face B will show a division in the scale showing the diameter of the bore in inches and tenths. Within the scales of *shot* and *bore* diameters on the circular part of the face are divisions marked *pounders*: the inner figures 1, $1\frac{1}{2}$, 3, $5\frac{1}{2}$, 8, 12, 18, 26, 36, correspond to the longest lines; and the figures 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 12, 14, 24, 42, to the short strokes. When the diameter of a gun is taken between the points of the callipers, the bevil edge F will either cut or be near one of these divisions, and show the weight of iron-shot proper for that gun. On the upper part of the circular head of the face A are three concentric scales of degrees; the outer scale consisting of 180 degrees numbered from right to left, 10, &c. the middle numbered the contrary way, and the outer scale beginning at the middle with 0, and numbered on each side to 90 degrees. These scales serve to take the quantity of an angle, whether entering or saliant. For an entering or internal angle, apply the legs of the callipers so that the outward edges coincide with the legs of the angle, the degree cut by the bevil edge F of the outer scale shows the measure of the angle sought: for a saliant or external angle, slip the legs of the callipers across each other, so that their outward edges may coincide with the legs forming the angle, and the degree marked on the middle scale by the bevil edge E will show the measure of the angle required. The inner scale serves to determine the elevation of cannon, mortars, or of any oblique plane. Let one end of a thread be fixed into the notch on the face B, and any weight tied to the other end: apply the straight side of the plate A to the side of the body whose inclination is sought; hold it in this position, and move the plate B, till the bead falls upon the line near the centre marked 0. Then will the bevil edge F cut the degrees of the inner scale, showing the inclination of that body to the horizon. On the face C near the end of the callipers is a little table showing the proportion of troy and avoirdupoise weights, by which one kind of weight may be easily reduced to another. Near the extreme of the face D of the callipers are two tables showing the proportion between the pounds weight of London and Paris, also between the lengths of the foot measured in England and France. Near the extreme of the face A is a table containing four rules of

the circle and sphere; and geometrical figures annexed to them: the 1st is a circle including the proportion in round numbers of the diameter to its circumference; the 2d is a circle inscribed in a square, and a square within that circle, and another circle in the inner square; the numbers 28, 22, above this figure exhibit the proportion of the outward square to the area of the inscribed circle; and the numbers 14, 11, below it show the proportion between the area of the inscribed square and the area of its inscribed circle. The 3d is a cube inscribed in a sphere; and the number $89\frac{1}{2}$ shows that a cube of iron, inscribed in a sphere of 12 inches in diameter, weighs $89\frac{1}{2}$. The 4th is a sphere in a cube, and the 243 expresses the weight in pounds of a sphere inscribed in a cube whose side is 12 inches: the 5th represents a cylinder and cone of one foot diameter and height: the number in the cylinder shows, that an iron cylinder of that diameter and height weighs $364\frac{1}{2}$ lb. and the number 121.5 in the cone expresses the weight of a cone, the diameter of whose base is 12 inches, and of the same height; the sixth figure shows that an iron cube, whose side is 12 inches, weighs 464 lb. and that a square pyramid of iron, whose base is a square foot and height 12 inches, weighs $254\frac{1}{2}$ lb. The numbers which have been hitherto fixed to the 4 last figures were not strictly true; and therefore they have been corrected in the figure here referred to; and by these the figures on any instrument of this kind should be corrected likewise. On the leg B of the callipers, is a table showing the weights of a cubic inch or foot of various bodies in pounds avoirdupoise. On the face D of the circular head of the callipers is a table contained between five concentric segments of rings: the inner one marked *Guns* shows the nature of the gun or the weight of ball it carries; the two next rings contain the quantity of powder used for proof and service to brass guns, and the two outermost rings show the quantity for proof and service in iron cannon. On the face A is a table exhibiting the method of computing the *number of shot or shells* in a triangular, square, or rectangular pile. Near this is placed a table containing the principal rules relative to the *fall of bodies*, expressed in an algebraic manner: nearer the centre we have another table of rules for raising water, calculated on the supposition, that one horse is equal in this kind of labour to 5 men, and that one man will raise a hoghead of water to 8 feet of height in one minute, and work at that rate for some hours. N. B. Hogheads are reckoned at 60 gallons. Some of the leading principles in gunnery, relating to *shooting* in cannon and mortars, are expressed on the face B of the callipers. Besides the articles already enumerated, the scales usually marked on the sector are laid down on this instrument: thus, the line of inches is placed on the edge of the callipers, or on the straight borders of the faces C, D: the logarithmic scales of numbers, sines, versed-sines, and tangents, are placed along these faces near the straight edges: the line of lines is placed on the same faces in an angular position, and marked *Lin.* The lines of plains or superficies are also exhibited on the faces C and D, tending towards



me
or

my

a
the
se G.
ing
dy a

1.)
dian
re hoc
e succ

ven by

on this
war. It
it has
is very
arm, 4-
Canara,
fandy,
ic high-
m of a

1) tim-
v; cal-
coccu-
parrots
game.
untains
'alicut,
but at
his ne-
face of

andcur
derable
rather
cy had
we still
sub be
ave her
the co-
ne low-
roman
St. Luu

ach of
to they
her all
en she
ho, af-
educat-
paper;
by the
ore are
e flags,
years.
Portu-
ceded

above
k Roma-
tains a
has a
but is

l
l
C
jo
er
fri
cu
Lo
gul
or
part
leaf
fic
Vern
on do
them
Cedra
But it
St. Luu
Tres A
but ha
bundan
when t
chilled
died the
Jesuits
the el m
extremely
gels, and
800 miles
various
California
lawns, an
defects, in
California
culture of
cy of life
test, vapou

gent breezes, render it of a moderate temperature.

2.) CALIFORNIA, ANIMALS, &c. OF. This insula is stocked with all sorts of domestic animals known in Spain and Mexico. Among these animals is a species of deer of the size of an English heifer, and greatly resembling it in shape; its head is like that of a deer, and the horns thick and crooked like those of a ram. The eye is large, round, and cloven, the skin spotted, but the hair thinner, and the tail sharper than those of a deer. Its flesh is greatly esteemed. There is another animal peculiar to this country, larger and more bulky than a sheep, but greatly resembling it in figure, and covered with a fine black or white wool. The flesh is nourishing and delicious; and, nothing more is required than the trouble of hunting, as these animals wander about in droves in the forests and on the mountains. Torquemado describes a species of large deer, something like a buffalo, of the size of a horse, and nearly of the figure of a stag. Its hair is a quarter of a yard in length, its neck long and straight, and on its forehead are horns branched like those of a stag. The tail is a yard in length and half a yard in breadth; and the hoofs cloven like those of an ox. Venegas tells us, that the island is plentifully stored with peacocks, buffaloes, geese, cranes, and most of the birds common in other parts of the world. The quantity of fish which resort to these coasts are incredible. Salmon, turbot, barbel, skate, mackerel, &c. are caught with very little trouble; together with great numbers of oysters, lobsters, and a variety of exquisite shell-fish. Plenty of turtle are also caught on the coasts. On the South Sea coasts there is some shell fish peculiar to it, and perhaps the most beautiful in the world; their lustre surpassing that of the finest pearl, and parting their rays through a transparent varnish of an elegant vivid blue, like the lapis lazuli. The same of California pearls soon drew forth great numbers of adventurers, who searched every part of the coast; and many are still employed in that search, notwithstanding fashion has greatly diminished the value of this elegant natural production. Torquemado observes that the sea of California affords very rich pearl fisheries; and that the HOSTIAS beds of oysters, may be seen in 3 or 4 fathom water, almost as plain as if they were on the surface. The extremity of the peninsula towards Cape St Lucar is more level, temperate, and fertile, than the other parts, and consequently more productive. In the more distant parts, even to the remotest missions on the E. coast, no large timber has yet been discovered. A species of manna is found in this country, which has all the sweetness of refined sugar, but without its whiteness. The natives firmly believe that this juice drops from heaven.

3.) CALIFORNIA, HISTORY OF. In 1526, Ferdinand Cortez having reduced and settled Mexico, attempted the conquest of California; but was obliged to return, without even taking a survey of the country, a report of his death having dissuaded the Mexicans to a general insurrection. Some other attempts were made by the officers of Cortez, but these were also unsuccessful; and this

valuable coast was long neglected by the Spaniards, who, to this day, have but one settlement upon it. In 1595, a galleon was sent to make new discoveries on the Californian shore; but the vessel was unfortunately lost. Seven years after, the count de Monteroy, then viceroy of New Spain, sent Sebastian Biscayno on the same design with two ships and a tender; but he made no discovery of importance. In 1684, the marquis de Laguna, also viceroy of New Spain, dispatched two ships with a tender to make discoveries on the lake of California. He returned with an indifferent account, but was one of the first who asserted that California was not an island. In 1697, the Spaniards being discouraged by their losses and disappointments, the Jesuits solicited and obtained permission to undertake the conquest of California. They arrived among the savages with curiosities that might amuse them, corn for their food, and clothes for which they could not but perceive the necessity. The hatred these people bore the Spanish name could not support itself against these demonstrations of benevolence. They testified their acknowledgments, as much as their want of sensibility would permit them. The Jesuits pursued their projects with the warmth and resolution peculiar to their society. They commenced carpenters, masons, weavers, and husbandmen; and by such means succeeded in imparting knowledge, and in some measure a taste for the useful arts, to this savage people, who have been all successively formed into one body. In 1745, they composed 43 villages, separated from each other by the barrenness of the soil and the want of water. The inhabitants of these small villages subsist principally on corn and pulse, which they cultivate; and on the fruits and domestic animals of Europe, the breeding of which is an object of continual attention. The Indians have each their field, and the property of what they reap; but such is their want of foresight, that they would squander in a day what they had gathered, if the missionaries did not distribute it to them as they stand in need of it. They manufacture some coarse stuffs; and the necessaries they need are purchased with pearls, and with wine nearly resembling that of Madeira, which they sell to the Mexicans and to the galleons, but which experience hath shown the necessity of prohibiting in California. A few simple laws are sufficient to regulate this rising state. To enforce these, the missionary chooses the most intelligent person of the village; who is empowered to whip and imprison; the only punishments of which they have any knowledge. In all California there are only two garrisons, each consisting of 30 men and a soldier with every missionary. These troops were chosen by the legislators, though they are paid by the government. Were the court of Madrid to push their interest with half the zeal of the Jesuits, California might become one of the most valuable of their acquisitions, on account of the valuable articles of commerce which it contains. At present the little Spanish town near Cape St Lucar is used for no other purpose, than as a place of refreshment for the Manila ships, and the head residence of the missionaries.

(4.) CALIFORNIA, INHABITANTS OF. The Californian



middle of the 15th century, who asserted the use of the cup, as essential to the eucharist. They are not ranked by Romanists in the list of heretics, as in the main they still adhered to the doctrine of Rome. The reformation they aimed at extended only to 4 articles: 1. To restore the cup to the laity: 2. To subject criminal clergymen to punishment by the civil magistrate: 3. To strip the clergy of their lands, lordships, and all temporal jurisdiction: 4. To grant liberty to all capable priests to preach the word of God.

CALIXTUS, George, a celebrated divine, and professor at Helmstadt, in the duchy of Brunswick, who died in 1656. He opposed the opinion of St Augustin, on predestination, grace, and free-will, and endeavoured to form an union among the various members of the Romish, Lutheran, and reformed churches; or, rather, to join them in the bonds of mutual forbearance and charity.

* **To CALK.** *v. a.* [from *calage*, Fr. hemp, with which leaks are stopped; or from *cale*, Sax. the keel, *Skinner.*] To stop the leaks of a ship.—There is a great error committed in the manner of *calking* his majesty's ships; which being done with rotten oakum, is the cause they are leaky. *Raleigh's Essays.*—

So here some pick out bullets from the side;
Some drive old oakum through each seam and rift;

Their left-hand does the *calking* iron guide,
The rattling mallet with the right they lift.

Dryden.

CALKA, a kingdom of Tartary, in Asia, E. of Siberia.

CALKE-ABBEY, a village near Derby.

* **CALKER.** *n. s.* [from *calk.*] The workman that stops the leaks of a ship.—The ancients of Gebal, and the wise men thereof, were in thee thy *calkers*; all the ships of the sea, with their mariners, were in thee to occupy thy merchandize. *Ezek. xxvii. 9.*

(1.) * **CALKING.** *n. s.* A term in painting, used where the back side is covered with black lead, or red chalk, and the lines traced through on a waxed plate, wall, or other matter, by passing lightly over each stroke of the design with a point, which leaves an impression of the colour on the plate or wall. *Chambers.*

(2.) **CALKING.** See **CAULKING.**

CALKINS, the prominent parts at the extremities of a horse-shoe, bent downwards, and forged to a sort of point. They are apt to make horses trip; they also occasion bleymes, and ruin the back sinews. If fashioned in form of a hare's ear, and the horn of a horse's heel be pared a little low, they do little damage; whereas, the great square calkins quite spoil the foot. Calkins are either single or double, that is, at one end of the shoe, or at both: these last are deemed less hurtful, as the horses can tread more even.

(1.) * **CALL.** *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. A vocal address of summons or invitation.—

But death comes not at *call*, justice divine
Mends not her slowest pace, for pray'rs or cries.

Milton.

But would you sing, and rival Orpheus' strain,
The wond'ring forests soon should dance again:

The moving mountains hear the pow'rful *call*,
And headlong streams hang list'ning in their fall.

Pope.

2. Requisition authoritative and public.—It may be feared, whether our nobility would contentedly suffer themselves to be always at the *call*, and to stand to the sentence of a number of mean persons. *Hooker's Preface.*—3. Divine vocation; summons to true religion.—

Yet he at length, time to himself best known,
Rememb'ring Abraham, by some wond'rous *call*,

May bring them back repentant and sincere.

Milton.

4. A summons from heaven; an impulse.—

How justly then will impious mortals fall,
Whose pride would soar to heav'n without a *call*?

Roscommon.

Those who to empire by dark paths aspire,
Still plead a *call* to what they most desire. *Dryd.*
—St Paul himself believed he did well, and that he had a *call* to it, when he persecuted the christians, whom he confidently thought in the wrong: but yet it was he, and not they, who were mistaken. *Lake.*

5. Authority; command.—Oh! Sir, I wish he were within my *call*, or your's. *Denham.*

6. A demand; a claim.—Dependence is a perpetual *call* upon humanity, and a greater incitement to tenderness and pity, than any other motive whatsoever. *Addis. Spectator.* 7. An instrument to call birds.—For those birds or beasts were made from such pipes or *calls*, as may express the several tones of those creatures, which are represented. *Wilkin's Mathematical Magick.*

8. Calling; vocation; employment.—

Now, through the land, his cure of souls he stretch'd,

And, like a primitive apostle, preach'd:

Still cheerful, ever constant to his *call*;

By many follow'd, lov'd by most, admir'd by all.

Dryden.

9. A nomination.—Upon the sixteenth was held the serjeants feast at Ely place, there being nine serjeants of that *call.* *Bacon.*

(2.) **CALL**, among fowlers, the noise or cry of a bird, especially to its young, or to its mate in coupling time. One method of catching partridges is by the natural call of a hen trained for the purpose, which drawing the cocks to her, they are entangled in a net. Different birds require different sorts of calls; but most of them are composed of a pipe or reed, with a little leathern bag or purse, somewhat in form of a bellows; which, by the motion given thereto, yields a noise like that of the species of bird to be taken. The call for partridges is formed like a boat bored through, and fitted with a pipe or swan's quill, &c. to be blown with the mouth, to make the noise of the cock partridge, which is very different from the call of the hen. Calls for quails, &c. are made of a leathern purse in shape like a pear, stuffed with horse-hair, and fitted at the end with the bone of a cat's, hare's, or coney's leg, formed like a flageolet. They are played, by squeezing the purse in the palm of the hand, at the same time striking on the flageolet part with the thumb, to counterfeit the call of the hen quail.

(3.) **CALL**,

(3.) CALL, among hunters, a lesson blown upon the horn, to comfort the hounds.

(4.) CALL, among sailors, a sort of whistle or pipe, of silver or brass, used by the boatswain and his mates to summon the sailors to their duty, and direct them in the different employments of the ship. As the call can be sounded to various strains, each of them is appropriated to some particular exercise; such as hoisting, heaving, lowering, veering away, belaying, letting go a tackle, &c. The act of winding this instrument is called *piping*, which is as attentively observed by sailors as the beat of the drum to march, retreat, rally, charge, &c. is by soldiers.

(5.) CALL, an English name for the mineral called Tungsten or Wolfram by the Germans.

(6.) CALL OF THE HOUSE, in the British Parliament, is the calling over the names of the members, either to discover whether there be any in the house not returned by the clerk of the crown; or what members are absent without leave of the house, or just cause. In the former case, every person answers to his name, and departs out of the house, in the order wherein he is called. In the latter, each person stands up uncovered, at the mention of his name.

(1.) * To CALL. *v. a.* [*cale*, Lat. *kalder*, Dan.]
1. To name, to denominate.—And God *called* the light day, and the darkness he *called* night. *Gen. i. 5.*
2. To summon, or invite, to or from any place, thing or person. It is often used with local particles; as, *up, down, in, out, off*.—Be not amazed, *call* all your senses to you, defend my reputation, or bid farewell to your good life for ever. *Shakefp.*
—Why came not the slave back to me when I *called* him? *Shakefp. King Lear.*—

Are you *call'd* forth from out a world of men,
To slay the innocent? *Shakefp. Richard III.*
—Lodronius, that famous captain, was *called up*,
and told by his servants, that the general was fled. *Knolles's History.*—

Or *call up* him that left half told
The story of Cambuscan bold. *Milton.*
—Drunkenness *calls off* the watchmen from their
towers; and then evils proceed from a loose heart,
and an untied tongue. *Taylor's Holy Living.*—The
soul makes use of her memory, to *call* to mind
what she is to treat of. *Dippa's Rules to Devotion.*

Such fine employments our whole days divide,
The salutations of the morning tide
Call up the sun; those ended, to the hall
We wait the patron, here the lawyers bawl.

Dryden.
Then, by consent, abstain from further spoils,
Call off the dogs, and gather up the spoils. *Addis.*
—By the pleasures of the imagination or fancy, I
mean such as arise from visible objects, when we
call up their ideas into our minds by paintings,
statutes, or descriptions. *Addison's Spectator.*—

Why dost thou *call* my sorrows *up* afresh!
My father's name brings tears into my eyes.

Addison's Cato.
—I am *called off* from public dissertations, by a
domestic affair of great importance. *Tatler.*—Æs-
chylus has a tragedy entitled *Perse*, in which the
shade of Darius is *called up*. *Brown on the Odyssey.*
—The passions *call away* the thoughts, with in-
cessant importunity, toward the object that ex-

cited them. *Watts.* 3. To convoke; to summon
together.—

Now *call* we our high court of parliament.

Shakefp.
—The king being informed of much that had pas-
sed that night, sent to the lord mayor to *call* a
common council immediately. *Clarend.* 4. To
summon judicially.—The king had sent for the
earl to return home, where he should be *called* to
account for all his miscarriages. *Clarend.*—Once
a day, especially in the early years of life and study,
call yourselves to an account, what new ideas,
what new proposition or truth, you have gained.
Watts. 5. To summon by command.—In that
day did the Lord God of hosts *call* to weeping,
and to mourning, and to baldness, and to girding
with sackcloth. *Isaiab xxii. 12.* 6. In the theolo-
gical sense, to inspire with ardours of piety, or
to summon into the church.—Paul, a servant of
Jesus Christ, *called* to be an apostle, separated un-
to the gospel of God. *Rom. i. 1.* 7. To invoke;
to appeal to.—I *call* God for a record upon my
soul, that, to spare you, I came not as yet unto
Corinth. *2 Cor. i. 23.* 8. To appeal to.—When
that lord perplexed their counsels and designs,
with inconvenient objections in law, the authority
of the lord Manchester, who had trod the same
paths, was still *called* upon. *Clarend.* 9. To pro-
claim; to publish.—

Nor ballad-singer, plac'd above the croud,
Sings with a note so thrilling, sweet, and loud,
Nor parish clerk, who *calls* the psalm so clear.
Gay.
10. To excite; to put in action; to bring into
view.—

He swells with angry pride,
And *calls* forth all his spots on every side. *Corley.*
See Dionysius Homer's thoughts refine,
And *call* new beauties forth from ev'ry line. *Pope.*
11. To stigmatize with some opprobrious deto-
mination.—Deafness unqualifies me for all com-
pany, except friends; whom I can *call* names, if
they do not speak loud enough. *Swift to Pope.*
12. To *call back*. To revoke; to retract.—He also
is wise, and will bring evil, and will not *call back*
his words; but will arise against the house of the
evil doers; and against the help of them that work
iniquity. *Isaiab xxxi. 2.* 13. To *call for*. To de-
mand; to require; to claim.—

Madam, his majesty doth *call for* you,
And for your grace, and you, my noble lord.
Shakefp.
—You see, how men of merit are sought after;
the undeserver may sleep, when the man of action
is *called for*. *Shakefp.*—

Among them he a spirit of phrensy sent,
Who hurt their minds,
And urg'd you on, with mad desire,
To *call* in haste for their destroyer. *Milt. Ag.*
For master, or for servant, here to *call*,
Was all alike, where only two were all.

Dryden's Fables.
—He commits every sin that his appetite *calls for*,
or perhaps his constitution or fortune can bear.
Rogers. 14. To *call in*. To resume money at in-
terest.—Horace describes an old usurer, as so
charmed with the pleasures of a country life, that,
in order to make a purchase, he *called in* all his
money;

money; but what was the event of it? why, in a very few days after, he put it out again. *Addison's Spect.* 15. *To call in.* To resume any thing that is in other hands.—If clipped money be *called in* all at once, and stopped from passing by weight, I fear it will stop trade. *Locke.*—Neither is any thing more cruel and oppressive in the French government, than their practice of *calling in* their money, after they have sunk it very low, and then coining it anew, at a higher value. *Swift.*

16. *To call in.* To summon together; to invite.—
The heat is past, follow me no farther now;
Call in the pow'rs, good cousin Westmoreland.
Shakespeare.

He fears my subjects loyalty,
And now must *call in* strangers. *Denb. Sophy.*
17. *To call over.* To read aloud a list or muster-roll.

(2.) * *To CALL. v. n.* 1. To stop without intention of staying. This meaning probably rose from the custom of denoting one's presence at the door by a *call*; but it is now used with great latitude. This sense is well enough preserved by the particles *on* or *at*; but it is forgotten, and the expression made barbarous by *in*. 2. To make a short visit.—

And, as you go, *call on* my brother Quintus,
And pray him, with the tribunes, to come to me.
Ben Jonson.

—He ordered her to *call at* his house once a-week, which she did for some time after, when he heard no more of her. *Temple.*—That I might begin as near the fountain-head as possible, I first of all *called in* at St James's. *Addison's Spectator.*—We *called in* at Morge, where there is an artificial port. *Addison on Italy.* 3. *To call on.* To solicit for favour, or a debt.—I would be loth to pay him before his day; what need I be so forward with him, that *calls not on* me? *Shak. Henry IV.*
4. *To call on.* To repeat solemnly.—

Thrice *call upon* my name, thrice beat your breast,

And hail me thrice to everlasting rest. *Dryden.*
—The Athenians, when they lost any men at sea, went to the shores, and, *calling* thrice *on* their names, raised a cenotaph, or empty monument, to their memories. *Broome on the Odyssey.* 5. *To call out.* To challenge; to summon to fight.—

When their sov'reign's quarrel *calls 'em out*,
His foes to mortal combat they defy. *Dryd. Virg.*
6. *To call upon.* To implore; to pray to.—*Call upon* me in the day of trouble; I will deliver thee, and thou shalt glorify me. *Psalms i. 15.*

CALLA, AFRICAN OR ETHIOPIAN ARUM: A genus of the polyandria order, in the gynandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 2d order, Piperitæ. The spatha is plain; the spadix covered with florets; there is no calyx; no petals; and the berries monospermous. There is but one species. It has thick, fleshy, tuberous roots, which are covered with a thin brown skin, and strike down many strong fleshy fibres into the ground. The leaves have footstalks more than a foot long, which are green and succulent. The leaves are shaped like the point of an arrow; they are 8 or 9 inches long, ending in a sharp point, which turns backward; between the leaves arise the footstalk of the flow-

er, which is thick, smooth, of the same colour as the leaves, rises above them, and is terminated by a single flower, shaped like those of the arum; the spatha is twisted at bottom, but spreads open at the top, and is of a pure white colour. When the flowers fade, they are succeeded by roundish fleshy berries, compressed on two sides, each containing 2 or 3 seeds. This plant grows naturally at the Cape of Good Hope. It propagates very fast by off-sets, which should be taken off in the end of August, at which time the old leaves decay; for at this time the roots are in their most inactive state. They are so hardy as to live without any cover in mild winters, if planted in a warm border and dry soil; but, with a little shelter they may be preserved in full growth, even in hard frost.

CALLAA, a town of Barbary, in Tremesen.
CALLAGHANS MILLS, a village of Ireland, in Clare county, Munster.

CALLAGHENE, in Fermanagh, Ireland.

CALLALY HALL, a village of England, 4 m. W. of Alnwick, Northumberland.

(1.) **CALLAN**, a mountain of Clare, Ireland.

(2, 3.) **CALLAN**, two towns of Ireland; 1. in Kerry; and 2. in Kilkenny, 65 m. from Dublin.

(1.) **CALLANDER**, a parish of Scotland in Perthshire, of which the rev. Dr James Robertson, the minister, has given a very complete description, in Sir J. Sinclair's *Stat. Acc.* Vol. XI. The most probable etymology is from *Caldin-doir*, Gael. i. e. *a hazel grove*; these trees abounding in the parish. It consists of the two ancient parishes of **LENEY** and **INCHMAHOMO**. It extends from E. to W. about 24 miles in length, and its breadth at the E. end is about 15; resembling in form, a fan half spread. It is situated between 1°. 0'. and 1°. 24' Lon. W. of Edinburgh, and between 56°. 15'. and 56°. 21'. Lat. N. Its surface is mountainous, and was formerly quite bleak with heath, but by the introduction of sheep, has assumed a verdant hue within these 36 years. The high grounds are also interspersed with thriving oak woods and plantations; and the bold stupendous rock above the village diversifies the scene and forms a fine contrast to the valley, and the meanderings of the river **TEATH** below. In a word, for beautiful scenery, romantic prospects, and a diversified assemblage of the wildness and rude grandeur of nature, few, if any places in Britain, (perhaps in the world,) excel the parish of Callander. See **BEN-LEDI**, and **TROSACHS**. It affords a fine field, both for the botanist and mineralogist; and abounds in lime-stone, marble, slates, free-stone, and a beautiful species of cemented rock, called the **PLUMB-PUDDING** stone. The climate is highly salubrious, and the people live to a great age. Instances of persons reaching 100 and upwards are not wanting. The population in 1791 was 2100, and had increased 350, since 1755, notwithstanding emigrations. At that period there were 350 horses, 18,000 sheep, and 2400 black cattle in the parish. Of the animals called game there are great numbers. The soil is a light gravel, not rich, but greatly improved, agriculture being in a very advanced state, and feudal services abolished. The roads and bridges are good; but manufactures are greatly wanted.
The--

There are 9 mills of various kinds; and 3 kilns in the parish. Wood to the value of about L. 15,000 is cut once in 25 years. The inhabitants are industrious and extremely charitable. Their language is the Gaelic. English is spoken only by those of rank and education.

(2.) **CALLANDER**, a thriving village in the above parish, (N. 1.) containing 190 families, and about 1000 inhabitants, in 1791. The houses are built upon a regular plan, with stones and lime, and covered with blue slates. It is ornamented with an elegant church, which was built about 24 years ago, and has a spire. It has also a good school, where the learned languages, and all the useful sciences are taught, on moderate terms. About 80 scholars from all parts of Britain, and some from abroad, attend it. The prosperity of this village is greatly owing to Mr Drummond of Perth the proprietor, who has sewed the ground to the inhabitants, in small lots of one rood each, at L. 7. 10s. premium, and 5s. yearly feu duty; and thus made the whole village the property of the inhabitants. He also allows them mofs, thatch, and stones free; and has relieved them from imposts, &c. at the fairs; of which there are two great ones, held 21st March, O. S. and 16th May; besides 3 smaller, for country business. The only manufactures are the spinning of woollen and linen yarn. The village is protected from the blasts of Boreas, by a stupenduous rock, stuck full of firs and natural wood, growing in the soil between the shelves. Over this rock falls a cascade, several hundred feet high.

CALLAO, a strong town of South America, in Peru. It is the port of Lima, from which it is distant about 5 miles. The town is built on a low flat point of land on the sea-shore. It is fortified; but the fortifications were much damaged by the last great earthquake, and have not since been repaired. The town is not above 9 or 10 feet above the level of the sea. The tide does not commonly rise or fall above 5 feet. The streets are drawn in a line; but are full of dust, which is very troublesome. In a square near the sea-side are the governor's house, the viceroy's palace, the parish church, and a battery of 3 pieces of cannon. On the N. side are the warehouses for the merchandise brought from Chili, Mexico, Peru, and other places. The other churches are built with reeds, and covered with timber or clay, but they look tolerably neat. There are 5 monasteries and an hospital, though the number of families does not exceed 400. The trade of Callao is considerable. From Chili it imports cordage, leather, tallow, dried fish, and corn; from Chiloe, cedar planks, woollen manufactures, and carpets; from Peru, sugars, wines, brandy, masts, cordage, timber for shipping, cacao, tobacco and molasses; from Mexico, pitch, tar, woods for dyeing, sulphur and balsam of Peru; besides commodities from China. At the port of Callao the watering is easy, but the wood is a mile or two distant. Earthquakes are frequent and have done vast mischief to Lima and Callao. Lon. 76. 15. W. Lat. 12. 29. S.

CALLA-SUJUNG, or } a town of Asia, in the
CALLA-SUSUNG, } island of Bouton, seated about a mile from the sea, on the top of a

small hill surrounded with cocoa nut trees. See **BOUTON**.

* **CALLAT**, **CALLET**. *n. s.* a trull.—

He call'd her whore: a beggar, in his drick,
Could not have laid such terms upon his *callet*.
Shakespeare.

CALLE, in ancient geography, a town of Lither Spain, seated on an eminence, which bore over the river Durus. It is now called **OPORTO**.

CALLEN, a town of Ireland in Kilkenny, 19 m. S. W. of Kilkenny. Lon. 7. 22. W. Lat. 51. 25. N.

* **CALLET**. See **CALLAT**.

CALLEVA, in ancient British geography, a town of the Attrebates; now called **WALLINGFORD**. See **ATREBATES**, N. 2.

CALLIAS, the cousin german of Aristides the Just, but of a character the very opposite of the disinterested hero. At the battle of Marathon, Callias being a torch-bearer, and in virtue of his office, having a fillet on his head, one of the Persians took him for a king, and, falling down at his feet, discovered to him a vast quantity of gold hid in a well. Callias not only seized, and applied it to his own use, but had the cruelty to kill the poor man who discovered it to him, that he might not mention it to others; by which inhuman action he entailed on his posterity the name of **LACCOPLUTI**, or *enriched by the well*. The only good action recorded of him is his generosity in relieving his brother-in-law, Cimon, from prison, by paying the heavy fine to which he was so unjustly and ungratefully subjected by the Athenians. See **ATTICA**, § 9, & 11.

CALLIBLEPHARA, [from *καλλος*, beauty, and *βλεφαρον*, eye-lid,] in ancient medical writers, a name given to certain compositions intended to make the eye-lids beautiful.

CALICARPA. See **JOHNSONIA**.

CALLICHTHUS, in ichthyology, a name given to the **ANTHIAS**, a small, but beautiful fish caught in the Adriatic, and supposed to be a certain token of there being no voracious fishes near the place where it is found.

CALLICO, in commerce, a sort of cloth resembling linens made of cotton. The name is taken from that of **CALICUT**, the first place at which the Portuguese landed when they discovered the India trade. The Spaniards still call it *callicu*. Callicoes are of different kinds, plain, printed, painted, stained, dyed, chintz, mullins, and the like, all included under the general denomination of *callicoes*. Some of them are painted with various flowers of different colours: others are not stained, but have a stripe of gold and silver quite through the piece, and at each end is fixed a tissue of gold, silver, and silk, intermixed with flowers. The printing of callicoes was first set on foot in London about 1676, and have long been a most important article of commerce.

CALLICRATES, an ancient sculptor, who engraved some of Homer's verses on a grain of millet, made an ivory chariot that might be concealed under the wing of a fly, and an ant of ivory in which all the members were distinct. *Ælian* justly blames him for exerting his genius and talents in things so useless, and at the same time so difficult. He flourished about A. A. C. 400.

CALLI

CALLIDON, a town of Ireland, in Tyrone, Ulster, 70 m. from Dublin.

(1.) **CALLIDRYS**, in ornithology, a name given by Bellonius and others to the water bird called the *red-shank*.

(2.) **CALLIDRYS NIGRA**, in ornithology, a bird described by Bellonius, supposed to be the bird called the *knot*.

CALLIFORNIA. See **CALIFORNIA**.

CALLIGONUM, in botany, a genus of the Euginia order, belonging to the polyandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 12th order, *Holoraceæ*. The calyx is pentaphyllous, without petals or styles; the fruit hispid and monospermous. There is but one species, which is found on Mount Ararat.

CALLIGRAPHUS, [from *καλλος*, beauty, and *γραφο*, I write;] anciently denoted a copyist, or scrivener, who transcribed fair and at length what the notaries had taken down in notes or minutes. The minutes of acts, &c. were always taken in a kind of cypher, or short-hand; such as the notes of Tyro in Gruter: by which means the notaries, as the Latins called them, or the *σημειογραφον* and *σημειογραφοι*, as the Greeks called them, were enabled to keep pace with a speaker. These notes being understood by few, were copied over fair, and at full length, by *Calligraphi*, persons who had a good hand, for sale, &c.

CALLIGRAPHY, the art of fair writing. Calligrates is said to have written an elegant distich on a sesamum seed: Junius speaks of a person, as very extraordinary, who wrote the apostles' creed, and beginning of St John's gospel, in the compass of a farthing: What would he have said of our famous Peter Bale, who in 1575 wrote the Lord's prayer, creed, ten commandments, and two short prayers in Latin; with his own name, motto, day of the month, year of the Lord, and reign of the queen, in the compass of a single penny, inclosed in a ring and border of gold, and covered with a crystal, all so accurately written as to be very legible with a magnifying glass?

(1.) **CALLIMACHUS**, a celebrated architect, painter, and sculptor; born at Corinth; who having seen by accident a vessel about which the plant called *acanthus* had raised its leaves, conceived the idea of forming the Corinthian capital. See **ACANTHUS**, and *Plate XX*. The ancients assure us, that he worked in marble with wonderful delicacy. He flourished about A. A. C. 540.

(2.) **CALLIMACHUS**, a celebrated Greek poet, native of Cyrene in Libya, flourished under Ptolemy Philadelphus and Ptolemy Euergetes kings of Egypt, about A. A. C. 280. He passed, according to Quintilian, for the prince of the Greek elegiac poets. His style is elegant, delicate; and nervous. He wrote a great number of small poems, of which we have only some hymns and epigrams remaining. Catullus has closely imitated him, and translated into Latin verse his small poem on the locks of Berenice. Callimachus was also a good grammarian and a learned critic. There is an edition of his remains, by Mess. Le Fevre, 4to, and another in 2 volumes 8vo with notes by Spanheim, Grævius, Bentley, &c. Dr Tytler of Brechin has translated his poems into English verse.

CALLIMUS, or **CALAINUS**, in physiology, a

stony substance mentioned by Pliny, found in the cavity of the *ÆTITES*, or eagle stone. It fills the hollow of the *ætites*, much as the yoke does the white of an egg.

(1.) * **CALLING**. *n. s.* [from *call*.] 1. Vocation; profession; trade.—If God has interwoven such a pleasure with our ordinary *calling*, how much superior must that be, which arises from the survey of a pious life? Surely, as much as Christianity is nobler than a trade. *South*.—We find ourselves obliged to go on in honest industry in our *callings*. *Rogers*.—I cannot forbear warning you against endeavouring at wit in your sermons; because many of your *calling* have made themselves ridiculous by attempting it. *Swift*.—

I left no *calling* for this idle trade;

No duty broke, no father disobey'd. *Pope*.

2. Proper station, or employment.—The Gauls found the Roman senators ready to die with honour in their *callings*. *Swift*. 3. Class of persons united by the same employment or profession.—It may be a caution to all christian churches and magistrates, not to impose celibacy on whole *callings*, and great multitudes of men or women, who cannot be supposable to have the gift of continence. *Hammond*. 4. Divine vocation; invitation or impulse to the true religion.—Give all diligence to make your *calling* and election sure. *1 Peter i. 10*.—St Peter was ignorant of the *calling* of the Gentiles. *Haleswill on Providence*.

(2.) **CALLING THE HOUSE**. See **CALL**, § 6.

CALLINICUS of Heliopolis, inventor of a composition to burn in the water, called the *Greek*; and since *Wild Fire*. See **FIRE**, **GRECIAN**.

CALLINUS of Ephesus, a very ancient Greek poet, inventor of elegiac verse; some specimens of which are to be found in the collection of Stobæus. He flourished A. A. C. 776.

CALLION, in botany, a name given by Pliny, and some other authors to the **ALKEKENGI**, or winter cherry.

CALLIONYMUM, in botany, a name given by some authors to the lily of the valley. See **CONVALLARIA**.

CALLIONYMUS, the **DRAGONET**, in ichthyology, a genus of fishes belonging to the order of jugularies. The upper lip is doubled up; the eyes are very near each other; the membrane of the gills has six radii; the operculum is shut; the body is naked; and the belly fins are at a great distance from each other. There are 3 species; viz.

1. **CALLIONYMUS DRACUNCULUS**, with the first bone of the back fin shorter than its body, which is of a spotted yellow colour. It frequents the shores of Genoa and Rome.

2. **CALLIONYMUS INDICUS** has a smooth head, with longitudinal wrinkles; the lower jaw is a little longer than the upper one; the tongue is obtuse and emarginated; the apertures of the gills are large: it is of a livid colour, and the anus is in the middle of the body. It is a native of Asia.

3. **CALLIONYMUS LYRA** with the first bone of the back fin as long as the body of the animal, and a cirrus at the anus. It is found as far N. as Norway and Spitzbergen, and as far S. as the Mediterranean sea. It is not unfrequent on the

Scarborough coasts, where it is taken by the hook in 30 or 40 fathoms water. It is often found in the stomach of the cod.

CALLIOPE, [from *καλλος*, beauty, and *οψ*, voice,] in the Pagan mythology, the Muse who presides over eloquence and heroic poetry. She was fabled to have a very sweet voice, and was reckoned the first of the nine sisters. Horace styles her *Regina*. Her distinguishing office was to record the worthy actions of the living; and accordingly she is represented with tablets in her hand.

CALLIPÆDIA, the art of getting or breeding beautiful children. We find divers rules relating to this art, in ancient and modern writers. Among the magi, a sort of medicine called *ermesia* was administered to pregnant women, as a means of producing a beautiful issue. Of this kind were the kernels of pine nuts ground with honey, myrrh, saffron, palm wine, and milk. The Jews are said to have been so solicitous about the beauty of their children, that they had some very beautiful child placed at the door of the public baths, that the women at going out being struck with his appearance, and retaining the idea, might all have children as fine as he. The Chinese take still greater care of their breeding women, to prevent uncouth objects of any kind from striking their imagination. Musicians are employed at night to entertain them with agreeable songs and odes, in which are set forth all the duties and comforts of a conjugal and domestic life; that the infant may receive good impressions even before it is born, and not only come forth agreeable in form of body, but be well disposed in mind. Callipædia, seems to have been first erected into a just art by Claude Quillet de Chinon, a French abbot, who, under the fictitious name of *Calvidius Letus*, published a fine Latin poem in 4 books, under the title of *Callipædia, seu de pulchræ prolis habendæ ratione*; wherein are contained all the precepts of that new art. Mr Rowe translated it into English verse.

(1.) * **CALLIPERS**. *n. f.* [Of this word I know not the etymology, nor does any thing more probable occur, than that, perhaps, the word is corrupted from *clippers*, instruments with which any thing is *clipped*, inclosed or embraced.] Compafses with bowed thanks.—*Callipers* measure the distance of any round, cylindrick, conical body, so that, when workmen use them, they open the two points to their described width, and turn so much stuff off the intended place, till the two points of the *callipers* fit just over their work. *Moxon's Mechanical Exercises*.

(2.) **CALLIPERS**. See **CALIBER**, § 1—6.

CALLIPOLIS, in ancient geography, the name of several cities of antiquity, particularly one upon the Hellespont, next the Propontis, and opposite to Lampacus in Asia; now called **GALLIPOLI**.

CALLIPPIC PERIOD. See **CALIPPIC**.

(1.) **CALLIRRHOE**, in ancient geography, called also **ENNEACRUNOS**, from its 9 springs, a fountain not far from Athens, greatly adorned by Pisistratus, where there were several wells, but this was only the running spring.

(2.) **CALLIRRHOE** was also the name of a very fine spring of hot water beyond Jordan near the Dead Sea, into which it runs.

CALLISIA, in botany: A genus of the monogynia order, in the triandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 6th order, *Ensatæ*. The calyx is triphyllous; the petals are three; the antheræ are double; and the capsule is bilocular. There is but one species, a native of America.

CALLISTHENES, the philosopher, disciple and relation of Aristotle, by whose desire he accompanied Alexander the Great in his expeditions; but proving too severe a censurer of the hero's conduct, he was put by him to the torture, on suspicion of a treasonable conspiracy, and died under it, A. A. C. 323.

CALLISTIA, in Grecian antiquity, a Lesbian festival, wherein the women presented themselves in Juno's temple, and the prize was assigned to the fairest. There was another of these contractions at the festival of Ceres Eleutinia among the Parrhasians; and another among the Eleans, where the most beautiful man was presented with a complete suit of armour, which he consecrated to Minerva; to whose temple he walked in procession, accompanied by his friends, who adorned him with ribbons, and crowned him with a garland of myrtle.

CALLISTO, in fabulous history, the daughter of Lycaon, king of Arcadia, and one of Diana's nymphs. Jupiter falling in love with her, and finding intreaty vain, assumed the form of Diana, and got her with child. In due time she was delivered of **ARCAS**. Juno enraged, turned her into a she bear. Mean time, Arcas grew up, and became a famous hunter when he was 15 years of age; but as he was just going to shoot his mother, not knowing her in her savage form, Jupiter interposed to prevent the parricide, and translated them both to the stars, where they became the constellations, called the *greater and lesser bear*. *Ovid. Metam. Lib. II. Fab. 5*.

CALLISTRATUS, an excellent Athenian orator, who was banished for having obtained too great an authority in the government. Demetrius was so struck with the force of his eloquence, and the glory that it procured him, that he abandoned philosophy, and resolved from thenceforward to apply himself to oratory.

CALLISTUS, John Andronicus, one of the modern Greeks, to whom the world is indebted for bringing learning into the West, after the Eastern empire was overturned by the Turks, in 1453. He was a native of Thessalonica, and professor of peripatetic philosophy in Constantinople, where he was much esteemed for his learning. When that city was taken, he fled to Rome, where he read lectures on Aristotle, and afterwards moved to Florence, where he had a vast concourse of disciples: among whom were Angelus Politianus, Janus Pannomius, George Valla, and others. Towards the end of his life, he removed to France, where he died, in an advanced age, with the character of a learned and worthy man. He left some Greek MSS. particularly one, in the public library at Paris, entitled *A Monody on the Migrations of Constantinople*.

CALLITRICHE, or **STA-GRASS**, in botany: A genus of the digynia order, in the monandria class of plants; and in the natural method rank-

ag under the 12th order, Holoraceæ. It has no calyx, but two petals, and the capsule is bilocular and tetraspermous.

CALLIVA. See ATREBATES, N. 2. and CALLEVA.

CALLOO, a fortress in the Netherlands, in the territory of Waes, on the Scheld. The Dutch were defeated here by the Spaniards in 1638. Lon. 4. 10. E. Lat. 51. 15. N.

CALLOSCOPIUM. See BELVEDERE, N. 1.

(1.) * CALLOSITY. *n. f.* [*callosité*, Fr.] A kind of swelling without pain, like that of the skin by hard labour; and therefore, when wounds, or the edges of ulcers, grow so, they are said to be callous. *Quincy*.—The surgeon ought to vary the diet of his patient, as he finds the fibres loosen too much, are too flaccid, and produce funguses, or as they harden or produce *callosities*; in the worst case, wine and spirituous liquors are useful, and the least hurtful. *Arbutnot on Dist.*

(2.) CALLOSITY. See CALLUS, § 2.

CALLOSUM CORPUS. See ANATOMY, *Index*.

CALLOT, James, a celebrated engraver, born at Nancy, in 1593. In his youth he travelled to Rome to learn designing and engraving; and from thence went to Florence, where the grand duke took him into his service. After the death of that prince, Callot returned to his native country; when Henry, duke of Lorraine, settled a considerable pension upon him. His reputation being soon after spread all over Europe, the infants of the Netherlands drew him to Brussels, where he engraved the siege of Breda. Louis XIII. made him design the sieges of Rochelle, and Rhe. Having taken Nancy in 1631, he proposed that Callot should represent the new conquest, as he had already done the others: but Callot begged to be excused; and some courtiers resolving to oblige him to do it, he answered, that he would sooner cut off his thumb, than do any thing against the honour of his prince and country. This excuse the king accepted; and said, that the duke of Lorraine was happy in having such faithful and affectionate subjects. Callot followed his business so closely, that, though he died at 43 years of age, he is said to have left of his own execution 1500 pieces. The following are a few of the principal. 1. The murder of the innocents; 2. The marriage of Cana Galilee; 3. The passion of Christ, on 12 very small upright plates: first impressions very scarce. 4. St John in the island of Patmos; 5. The temptation of St Anthony; 6. The punishments; the execution of several criminals. 7. The miseries of wars; in 18 small plates. 8. The great fair of Florence; 9. The little fair, or players at bowls; this is one of the scarcest of Callot's prints; and is very difficult to meet with a fine impression of it. 10. The tilting, or the new street of Nancy; 11. The Garden of Nancy; 12. View of the fort Neuf; 13. View of the Louvre; 14. Four landscapes.

* CALLOUS. *n. f.* [*callus*, Lat.] 1. Indurated; hardened; having the pores shut up.—In progress of time, the ulcers became sinous and callous, with induration of the glands. *Wiseman*. Hardened; insensible.—Licentiousness has so long passed for sharpness of wit, and greatness of

mind, that the conscience is grown *callous*. *L'Estrange*.—

The wretch is drench'd too deep,
His soul is stupid, and his heart asleep:
Fatten'd in vice, so *callous* and so gross,
He sins, and sees not, senseless of his loss. *Dryd.*

* CALLOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *callous*.] 1. Hardness; induration of the fibres.—The oftner we use the organs of touching, the more of these scales are formed, and the skin becomes the thicker, and so a *callousness* grows upon it. *Cheyne*. 2. Insensibility.—If they let go their hope of everlasting life with willingness, and entertain final perdition with exultation, ought they not to be esteemed destitute of common sense, and abandoned to a *callousness* and numbness of soul? *Bentley*.

(1.) * CALLOW. *adj.* Unfledged; naked; without feathers.—

Bursting with kindly rapture, forth disclos'd
Their *callow* young. *Milton*.

Then, as an eagle, who, with pious care,
Was beating widely on the wing for prey,
To her now silent airy does repair,
And finds her *callow* infants forc'd away. *Dryd.*
How in small flights they know to try their
young,

And teach the *callow* child her parent's song. *Prior*.

(2.) CALLOW HILL, in Fermanagh, Ireland.

(3.) CALLOW HILL, near Blith, Stafford.

CALLOW-LAND, a village near Watford, Hertfordshire.

CALLOWS, near Chippenham, Wiltshire.

(1.) * CALLUS. *n. f.* [Latin.] 1. An induration of the fibres. 2. The hard substance by which broken bones are united.

(2.) CALLUS, or CALLOSITY, in a general sense, is any cutaneous, corneous, or osseous hardness, whether natural or preternatural; but most frequently it means the callus generated about the edges of a fracture, provided by nature to preserve the fractured bones, or divided parts, in the situation in which they are replaced by the surgeon. A callus, in this sense, is a sort of jelly, or liquid viscous matter, that sweats out from the small arteries and bony fibres of the divided parts, and fills up the chinks or cavities between them. It first appears of a cartilaginous substance; but at length becomes quite bony, and joins the fractured part so firmly together, that the limb will often make greater resistance to any external violence with this part, than with those which were never broken. Callus is also a hard, dense, insensible knob, rising on the hands, feet, &c. by much friction and pressure against hard bodies.

CALLYCHTHIS, in ichthyology, a species of the SALURUS.

(1.) * CALM. *adj.* [*calme*, Fr. *kalm*, Dutch.] 1. Quiet; serene; not stormy; not tempestuous; applied to the elements.—

Calm was the day, and, through the trembling air,
Sweet breathing Zephyrus did softly play
A gentle spirit, that lightly did allay
Hot Titan's beams, which then did glister fair. *Spenser*.



y
 d
 'h
 is
 'hu
 utu
 my
 don
 as
 oots
 oil a
 plac
 ter,
 f the
 ariety
 d, an
 stitut
 d with
 de yel-
 l to be
 eat in
 then,
 ation,
 y, the
 pave-
 up eat
 le.
 near
 of E.
 E. of
 ' hill,
 parish
 . By
 ained
 rle.
 Edin-
 r) is
 See
 l.
 lva.
 r. An
 which
 them
 ound
 very
 ' Ad-
 mon
 noug
 : feet
 tion-
 rder
 four
 that
 4th
 dy 3
 (a.)
 rthe
 h, in
 d.)
 ave,
 . by
 ,
 ,
 s
 s
 v
 ge.
 cu
 dit
 as
 the
 are,
 lepu
 stic
 (2.
 tries
 hilloc
 Jesus
 'Calvar
 compa
 which
 mysteri
 (3.) C
 because
 our suffe
 e To
 a calf, if
 Whe
 And for
 a. It is ufc
 ing forth ,
 preach.—
 I woul
 Though I
 are r
 Though c
 The gro
 pear d
 The law-oy
 His hand,
 CALVIN,
 CAVERLE
 Minihul : 2 :
 CALVERO

(1.) CALVERT, a county of the United States, the Western Shore of Maryland; bounded on E. by the Chesapeake; on the N. by Anne-undel county; and on the S. and W. by the Patuxent. It is $33\frac{1}{2}$ m. long from the mouth of the Patuxent to Lion's Creek, and $19\frac{1}{2}$ broad. It contains 4347 free inhabitants and 4305 slaves. The surface is hilly and the soil sandy; but it produces good crops of Indian corn, though the tobacco is of an inferior quality. Prince-Frederick is the chief town.

(2.) CALVERT, George, afterwards Lord Baltimore, was born at Kiplin, in Yorkshire, about 1582, and educated at Oxford, where he took a degree of B. A. and afterwards travelled. At his return, he was made secretary to Sir Robert Cecil; he was afterwards knighted, and in 1618, appointed one of the principal secretaries of state. After he had enjoyed that office about 5 years, he resigned it, telling king James, that he was become a Roman catholic, so that he must either be wanting to his trust, or violate his conscience in discharging his office. This ingenious confession so affected the king, that he continued him his privy counsellor all his reign, and created him Baron Baltimore. He afterwards obtained a grant of a country on the N. part of Virginia from Charles I. who called it MARYLAND, in honour of his queen; but he died in April 1632, aged 50, before the patent was made out. It was, however, filled up to his son Cecil, Lord Baltimore; and bears date June 20th 1632. It is held from the crown as part of the manor of Windsor, on one singular condition, viz. to present two Indian arrows yearly, on Easter Tuesday, at the castle, where they are kept and shown to visitors. His lordship wrote, 1. A Latin poem on the death of Henry Upton. 2. Speeches in parliament. 3. Various letters of state. 4. The answer of John Tell-Truth. 5. The practice of princes. 6. The lamentation of the Kirk.

CALVERTHORP, a village in Lincolnshire, 7. of Sleaford.

CALVERTON, two small towns: 1. in Bucks, 2 m. from Stony-Stratford: 2. in Nottinghamshire S. of Sherwood Forest.

CALVES ISLANDS, three isles of Ireland, on the coast of the county of Cork, between Cape Clear and the Main.

(1.) * CALVES-SNOUT. [*antirrhinum*.] A plant. Capdragon.

(2.) CALVES-SNOUT. See ANTIRRHINUM.

CALVET HEATH lies in Staffordshire.

CALVET-HOUSE, near Mucker, Yorkshire.

(1.) CALVI, a sea port of Corsica, seated on a mountain, on the bay, (N. 3.) 30 m. S. W. of Bastia. It was taken by Gen. Stuart, Aug. 10. 1794, after a siege of 51 days. Lon. 9. 15. E. Lat. 42. 26. N.

(2.) CALVI, a town of Naples, in Lavoro, situated near the sea, about 15 m. N. of Naples. Lon. 14. 45. E. Lat. 41. 25. N.

(3.) CALVI BAY, or GULF, is situated on the N. side of the Island of Corsica.

* CALVILLE. *n. f.* [French.] A sort of apple.

CALVIN, John, the celebrated reformer of the Christian church from Romish superstitions and doctrinal errors, and founder of the sect since called CALVINISTS, was born in 1509. He was the son

of a cooper of Noyon in Picardy; and his real name was CHAUVIN, which he latinized into *Calvinus*, styling himself in the title-page to his first work, (a Commentary on *Seneca de clementia*,) "Lucius Calvinus, Civis Romanus." This trifling circumstance some have represented as "an early proof of his pride;" but it seems rather an evidence of his modesty, in thus concealing his name under an anonymous title. At the worst, it was but a pardonable piece of vanity, in a young author, as he was then only 24 years of age. In 1529, he was rector of Pont l'Eveque; and in 1534 he threw up this benefice, separating himself entirely from the Romish church. The persecution against the Protestants in France, with whom he was now associated, obliged him to retire to Basle in Switzerland: Here he published his famous *Institutes of the Christian Religion*, in 1535. The following year, he was chosen professor of divinity, and one of the ministers of the church, at Geneva. In 1537, he made all the people solemnly swear to a body of doctrines; but finding that religion had not yet had any great influence on the morals of the people, he, assisted by other ministers, declared, that since all their admonitions and warnings had proved unsuccessful, they could not celebrate the holy sacrament as long as these disorders reigned; he also declared, that he could not submit to some regulations made by the synod of Berne. Upon which the Syndics having summoned the people, it was ordered that Calvin and two other ministers should leave the city within two days. Upon this Calvin retired to Strasburg, where he established a French church, of which he was the first minister, and was also chosen professor of divinity there. Two years after, he was chosen to assist at the diet appointed by the emperor to meet at Worms at Ratisbon, in order to appease the troubles occasioned by the new doctrines. He went with Bucer, and entered into a conference with Melancthon. The people of Geneva now entreated him to return; to which he consented, and arrived at Geneva, Sept. 13th, 1541. He began with establishing a form of ecclesiastical discipline, and a consistorial jurisdiction, with the power of inflicting all kinds of canonical punishments. This was disliked by many, who imagined that the papal tyranny would soon be revived. Calvin, however, asserted on all occasions the rights of his consistory with inflexible strictness; and he caused Michael Servetus to be burnt at the stake for writing against the doctrine of the Trinity. But though the rigour of his proceedings sometimes occasioned great tumults in the city, yet nothing could shake his steadiness. Among all the disturbances of the commonwealth, he took care of the foreign churches in England, France, Germany, and Poland; and did more by his pen than his presence, sending his advice and instructions by letter, and writing a great number of books. This great reformer died May 27, 1564, aged 55. His works were printed together at Amsterdam in 1671, in 9 vols. folio: the principal of which are his *Institutions* in Latin; (the best edit. is that of Robert Stephens in 1553, in folio;) and his *Commentaries* on the Holy Scriptures. Calvin is universally allowed to have had great talents, an excellent genius, and profound learning. His style

style is grave and polite. His morals were exemplary; for he was pious, sober, chaste, laborious, and disinterested. But his enemies alledge, that "his memory can never be purified from the stain of burning Servetus." We plead not for persecution. We grant, that "it ill became a reformer to adopt the most odious practice of the corrupt church of Rome." But let the age, in which he lived, plead some excuse for the excess of his zeal. Reformation was but in its commencement. Mankind had not got rid of the idea, that *heretics* ought to be burnt. Even in our own country, in the present enlightened age, we find this principle is not wholly extinguished. Let the people of *Birmingham* plead the cause of honest Calvin: Let the persecutors of Priestley contribute at least to mitigate modern obloquy, against the destroyer of the equally honest, but unfortunate Servetus. While we regret the fatal effects of that bigotry, from which our first reformers were not able entirely to divest themselves, we ought never to forget, that, to these men we owe the dawn of that light and liberality of sentiment, which we now enjoy; and which is daily spreading far and wide, to illuminate and humanize the world.

CALVINISM, the doctrine and sentiments of Calvin and his followers. Calvinism subsists in its greatest purity in the city of Geneva; and from thence it was first propagated into Germany, France, the United Provinces, and Britain. In France it was abolished by the revocation of the edict of Nantz, in 1685. It has been the prevailing religion in the United Provinces ever since 1571. The theological system of Calvin was adopted, and made the public rule of faith in England, under the reign of Edward VI. and the church of Scotland was modelled by John Knox, the disciple of Calvin, agreeably to the doctrine, rites, and form of ecclesiastical government, established at Geneva. In England it has declined since the time of Queen Elizabeth; though it still subsists, a little allayed, in the articles of the established church. In Scotland, it continues to exist in its original vigour, as the established religion, illustrated by the Confession of Faith and Catechisms; although many of the established clergy, (thanks to the liberality of the age,) are far from adhering to it strictly in their sermons. The distinguishing theological tenets of Calvinism respect the doctrines of **PREDESTINATION**, or particular **ELECTION** and **REPROBATION**, original **SIN**, particular **REDEMPTION**, effectual **GRACE** in regeneration, **JUSTIFICATION** by faith, **PERSEVERANCE**, and the **TRINITY**. See these articles in their order. Besides the doctrinal part of Calvin's system, which, so far as it differs from that of other reformers of the same period, principally regarded the absolute decrees of God, it extended likewise to the discipline and government of the Christian church, the nature of the Eucharist, and the qualification of those who were intitled to the participation of it. Calvin considered every church as a separate and independent body, invested with the power of legislation for itself. He proposed that it should be governed by presbyteries and synods, composed of clergy and laity, without bishops, or any clerical subordination; and maintained, that the province of the civil magistrate extended only

to its protection and outward accommodation. In order to facilitate an union with the Lutheran church, he acknowledged a real, though spiritual presence of Christ, in the Eucharist; that true Christians were united to the man Christ in the ordinance; and that divine grace was conferred upon them, and sealed to them, in the celebration of it; and he confined the privilege of communion to pious and regenerate believers. In France the Calvinists are distinguished by the names of **HUGUENOTS**, and **PARPAILLOTS**. In Germany they are confounded with the Lutherans, under the general title, *Protestants*; only sometimes distinguished by the epithet *Reformed*.

CALVINISTIC, *adj.* belonging to; or favouring of Calvinism.

CALVINISTS, in church-history, those who follow the opinions of Calvin. See **CALVIN**, **CALVINISM**, and **CRYPTO-CALVINISTS**.

CALVISIUS, Seth, a celebrated German chronologer in the beginning of the 17th century. He wrote *Blanchus calendarii Gregoriani, et aliorum calendarii melioris forma*, and other learned works, together with some excellent treatises on chronology. He died in 1617, aged 61.

CALVITIUM, *n. s.* Baldness; want of hair.

CALVITY, *n. s.* See **ALOPECIA**, and **BALDNESS**, § 2.

(1.) **CALUMET**, a symbolical instrument of great importance among the American Indians. It is a pipe, whose bowl is generally made of a soft red marble: the tube of a very long reed, ornamented with the wings and feathers of birds. No affair of consequence is transacted without the calumet. It appears in meetings of commerce and exchanges; in congresses for determining peace or war; and even in the very fury of a battle. The acceptance of the calumet is a mark of concurrence with the terms proposed; as the refusal is a certain mark of rejection. Even in the rage of a conflict this pipe is sometimes offered; and if accepted, the weapons of destruction instantly drop from their hands, and a truce ensues. It seems the sacrament of the savages; for no compact is ever violated which is confirmed by a salute from this holy reed. When they treat of war, the pipe, and all its ornaments are usually black, or sometimes red only on one side. The fine decorations of the calumet are for the most part proportioned to the quality of the persons to whom they are presented, and to the importance of the occasion. The calumet of peace is different from that of war. They make use of the former to seal their alliances and treaties, to transact with safety, and to receive strangers; but of the latter to proclaim war. It consists of a red marble like bowl, formed into a cavity resembling the head of a tobacco pipe, and fixed to a hollow reed. They adorn it with feathers of various colours; and name it the calumet of the sun, by which luminary they present it, in expectation of thereby obtaining a change of weather as often as they desire. From the winged ornaments of the calumet, and its conciliating uses, writers compare it to the caduceus of Mercury, which was carried by the caduceatores of peace, with letters to the hostile states. It is singular, that the most remote nations, and the most opposite in their

her customs and manners, should in some things have, as it were, a certain consent of thought. The Greeks and the Americans had the same idea, in the invention of the caduceus and the calumet.

(2.) CALUMET, DANCE OF THE, is a solemn rite among the Indians on various occasions. They dare not wash themselves in rivers in the beginning of summer, nor taste of the new fruits, without performing it; and the same ceremony always confirms a peace or precedes a war. It is performed in winter in their cabins, and in summer in the open fields. For this purpose they choose a spot among trees to shade them from the heat of the sun, and lay in the middle a large mat, as a carpet, setting upon it the god of the chief of the company. On the right hand of this image they place the calumet, as their great deity, erecting around it a kind of trophy with their arms. The hour of dancing being come, those who are to sing take the most honourable seats under the shade of the trees. The company is then ranged round, every one, before he sits down, saluting the monitor, which is done by blowing upon it the smoke of their tobacco. Each person next receives the calumet in rotation, and holding it with both hands, dances to the cadence of the vocal music, which is accompanied with the beating of a sort of drum. During this exercise, he gives a signal to one of their warriors, who takes a bow, arrow, and axe, from the trophies already mentioned, and fights him; the former defending himself with the calumet only, and both of them dancing all the while. This mock engagement being over, he who holds the calumet makes a speech in which he gives an account of the battles he has fought, and the prisoners he has taken, and then receives a cloak, or some other present, from the chief of the ball. He then resigns the calumet to another, who, having acted a similar part, delivers it to a 3d, and he to a 4th, &c. till at last the instrument returns to the person who began the ceremony, and who presents it to the nation invited to the feast, as a mark of their friendship, and a confirmation of their alliance.

CALUMNIÆ, JUDICIUM, was an action brought against the plaintiff in a court for a false and malicious accusation. When an accuser did not prove his charge, nor seemed to have sufficient or probable grounds for bringing any, the judges in pronouncing sentence used the formula *calumniosus es*; which gave the defendant a right to bring an action of calumny; the penalty of which was *frontis inussio*, or burning on the forehead.

CALUMNIÆ JURAMENTUM. See CALUMNY, § 2.

(1.) * To CALUMNIATE. *v. a.* [*calumnior*, Lat.] To slander.—One trade or art, even those that should be the most liberal, make it their business to disdain and *calumniate* another. *Spratt*.

(2.) * To CALUMNIATE. *v. n.* To accuse falsely; to charge without just ground.—

Beauty, wit, high birth, desert in service, Love, friendship, charity, are subject all To envious and *calumniating* time. *Shakespeare*.—He mixes truth with falsehood, and has not forgotten the rule of *calumniating* strongly, that something may remain. *Dryden's Fables, Preface*.—

VOL. IV. PART II.

Do I *calumniate*! thou ungrateful Vanoc!—
Perfidious Prince!—Is it a calumny
To say, that Gwendolen betroth'd to Yver,
Was by her father first assur'd to Valens.

A. Philips.

* CALUMNIATION. *n. f.* [from *calumniare*.] That which we call *calumniation*, is a malicious and false representation of an enemy's words or actions, to an offensive purpose. *Ayliffe*.

* CALUMNIATOR. *n. f.* [from *calumniare*.] A forger of accusation; a slanderer.—He that would live clear of the envy and hatred of potent *calumniators*, must lay his finger upon his mouth, and keep his hand out of the ink-pot. *L'Esrange*.—At the same time that Virgil was celebrated by Gallus, we know that Bavius and Mævius were his declared foes and *calumniators*. *Addison*.

* CALUMNIOUS. *adj.* [from *calumny*.] Slandrous; falsely reproachful.—

Virtue itself 'scapes not *calumnious* strokes.

Shakespeare.

With *calumnious* art

Of counterfeited truth, thus held their ears. *Milto*.

(1.) * CALUMNY. *n. f.* [*calumnia*, Lat.] Slander; false charge; groundless accusation; with *against*, or sometimes *upon*, before the person accused.—

Be thou as chaste as ice, as pure as snow,

Thou shalt not escape *calumny*. *Shakespeare*.

—It is a very hard *calumny upon* our soil or climate, to affirm, that so excellent a fruit will not grow here. *Temple*.

(2.) CALUMNY, OATH OF, JURAMENTUM, or rather *Jurjurandum*, CALUMNIÆ, among civilians and canonists, was an oath which both parties in a cause were obliged to take; the plaintiff that he did not bring his charge, and the defendant that he did not deny it, with a design to abuse each other, but because they believed their cause was just and good; that they would not deny the truth, nor create unnecessary delays, nor offer the judge or evidence any gifts or bribes. If the plaintiff refused this oath, the complaint was dismissed; if the defendant, it was taken *pro confessio*. The *juramentum calumnie* is much disused, as a great occasion of perjury. Anciently the advocates and proctors also took this oath; but of late it is dispensed with, and thought sufficient that they take it once for all at their first admission to practice. See LAW, INDEX.

CALVUS, Cornelius Licinius, a celebrated Roman orator, was the friend of Catullus; and flourished about A. A. C. 64. He is mentioned by Catullus, Ovid, and Horace.

(1.) * CALX. *n. f.* [Lat.] Any thing that is rendered reducible to powder by burning.—Gold, that is more dense than lead, resists peremptorily all the dividing power of fire; and will not be reduced into a *calx*, or lime, by such operation as reduces lead into it. *Digby*.

(2.) CALX properly signifies LIME, but is used by chemists and physicians for a fine powder remaining after the calcination or corrosion of metals and other mineral substances. All metallic calces, at least all those made by fire, are found to weigh more than the metal from which they were originally produced. See FIAB.

H h h h

(3.) CALX

they have been in this bed a month or six weeks, they should be taken out. In the heat of summer they should be placed in the shade; and if the are plunged into the natural ground, so much better. At the approach of the succeeding

year, with no common matter between, which is less transparent, and more debased with matter than the onyxes. There are four species of onyx. The dull-looking onyx, with broad black and white zones; the carnea of the moderns, and the Arabian onyx. It is found in Egypt, Arabia, and

other parts of Asia. It is said that the ancients used it for the eyes of their statues. This is a mistake. The ancients used the onyx for the eyes of their statues, but not the Arabian onyx.

Peria, and the East Indies. 2. The dull broad-veined, green and white camæa, or the jaspine of the Italians; found in the East Indies, and in some parts of America. 3. The hard camæa, with broad white and chestnut coloured veins. 4. The hard camæa, with bluish, white, and flesh-coloured broad veins, being the sardonyx of Pliny's time, only brought from the East Indies.

CAMAHIA, in the materia medica, a name given by Avicenna and others to the large mushrooms found in the deserts of Numidia, and many other parts of Africa. They are white, on the outside; the modern Africans call them TERFON, and are very fond of them; they eat them with milk, water, and spices, and account them wholesome and nutritive.

(1.) * CAMAIEU. *s. f.* [from *camachuia*, which name is given by the orientals to the onyx, when, in preparing it, they find another colour.] 1. A stone with various figures and representations of animals, formed by nature. 2. [In painting.] A term used where there is only one colour, and where the lights and shadows are of gold, wrought in a golden or azure ground. This kind of work is chiefly used to represent basso relievos. *Chamb.*

(3—4.) CAMAIEU, or CAMAY-EU, is also used to express, 1. A peculiar sort of onyx: 2. Those precious stones, as onyxes, cornelians, and agates, whereon the lapidaries employ their art to aid nature, and perfect those representations. See CAMÆA. 3. Any kind of gem, whereon figures may be engraven either indented, or in relieve. In this sense the lapidaries of Paris were called in the old statutes, *cuteurs of camayeux*. A society of learned men at Florence undertook to procure the *cameos* or *camoyeux*, and intaglios in the great duke's gallery to be engraven; and began to show the heads of divers emperors in *cameos*.

(1.) CAMALDOLI, Ambrose DE, general of the order of CAMALDOLITES, was born about A. D. 1387; entered that order at 14 years of age, and was elected general in 1431. He studied Greek at Venice; and in 1437, harangued the emperor John Palæologus, in good Greek, upon a proposed union between the two churches. He wrote many religious pieces; among which Mr Bayle says, "his *Hedæporicon* equally proves him to have been a very honest man, and to have lived in a very corrupt age." In this work he tells, that in visiting the monasteries he found that "most of the convents were *direct brothels*," and "consisted of *brothels* instead of *nuns*."

(2.) CAMALDOLI, or CAMPO MALDULI, a horrible desert of Florence, among the Apennine mountains.

CAMALDOLITES, } an order of religious,
CAMALDULIANS, or } founded by Romuald,
CAMALDUNIANS, } an Italian fanatic, in 1023, in the desert of Camaldoli. Their rule is that of St Benedict; and their houses, by the statutes, are never to be less than 5 leagues from cities. The *Camaldulians* have not born that title from the beginning of their order; till the close of the 12th century they were called ROMUALDINS, from the name of their founder. Till that time, *Camaldulan* was a particular name for those of the desert of Camaldoli; and D. Grandi observes, was not

given to the whole order, in regard it was in this monastery that the order commenced, but because the regulation was best maintained here. Guido Grandi, mathematician to the grand duke of Tuscany, and a monk of this order, published *Camaldulian Dissertations*, on the origin and establishment of it. They were distinguished into two classes, viz. COENOBITES, and EREMITES.

CAMALODUNUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Trinobantes, the first Roman colony of veterans in Britain. From the Itineraries it appears to have stood where MALDEN now stands. It continued to be an open place under the Romans; a place of pleasure rather than strength; adorned with splendid works, as a theatre and a temple of Claudius: which the Britons considered as badges of slavery, and which gave rise to several commotions.

CAMARA, in botany, a name given by Plumier, to an American species of LANTANA.

(1.) CAMARANA, an island of Arabia, in the Red Sea, whose inhabitants are little and black. It is the best of all the islands in this sea. Here they fish for coral and pearls. Lat. 15. 0. N.

(2.) CAMARANA, a town of Sicily. See CAMARINA, N. 1.

(3.) CAMARANA, a triangular lake of Sicily, situated in a beautiful plain, under the walls of the town, N. 2.

CAMARGUM, in ancient geography, the capital of the Nervii, a people of Gallia Belgica; now called CAMBRAY.

CAMARET, a sea port of France, in the department of Finisterre.

CAMARGUE, a fruitful island of France, in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, *literally*, being formed by the two main arms of that river. It lies near Arles.

(1.) CAMARINA, in ancient geography, a city of Sicily, built by the Syracusans on an eminence near the sea, in the S. of Sicily, to the W. of the promontory Pachynum, between the rivers Hipparis and Oanus. Nothing remains but its ancient walls, a mile and a half in compass; with a few houses. It is now called CAMARANA.

(2.) CAMARINA PALUS, a marsh or lake, near the city, (N. 1.) from which it took its name. In a time of drought, the stench of the lake produced a pestilence; upon which the inhabitants consulted the oracle, whether they should not drain it. The oracle dissuaded them: they notwithstanding drained it, and opened a way for their enemies to come and plunder their city: hence the proverb, *Ne moveas Camarinam*, that is, not to remove one evil to bring on a greater. It is now called *Lago di CAMARANA*.

CAMARON, a river of S. Wales, in Radnorshire.

(1.) CAMAROSIS, [from *camareo*, I arch over,] in architecture, denotes an elevation with an arch or vault.

(2.) CAMAROSIS, in surgery, denotes a fracture of a bone, wherein the two broken ends rise and form a kind of arch. It is chiefly applied to fractures in the skull.

CAMASSEI, or CAMACE, Andrew, painter of history and landscape, was born at Bevagna, and studied under Dominichino and Sacchi. He was

employed in St Peter's at Rome, and at John Lateran; and his works are much admired for sweetness of colouring, and delicacy of pencil. He died in the bloom of life, when his reputation was daily advancing; A. D. 1657.

CAMAY-EU. See **CAMAIEU**, § 2—4.

(1.) **CAMBA**, a province and peninsula of Indostan, more commonly called **GUZERAT**.

(2.) **CAMBA**, **CAMBAIA**, or **CAMPAY**, a large city of Indostan, capital of the province, N. 1. It is seated at the bottom of the gulf, N. 3. on a small river; and has high walls with a pretty good trade. Its manufactures are inferior to few in India. It abounds in corn, cattle, and silk; and cornelians and agates are found in its rivers. The inhabitants are noted for embroidery; and some of their quilts have been valued at L. 40. It is subject to the Poona Mahrattas, and is 57 m. S. of Amedabad, to which it is the port. Lon. 72. 10. E. Lat. 22. 25. N.

(3.) **CAMBA**, **GULF OF**, a deep and dangerous gulf of Indostan.

CAMBAHEE, a considerable river of South Carolina, formed by the junction of two large streams which rise in Orangeburg, and after passing into Charleston district, unite, and running S. E. enter St Helena Sound, a little to the S. W. of Ashepoo.

CAMBAIA. See **CAMBA**, N. 2.

CAMBAS, a village in Pembroke-sh. 3 m. from Havreford West. It has fairs Feb. 13. and Nov. 12.

CAMBAYES, in commerce, cotton cloths made at Bengal, Madras, and some other places on the coast of Coromandel. They are proper for the trade of Marseilles, whither the English at Madras sent great numbers of them. Many also of them are imported to Holland.

(1.) **CAMBER**, in fabulous British history, the 1st prince of **CAMBRIA**, or Wales. See **BRUTUS**, N. 3.

(2.) * **CAMBER**. *n. s.* [See **CAMBERING**.] A term among workmen.—*Camber*, a piece of timber cut arching, so as a weight considerable being set upon it, it may, in length of time, be induced to a straight. *Moxon's Mechanical Exercises*.

(3.) **CAMBER BEAMS**, (§ 2.) are commonly used in platforms, as church-leads, and on other occasions, where long and strong beams are required.

CAMBERED is applied to the deck or flooring of a ship when it is higher in the middle of the ship's length, and droops toward the stem and stern. Also when it lies irregular; a circumstance which renders the ship very unfit for war.

CAMBERG, a town of Germany, in the Palatinate of the Rhine, near which Gen. Championet defeated a numerous body of Austrians, in July, 1796, with great slaughter; 35 waggon loads of their wounded having been collected after the battle.

* **CAMBERING**. *n. s.* A word mentioned by *Skinner*, as peculiar to shipbuilders, who say that a place is *cambering*, when they mean arched! [from *cambré*, French.]

CAMBERLOW GREEN is situated in Hertfordshire, between Baldock and Huntingford.

CAMBERT, a French musician of the 17th century, much admired for the manner in which

he touched the organ. He became superintendent of music to Anne of Austria, the queen-ther. The abbe Perin associated him in the privilege he obtained of setting up an opera in 1662. Cambert set to music two pastorals, one entitled *Pomona*, the other *Ariadne*, which were the first operas given in France. He also wrote a piece entitled *The Pains and Pleasures of Love*. The pieces pleased the public; yet, in 1672, after obtaining the privilege of the opera, Cambert came to England, where he became superintendent of music to king Charles II. and died in 1699.

CAMBERTON, a town in Herefordshire, between Leominster and Shropshire.

CAMBERWELL, in Surry 2 m. S. S. E. of Lond.

CAMBIO, an Italian word which signifies *exchange*; commonly used in Holland, and some parts of France.

CAMBIST, a name given in France to those who trade in notes and bills of exchange. The word, though a term of antiquity, is still used among merchants, traders, and bankers. Some derive it from **CAMBIO**.

CAMBLET. See **CAMELOT**.

(1.) **CAMBODIA**, a kingdom of Asia, in the East Indies, bounded on the N. by the kingdom of Laos, on the E. by the kingdom of Cochin-China and Chiapa, and on the S. and W. by the gulf and kingdom of Siam; divided by a large river called *Mecon*. This country is annually overflowed in the rainy season, between June and October; and its productions and fruits are much the same with those usually found between the tropics.

(2.) **CAMBODIA**, a river in the kingdom, N. 1.

(3.) **CAMBODIA**, the capital of the kingdom (N. 1.) seated on the W. shore of the river *Mecon*, about 150 miles N. of its mouth. Lon. 102. 15. E. Lat. 13. 10. N.

(1.) **CAMBODUNUM**, an ancient town of the Brigantes, in Britain; now called **WEST CHESTER**, but in ruins.

(2.) **CAMBODUNUM**, an ancient town of Vindelicia in Suabia, seated on the *Cambus*, now called **KEMPTON**.

CAMBOGIA, in Botany: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the polyandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 39th order, *Tricocceæ*. The corolla is tetrapetalous; the calyx tetraphyllous; and the fruit is a pome with 8 cells, and solitary seeds. There is but one species, viz.

CAMBOGIA GUTTA, a native of India. It yields the gum resin known by the name of **GAMBOL**.

* **CAMBORITUM.** See **CAMBRIDGE**, N. 2.

CAMBORN, a town near Redruth, Cornwall.

CAMBRASINES, in commerce, fine linen made in Egypt, of which there is a considerable trade at Cairo, Alexandria, and Raschit. They are so called from their resemblance to *cambray*.

(1.) **CAMBRAY**, a town of France in the department of the North, and the ci devant capital of the Catholensis, seated on the Scheldt. It is defended by good fortifications, and has a fort on the side of the river; and as the land is low on that side, they can lay the adjacent parts under water by means of sluices. Its ditches are broad and deep, and those of the citadel are cut into a

act. Clodion became master of Cambray in 445. The Danes burnt it afterwards; since which time it became a free imperial city. It has been the subject of contest between the emperors, the kings of France, and the earls of Flanders. Francis I. let it remain neutral during the war with Charles V. but this last took possession of it in 1543. After this it was given by Henry III. of France, to John of Montluc whom he created prince of Cambray; but the Spaniards took it from Montluc in 1593, which broke his heart. It continued under the dominion of the House of Austria, till 1677, when the king of France became master of it, and it has continued ever since annexed to France. The buildings of Cambray are tolerably handsome, and the streets fine and spacious. The place or square for arms is of an extraordinary greatness, and capable of receiving the whole garrison in order of battle. The cathedral is one of the finest in Europe. The body of the church is very large, and there are rich chapels, the pillars of which are adorned with marble tombs of exquisite workmanship, which add greatly to the beauty of the place. There are two galleries, one of which is of copper, finely wrought. The door of the choir is of the same metal, and well carved. The steeple of this church is very high, and built in the form of a pyramid; and its top affords a view of the city, which is one of the finest in the Netherlands. The citadel is very advantageously situated on high ground, and commands the whole city. Cambray is one of the most opulent and commercial cities in the French Netherlands; and takes every year a great number of pieces of cambric, with which the inhabitants drive a great trade. Lon. 3. 20. E. Lat. 30. 17. N.

(2.) CAMBRAY, M. de Fenclois, Abp. of. See FENELON.

(3.) CAMBRAY. See CIMBRAES.

CAMBRESIS, a ci-devant province of France, in the Netherlands, about 25 miles in length. It is bounded on the N. and E. by Hanibault, on the S. by Picardy, and on the W. by Artois. It is a very fertile and populous country; and the inhabitants are industrious, active, and ingenious. Its trade consists principally of corn, sheep, very fine wool, and fine linen cloth. Cambray was the capital. It is now included in the department of the North.

CAMBRIA, the ancient name of Wales.

(1.) * CAMBRICK. *n. f.* [from *Cambray*, a city in Flanders, where it was principally made.] A kind of fine linen, used for ruffles, womens sleeves, and caps.—He hath ribbons of all colours of the rainbow; inkles, caddises, *cambricks*, and lawns. *caressers*.—Rebecca had, by the use of a looking glass, and by the further use of a certain art, made of *cambrick*, upon her head, attained an evil art. *Tatler*.—

Confed'rate in the cheat, they draw the throng,
And *cambrick* handkerchiefs reward the song.
Gay.

(2.) CAMBRICS are now made at other places in France, besides Cambray. This manufacture has long proved of extraordinary advantage to France. For many years it appeared, that England did not in this article contribute less than 6,000*l.* per annum to the interest of France.

This induced the British parliament to enact many salutary laws to prevent this great loss of our wealth. See 18 Geo. II. c. 36; and 21 Geo. II. c. 26. See also 32 Geo. II. c. 32; and 4 Geo. III. c. 37. which regulates the cambric manufactory, not long ago introduced into Winchelsea in Sussex; but very soon abolished. The cambrics now allowed in this country are manufactured in Scotland and Ireland. Any persons convicted of wearing, selling (except for exportation,) or making up for hire any French cambrics or lawns, are liable to a penalty of 5*l.* by the two first statutes cited above.

(1.) CAMBRIDGE, or CAMBRIDGE-SHIRE, a county of England, bounded on the E. by Norfolk; on the S. by Essex and Hertfordshire, on the W. by Bedfordshire and Huntingdonshire, and on the N. by Lincolnshire. It is about 50 miles long, from N. to S. and 25 broad, from E. to W. and 110 in circumference. It lies in the diocese of Ely; and sends six members to parliament, the county, the university, and the town electing two each. The air is very different in different parts of the county. In the fens it is moist and foggy, and therefore not so wholesome; but in the S. and E. parts it is very good, these being much drier than the other; but both, by late improvements, have been rendered very fruitful, the former by draining, and the latter by cinque-foil: so that it produces plenty of corn, barley, saffron, and hemp, and affords the richest pastures. The rivers abound with fish, and the fens with wild fowl. The principal manufactures of the county are malt, pepper, and baskets. The chief rivers are the Ouse, which divides the country into two parts, and is navigable to Lynn in Norfolk; the Cam, the Welland, the Glene, the Witham, and the Peterborough, which is navigable from Wisbech. Part of the fens, called *Bedford level*, lie in this county. See BEDFORD, N. 7. and ELY. This county is divided into 17 hundreds, 7 market towns, and 163 parishes. It contains about 17,400 houses; and 570,000 acres of ground. Of these, it appears from Mr Vancouver's report to the BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, there are no fewer than 319,300 either lying quite waste, or unimproved, in fens, commons, meadows, and inferior pasture. The probable increase of value of these lands, by improvement, on the lowest calculation, is stated by Sir J. Sinclair in his address to the Board, (29th July, 1794,) at L. 146,263: 10*sh.* which would furnish subsistence to 43,800 additional inhabitants. And Cambridge-shire being estimated by the celebrated Dr Halley to be a 70th part of England and Wales, Sir John, from these data, calculates the probable extent to which improvements may be carried on, in the kingdom at large, to amount to no less, within 30 years, than an addition of L. 205,215,500 to the national capital, and of 3,017,385 souls, to the population of Great Britain. See BOARD, N. VII. § 7.

(2.) CAMBRIDGE, the capital of the county, N. 1. It takes its name from the bridge over the CAM, which divides the town into two parts. Either it or a place in the neighbourhood was styled CAMBORITUM in the time of the Romans. It suffered much during the wars with the Danes. It had a castle built by William the Conqueror, of

of which the gatehouse yet remains, and forms the county goal. By Domesday book it appears, that it had then ten wards, containing 387 houses. In William Rufus's reign it was quite destroyed by Roger de Montgomery; but Henry I. bestowed many privileges upon it, particularly an exemption from the power of the sheriff, on condition of its paying yearly into the exchequer 100 marks (equivalent to L. 1000 now,) and from tolls, lastage, pontage, passage, and stallage, in all fairs of his dominions. There is a ditch still called the *King's Ditch*, made by Henry III. during the wars with the barons, to secure it against the rebels in the isle of Ely. The place now called the *Jewry* was formerly inhabited by Jews. The market-place is situated in the middle of the town, and consists of two oblong squares united together; at the top of the angle stands the shire hall, lately erected at the expence of the county. In the market-place, fronting the county hall, is a remarkable handsome stone conduit, to which water is conveyed by an aqueduct, which was the benefaction of the celebrated *Hobson*, a carrier, in the reign of James I. who was a native of this town. The town is governed by a mayor, high steward, recorder, 13 aldermen, of whom the mayor is one, 24 common council men, a town clerk, and other inferior officers. It has 14 parish churches, and is pretty large; but the situation is low and dirty. George I. was created duke of Cambridge before he succeeded to the throne; and the title has remained in the crown ever since. The number of inhabitants is computed at 6000, and that of houses at 1200. Cambridge has a market every Wed. and Sat. and two great fairs; the one at Midsummer day, which lasts 7 days; and the other Sept. 18, which lasts 14. It lies 28 m. E. by N. from Bedford; 80 E. N. E. of Oxford; 17 S. of Ely, and 51 N. by E. of London. Lon. 0. 9. E. Lat. 52. 13. N. See farther, § 10.

(3.) CAMBRIDGE, a village of Gloucestershire, near Berkeley, on the river Cam. Here the Danes were attacked by Edward the Elder, and some thousands of them were killed.

(4.) CAMBRIDGE, a post town of the United States, in South Carolina, and the capital of the district of Ninety-Six. It is situated in Abbeville county, 80 miles W. N. W. of Columbia, 165 N. W. of Charleston, and 50 N. by W. of Augusta, in Georgia. It contains about 60 dwellings, a court-house, a brick jail, and a college, lately instituted. A district court is held on the 26th of April and November, and a county court for Abbeville county, on the 25th of March, and 12th of Sept. It is 745 miles from Philadelphia.

(5.) CAMBRIDGE, one of the largest and most flourishing towns of Middlesex county, Massachusetts. It is agreeably situated on the N. side of Charles river, over which a bridge has lately been erected connecting Boston with this town. It contains, besides Harvard university, about 100 dwellings, a congregational, and an Episcopalian church, also a court-house. Harvard university consists of 4 large, spacious edifices, built of brick, named Harvard, Hollis, Stoughton, and Massachusetts hall. Harvard hall is divided into six apartments, one of which is appropriated for the

library, two for the philosophical apparatus, one for the museum, a fifth for a refectory, and another for a chapel. The library contains upwards of 13,000 volumes. The philosophical apparatus has cost nearly L. 1,500, and is one of the completest on the American continent. This university was first instituted in 1636, and was no more than an academic free-school; two years after, in consequence of a donation left it by the rev. Dr. Harvard of Charlestown, who died there, it was named Harvard college. In 1650, its first charter was obtained from the government of Massachusetts; and in the mean time it received several donations from learned men in Europe. The governor, lieutenant-governor, the council and senate, the president of the university, and the congregational ministers of the six adjoining towns are, during office, overseers of the university. The corporation is a distinct body, in whom is vested the property of the university. The number of those who had been admitted to academical degrees, from its first establishment, to July, 1793, was 3,360. The usual number of resident students, is from 130 to 160. A supreme court is held here, the last Tues. in Oct. and a court of common pleas, the last Tues. in Nov. It is 30 miles from Philadelphia. Lon. 70. 45. W. Lat. 42. 25. N.

(6.) CAMBRIDGE, the chief town of Dorchester county, Eastern shore of Maryland. It is situated on the S. side of Choptank river, about 15 miles from its mouth: the river is here near two miles wide. It contains about 50 houses, a church, and 300 inhabitants. The situation of the town is healthy and agreeable. It is 18 miles N. W. by W. of Vienna, 37 S. of Easton, and 152 S. S. W. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0. 59. W. Lat. 38. 34. N.

(7.) CAMBRIDGE HEATH, near Hackney, Middlesex.

(8.) CAMBRIDGE MANUSCRIPT, a copy of the Gospels and Acts of the Apostles in Greek and Latin. Beza found it in the monastery of Bezaeus at Lyons in 1562, and gave it to the university of Cambridge in 1582. It is a 4to, and written on vellum; 66 leaves of it are much torn and mutilated, and 10 of these are supplied by a later transcriber. Beza conjectures, that this MS. must have been wrote so early as the time of Irenaeus. Wetstein apprehends, that it either returned or was first brought from Egypt into France; that it is the same copy which Druthmar, an ancient copist, who lived about A. D. 840, had seen, and which, he observes, was ascribed to St Hilary, and that R. Stephens had given a particular account of it in his edition of the New Testament in 1550. It is usually called *Stevens's second manuscript*. Mill agrees with F. Simon, that it was written in the western part of the world by a Latin scribe, and that it is to a great degree interpolated and corrupted: he observes, that it agrees so much with the Latin Vulgate, as to afford reason for concluding, that it was corrected or founded upon a corrupt and faulty copy of that translation. From this and the Clermont copy of St Paul's Epistles, Beza published his larger Annotations in 1582.

(9.) CAMBRIDGE-SHIRE. See N. 1.

(10.) CAMBRIDGE, UNIVERSITY OF. In the

rebellion of Wat Tyler and Jack Straw, in the reign of Richard II. the university records were burnt. It is therefore quite uncertain when this celebrated UNIVERSITY, which is the glory of Cambridge, was first founded. It is supposed, however, to have been erected during the Heptarchy. At first there was no public provision for the accommodation or maintenance of the scholars; but afterwards inns began to be erected by various persons for their reception, and in the time of Edward I. colleges began to be built and endowed. The university enjoys great privileges. It is governed by a chancellor, who is always a nobleman, and has a commissary under him, but may be changed every 3d year; a high steward, chosen by the senate; a vice-chancellor, chosen by the whole body of the university, out of two named by the heads of the colleges; two rectors chosen every year, and two taxers, who, with the proctors, regulate the weights and measures. The other officers are, a register or keeper of the archives, 3 esquire beadles, one yeoman reader, and a library-keeper, &c. The university consists of 12 colleges and 4 halls. Each college has its schools and library, as at Oxford, of which those of Trinity and St John are the most considerable. King George I. purchased the library of Dr Moor, bishop of Ely, consisting of 2000 volumes, for L. 1000, and made a present of it to the university; which, out of gratitude, erected, in 1739, a fine marble statue of that prince in the senate hall of king's college. A professor of modern languages and history was also established here, with a salary of 400l. for himself and 100 to teach under him, by king George I. in 1714. Opposite to the statue of king George I. another, on the S. side, of George II. erected in 1765, by the duke of Newcastle: at the E. end, on each side of the entrance, are two others; one, of the late duke of Somerset; the other, an emblematical figure of Glory. The large room in the senate hall, where those statues are erected, is allowed to be the most superb room in England, being 101 feet long, 42 broad, and 32 high; and has a gallery which can contain 1000 persons. This building forms the N. side of a quadrangle, the schools and public library do the W. the schools being the ground floor, and the library over them surrounding a small court. North of the philosophy school is the repository of Dr Woodward's fossils, ores, shells, &c. The donor, together with that collection and a part of the library, left a sum of money, in 1728, for erecting a professorship for natural philosophy, with a provision of 150l. a-year for ever. At the S. E. corner of this building is an elegant geometrical stone stair-case which leads to the old library, and consists of 18 classes; at the end of which is an elegant square room, in which are deposited the M.SS. and a valuable collection of oriental books and curiosities. The master and fellows of Catherine-wheel are trustees of an hospital for the cure of poor diseased people gratis; for the building and furnishing of which, Dr Addenbroke left 4000l. Each college has its chapel for worship; but public sermons are preached at St Mary's church. The most remarkable structures are, 1. The chapel of king's college, which for contrivance and extent,

fine carved work in wood and stone, and painted windows, is hardly to be equalled in the world. It is entirely of free stone, roof and all, without one pillar to support it. 2. Trinity-college and library, wonderful both for the design and execution. A fellowship was founded at Magdalen college, called *the travelling Norfolk fellowship*, because it is appropriated to gentlemen of that country. Any person that is qualified, may borrow whatever book he has occasion for, from the libraries at Cambridge. The privilege of sending members to parliament was first granted to the university by James I. The different colleges in the university are, 1. St Peter's, the most ancient, and the first on entering the town from London. It consists of two courts, separated by a cloister and gallery: the largest 144 feet long, and 84 broad. The lesser court is divided by the chapel, which is a fine old building 54 feet long, 27 broad, and 27 high. This college was founded in 1257. There are 3 colleges in Oxford which dispute the antiquity with this. Cambridge and Oxford were universities long before they were possessed of any colleges in their own right, the students then lodging and boarding with the townsmen, and they then hired hotels for their exercises and disputations. A hotel or hall, now denominated *Pythagoras's school*, situated on the W. side of the river, is one of the ancient hotels that remains undemolished, and in which Erasmus read his first Greek lectures in England. 2. Clare-hall, on the bank of the river, over which it has an elegant stone bridge, was founded 1326, consisting of one grand court 150 feet long, and 111 broad. The front of this building, that faces the fields, has the appearance of a palace. To this college a new chapel has been added. 3. Pembroke-hall is near St Peter's college, was founded in 1343, and consists of two courts. It has an elegant chapel built by Sir Christopher Wren. 4. Corpus Christi or Bennet college, founded in 1530, has but a mean appearance, but is possessed of a remarkably large collection of valuable and curious ancient M.SS. 5. Trinity-hall, on the N. of Clare-hall, near the river, was founded in 1351: it is a small but remarkably neat building. 6. Gonvil and Caius college is near the middle of the town, north of the senate-house, and has three courts. It was founded in 1348, and augmented in 1557. 7. King's college, the most noble foundation in Europe, was first endowed by Henry VI. The old court resembles a decayed castle more than a college. The new building is very magnificent, near 300 feet long. The chapel is one of the finest pieces of Gothic architecture now remaining in the world. It is 304 feet long, 73 broad on the outside and 40 within, and 91 high; and yet not a single pillar to sustain its ponderous roofs, of which it has two: the first is of stone, most curiously carved; the other of wood, covered with lead, between which is a vacancy of 70 feet. There is such a profusion of carving both within and without as is no where to be equalled. Henry VII. enlarged it 128 feet in length, and Henry VIII. gave the elegant stalls and organ gallery, with its inimitable carvings, where are the coats of arms of that king and those of Anne Boleyn quartered. He gave also the elegant painted glass windows,

windows, which are in fine preservation, and were permitted by Cromwell to be preserved, when almost every other in England was destroyed; as he had a particular regard for this university, where he had his education, and for the town which he had represented in parliament. A new altar has been lately erected, and corresponds with the architecture of the building, embellished with an antique painting of Christ taking down from the cross, purchased in Italy, and presented to the college by the earl of Carlisle. In this chapel are put up the Spanish colours taken at the reduction of Manilla by Colonel Draper, a member of this college. This college has an ancient stone bridge over the Cam. 8. Queen's college, near the river, south of King's, was founded 1448, and consists of two courts, with a fine grove and gardens on both sides of the river, connected with each other and the college by two wooden bridges, one of which is of a curious structure. 9. Catharine-hall, is E. of Queen's, and its principal front on the W. the most extensive and regular in the university. It contains only one court 180 feet long and 120 broad, and was founded in 1475. 10. Jesus college is at the E. end of the town, surrounded by groves and gardens. The principal front faces the S. 180 feet long, regularly built and finished; it was originally a Benedictine convent, and converted to its present use in 1576. 11. Christ's college is opposite to St Andrew's church, on the E. side of the town; and was founded by Henry VII's mother in 1505. It has lately had a thorough repair, and is now a neat and beautiful structure. 12. St John's college was founded by the same lady in 1509, on the site of a dissolved priory. It consists of 3 courts, and has a large library filled with scarce and valuable books. To this college belongs a fine stone bridge over the river, which leads to their grand walks. 13. Magdalen college, the only one that stands on the N. side of the river, near the great bridge, consists of two courts, and was founded in 1519. 14. Trinity college is east of the river, having St John's college on the N. and Caius college and Trinity-hall on the S. It contains two large quadrangles, the first of which is 344 feet long, and 280 broad. It has two noble entrances; and on the N. side of it is the chapel 204 feet long, 34 broad, and 44 high. It has every grand ornament, and the much admired statue of Sir Isaac Newton, who was a student in this college. The hall is above 100 feet long, 40 broad, and 50 high. The inner court is esteemed the finest in the university, and surpasses any in Oxford. It is very spacious, and has an elegant cloister of stone pillars, supporting grand apartments; on the W. is the library, the most elegant structure of the kind in the kingdom, 190 feet long, 40 broad, and 38 high within. Its entrance is by a stair case, the steps black marble, and the walls incrustured with ancient Roman monuments. The entrance into the library is by folding doors at the N. end. Its inside appearance is inexpressibly grand, having at the south end (lately erected) a beautiful painted glass window of his present majesty in his robes; and the shelves are large, beautiful, and noble, well stocked with books, manuscripts, &c. Its outside has every suitable embellishment, and was erected by

Sir Christopher Wren at the expense of 20,000. Under this building is a spacious part of equal dimensions: out of which open 3 feet to a lawn that leads to the river, over which is a new elegant cycloidal bridge of 3 arches, leading to extensive walks. In the middle is a remarkable vista. This college was founded on the site of two other colleges and a hall in 1546 by Henry VIII. 15. Emanuel college is at the S. E. end of the town; consists of two courts, the principal of which is very neat; and was built on the site of a Dominican convent. It has been lately in a great part rebuilt and elegantly embellished. 16. Sidney-Sussex college is in Bridge-street. Its hall is elegant, but the chapel remarkable only for standing N. and S. as others do E. and W.

CAMBUS, a town near Blithe, Northumberland.

CAMBUSKENNETH, an ancient abbey in Clackmannanshire, now in ruins.

CAMBUSLANG, [from *Cam-eas*, or *Glen-eas*, Gael. *i. e.* a crooked rivulet, and *Lan*, or *Lann*, the name of an ancient saint,] a parish of Scotland, in Lanarkshire, formerly called DRUMSARGAN, comprehending an extent of about 8 m. square. It is situated between Glasgow and Hamilton, and bounded for 3 miles by the Clyde. The soil is clayey on a till bottom. The climate is various, but healthy. By a meteorological journal kept at the manse for 7 years, the proportion of dry weather to wet, was as 25 $\frac{4}{5}$ to 15. The whole ground is arable and well cultivated, producing all the usual crops: the average value of which, on 3800 acres, is stated by the rev. Dr Meek, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, at L. 9090 : 10 sh. The population, in 1791, was 1288; and had increased 354, since 1755. The number of horses was 180; of sheep, 410, and of black cattle, 630. There are 100 coal pits in the parish, which have been wrought in succession for upwards of 400 years. About 600 cart-loads are still put out weekly, or 30,000 yearly. Malins, hollands, and cotton stuffs are manufactured in the parish. Dr Meek gives a particular account of the religious phenomena, which took place at it, A. D. 1742; for which we must refer the inquisitive reader to Sir J. Sinclair's *Stat. Acc.* V. p. 266.

CAMBUSMICHAEL, or CAMPSMICHAEL, a parish of Scotland, in Perthshire, now united to that of St Martin's. See MARTIN'S, St.

CAMBUSNETHAN, a parish of Scotland, in Lanarkshire, about 12 m. long, and 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ broad; 10 m. from Glasgow, 9 from Lanark, and 4 from Hamilton. The soil, climate and cultivation are similar to those of CAMBUSLANG. The annual produce is estimated at 11,520 bolls grain, of which above 2000 are exported. Grounds fit only for orchards are planted with fruit trees and turnips profitable. Iron-stone, free-stone and coals are bound. The population, in 1791, as stated by the rev. Mr Lockhart, in his return to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1684; and had increased 265, in 10 years. The inhabitants have given a specimen of their literary taste by the erection of two libraries.

CAMBYSES. See PERSIA, HISTORY OF.

CAMCHATKA. See KAMTSCHATKA.

(1.) CAMDEN, a county of the United States, in Edenton district, N. Carolina; bounded N. by

the state of Virginia, S. W. and W. by Pasquotank river, which separates it from Pasquotank county, and E. by Currituck. It contains 2,995 free inhabitants, and 1,238 slaves. The chief town is Jonesborough.

(2.) CAMDEN, a district of South Carolina, bounded on the N. E. by Cheraws, S. E. by Georgetown, N. by the state of North Carolina, N. W. by Pinkney, W. by Ninety-Six, S. W. by Orangeburg, and S. by Charleston district. It is 82 miles from N. to S. and 60 from E. to W. and is divided into the following counties, viz. Fairfield, Richland, Lancaster, Kershaw, Clermont, Clarendon, and Salem. It contains 38,065 inhabitants, of whom 7,865 are slaves. It is watered by the river Catabaw, which passes nearly through the middle of it. In the N. part of the district is the Catabaw nation of Indians, the only tribe which resides in the state. See CATABAW. The upper part of this district is diversified with hills, the soil in general rich, and the country well watered. It produces good crops of Indian corn, wheat, rye, barley, tobacco, cotton, &c.

(3.) CAMDEN, a post town of S. Carolina, and capital of the district N^o 2. It is situated in Kershaw county, on the E. side of the Wateree, 120 miles N. by W. of Charleston, and contains about 120 houses regularly built on a good plan. It has a court-house, jail, and an Episcopalian church. It is situated on a large navigable river, and carries a brisk trade with the back counties. A district court is held here on the 26th April and Nov. A battle was fought at this town on the 16th Aug. 1780, between gen. Gates and lord Cornwallis, in which the Americans were defeated. See the particulars of this action, under the article AMERICA, 21. Another was fought, on the 25th April, 1781, between lord Rawdon and gen. Greene, who was encamped within a mile of the town. Rawdon sallied out with 800 men and attacked gen. Greene in his camp, who commanded a party of Continentals, and a party of undisciplined militia. The Americans had 126 killed, and 100 taken prisoners. The English had about 100 killed. The 13th of May following, the British evacuated and burnt the town. See AMERICA, § 32: it is 35 miles N. E. of Columbia, and 626 S. W. by W. of Philadelphia. Lon. 5. 23. W. Lat. 34. 17. N.

(4.) CAMDEN, a small post town of the district of Maine; situated in Lincoln county, on the E. side of Kenebec river. It is 228 miles from Boston, and 572 from Philadelphia.

(5.) CAMDEN, a village of Kent county, in the state of Delaware; situated a few miles S. of Dover.

(6.) CAMDEN, William, the great antiquarian, was born in London, in 1551. He was educated at Christ's hospital, and St Paul's school; and thence sent, in 1566, to Oxford, and entered himself a servitor of Magdalen college; but being disappointed of a demy's place, he removed to Broadgate hall, and two years after, to Christ church, where he was supported by his kind friend Dr Wornton. About this time he was a candidate for a fellowship of All-Souls college, but lost it by the intrigues of the Popish party. In 1570, he solicited the regents of the university to be admitted B. A. but in this also he miscarried. The

following year he came to London, where he prosecuted his favourite study of antiquity, under Dr Goodman, dean of Westminster, by whose interest he was made 2d master of Westminster school in 1575. Between his leaving the university and this period, he took several journeys to different parts of England, to collect materials for his *Britannia*, in which he was now deeply engaged. In 1581, he became intimately acquainted with the learned president Brillon, who was then in England; and in 1586 he published the first edition of his *Britannia*. In 1593 he succeeded to the head mastership of Westminster school. In 1597 he published his Greek grammar, and was made Clarenceux king at arms. In 1600 he made a tour to the N. as far as Carlisle, accompanied by his friend Mr (afterwards Sir Robert) Cotton. In 1606 he began his correspondence with the celebrated De Thou, which continued to the death of that faithful historian. In 1607, he published his last edition of the *Britannia*, which is that from which the English translations have been made; and in 1608, he began to digest his materials for a history of the reign of Q. Elizabeth. In 1609, after recovering from a dangerous illness, he retired to Chislehurst in Kent, where he continued to spend the summer months during the remainder of his life. The first part of his annals of the queen did not appear till 1615, and he determined that the 2d vol. should not appear till after his death. The reign of queen Elizabeth was so recent when his 1st vol. was published, that many of the persons concerned, or their dependents, were still living. It is no wonder, therefore, that the honest historian should offend those whose actions would not bear inquiry. Some of his enemies were clamorous and troublesome; which determined him not to publish the 2d volume during his life; but, that posterity might be in no danger of being disappointed, he deposited one copy in the Cottonian library, and transmitted another to his friend Dupuy at Paris. It was first printed at Leyden in 1625. The M.S. was entirely finished in 1617; and from that time he was principally employed in collecting more materials for the further improvement of his *Britannia*. In 1622, being now upwards of 70, and finding his health declining, he determined to execute his design of founding an history lecture in the university of Oxford. His deed of gift was accordingly transmitted by his friend Mr Heather, to Mr Gregory Wheare, who was, by himself, appointed his first professor. He died at Chislehurst, in 1623, in the 73d year of his age; and was buried in Westminster abbey, where a monument of white marble was erected to his memory. Camden was a man of singular modesty and integrity; profoundly learned in the history and antiquities of this kingdom, and a judicious and conscientious historian. He was esteemed by the literati of all nations, and will ever be remembered as an honour to his age and country. Besides the works already mentioned, he was author of several tracts in Hearn's collection.

(7.) CAMDEN HOUSE, W. of Kensington palace, Middlesex.

(1.) CAME, a village near Dorchester.

(2.) * CAME. The preterite of *To come*.

Till all the pack *came* up, and ev'ry hound
Tore the sad huntsman, grov'ling on the ground.
Addison.

CAMEA. See CAMÆA.

(1.) * CAMEL. *n. f.* [*camelus*, Lat.] An animal very common in Arabia, Judea, and the neighbouring countries. One sort is large, and full of flesh, and fit to carry burdens of 1000 lb. weight, having one bunch upon its back. Another have two bunches upon their backs, like a natural saddle, and are fit either for burdens, or men to ride on. A third kind is leaner, and of a smaller size, called dromedaries, because of their swiftness; which are generally used for riding by men of quality.—*Camels* have large solid feet, but not hard. *Camels* will continue ten or twelve days without eating or drinking, and keep water a long time in their stomach, for their refreshment. *Calmet.*

Patient of thirst and toil,

Son of the desert! even the *camel* feels,
Shot through his wither'd heart, the fiery blast.
Thomson.

(2.) CAMEL, in geography, a river in the county of Cornwall; also called ALAN.

(3.) CAMEL, in mechanics, a kind of machine used in Holland for raising or lifting ships, in order to bring them over the Pampus, at the mouth of the river Y, where the shallowness of the water hinders large ships from passing. It is also used in other places, particularly at the dock of Peterburg, the vessels built there being, in their passage to Cronstadt, lifted over the bar by means of camels. These machines were originally invented by the celebrated De Wit, for the purpose above mentioned; and were introduced into Russia by Peter the Great, who obtained the model of them when he worked in Holland as a common shipwright. A camel is composed of two separate parts, whose outsides are perpendicular, and whose insides are concave, shaped so as to embrace the hull of a ship on both sides. Each part has a small cabin with 16 pumps and 10 plugs, and contain 20 men. They are braced to a ship underneath by means of cables, and entirely enclose its sides and bottom; being then towed to the bar, the plugs are opened, and the water admitted until the camel sinks with the ship and runs a-ground. Then, the water being pumped out, the camel rises, lifts up the vessel, and the whole is towed over the bar. This machine can raise the ship 11 feet, or, in other words, make it draw 11 feet less water.

(4.) CAMEL, in zoology. See CAMELUS.

CAMELEON. See CHAMÆLEON, & LACERTA.

(1.) CAMELFORD, a borough town of Cornwall seated on the Camel, consisting of about 100 houses, badly built; but the streets are broad and well paved. It has a great market for yarn, and 4 fairs, on the 1st Friday after 10 March, 26 May, 19 July, and 17 Sept. It sends two members to parliament. It lies 24 miles from Launceston, and 29 W. by S. of London. Lon. 4. 55. W. Lat. 50. 42. N.

(2.) CAMELFORD, a village in Yorkshire, near Ferrybridge, on the inland navigation.

CAMELINA, in botany. See CHENOPODIUM.

CAMELLIA, in botany: A genus of the polyandria order, belonging to the monadelphia class

of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 37th order, *Columnifera*. The calyx imbricated and polyphyllous, with the interior leaves larger than the exterior. There is but one species, a native both of China and Japan. Thunberg, in his *Flora Japonica*, describes it as growing every where, in the groves and gardens of Japan, where it becomes a prodigiously large and tall tree, highly esteemed by the natives for the elegance of its large and very variable blossoms, and its evergreen leaves. It is there found with single and double flowers, white, red, and purple, produced from April to October. Representations of this flower are frequently met with in Chinese paintings. With us, the *Camelia* is generally treated as a stove plant, and propagated by layers; it is sometimes placed in the greenhouse; but it appears to us to be one of the properest plants imaginable for the conservatory. At some future time it may, perhaps, not be uncommon to treat it as a *LAURUSTINUS* or *MAGNOLIA*: the high price at which it has hitherto been sold, has probably prevented its being raised in this way. The blossoms are of a firm texture, but apt to fall off long before they have lost their brilliancy. Some stick such deciduous blossoms on fresh buds, where they continue to look well for a considerable time. Petiver considered this plant as a species of tea tree; and future observations will probably confirm his conjecture.

CAMELODUNUM, the ancient Roman name, 1. of DONCASTER in Yorkshire: and 2. of MILDEN in Essex. See CAMALODUNUM.

(1.) * CAMELOPARD. *n. f.* [from *camelus* and *pardus*, Lat.] An Abyssinian animal, taller than an elephant, but not so thick. He is so named, because he has a neck and head like a camel: he is spotted like a pard, but his spots are white upon a red ground. The Italians call him *giarfa*. *Trevoux.*

(2.) CAMELOPARD. See ASTRONOMY, § 100.

(3.) CAMELOPARD, or } in zoology, the name
CAMELOPARDALIS, } vial name of a species of CERVUS.

(1.) * CAMELOT. CAMLET. *m. f.* [from *camel* and *lot*, *n. f.*] A kind of stuff originally made by a mixture of silk and camels hair; it is now made with wool and silk.—This habit was not of camels skin, nor any coarse texture of its hair, but rather some finer weave of *camelot*, *grogram*, or the like; as much as these stuffs are supposed to be made of the hair of that animal. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*
2. Hair cloth.—

Meantime the pastor shears their hoary beards
And eases, of their hair, the loaden herds:
Their *camelots* warm in tents the soldier bold,
And shield the shiv'ring mariner from cold.
Dryden.

(2.) CAMELOT, or CHAMLET, is sometimes made of goats hair, with wool or silk: in some, the warp is silk and wool twisted together, and the woof hair. The true or oriental camelot is made of the pure hair of a sort of goat, frequent about Angora; all the inhabitants whereof are employed in the manufacture and commerce of camlets. Mention is made in writers of the middle age, of stuffs made of camel's hair, under the denominations of *cameletum* and *camelianum*, whence probably

probably the origin of the term; but these are represented as strangely coarse, rough, and prickly, and seem to have been chiefly used among the monks by way of mortification, as the hair shirt of later times. We have no camlets made in Europe of the goats hair alone; even at Brussels, they add a mixture of woollen thread. England, France, Holland, and Flanders, are the chief places of this manufacture. Brussels exceeds them all in the beauty and quality of its camlets: those of England are reputed the second.

(3.) CAMELOTS, FIGURED, are those of one colour, whereon are stamped various figures, flowers, foliage, &c. by means of hot-irons, which are a kind of moulds, passed together with the stuff, under a press. These are chiefly brought from Amiens and Flanders: the commerce of these was anciently much more considerable than at present.

(4.) CAMELOTS, WATERED, those which, after weaving, receive a certain preparation with water; and are afterwards passed under a hot-press, which gives them a smoothness and lustre.

(5.) CAMELOTE, WAVED, are those whereon waves are impressed, as on tabbies; by means of a calender, under which they are passed and re-passed several times. The manufacturers, &c. of camlets ought to take care they do not acquire any needless plaits; it being almost impossible to get them out again. This is notorious, even to a proverb: we say, a person is like camlet, he has taken his plait.

CAMEL, QUEEN'S. See QUEEN-CAMEL.

CAMELUS, the CAMEL, in zoology, a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of pecora. The characters of the camel are these: It has no horns; it has six fore-teeth in the under jaw; the laniarii are wide set, three in the upper, and two in the lower jaw; and there is a fissure in the upper lip, resembling a cleft in the lip of a hare. There are 4 species.

1. CAMELUS BACTRIANUS, the Bactrian camel, has two bunches on the back, but is in all respects like the DROMEDARIUS, (see N° 2.) of which it seems to be a mere variety, rather than a different species; and is equally adapted for riding or carrying loads. It is still found wild in the deserts of the temperate parts of Asia, particularly in those between China and India. These are larger and more generous than the domesticated race. The Bactrian camel, which is very common in Asia, is extremely hardy, and in great use among the Tartars and Mongols, as a beast of burden, from the Caspian Sea to the empire of China. It bears even so severe a climate as that of Siberia, being found about the lake Balkal, where the Bursats and Mongols keep great numbers. They are far less than those which inhabit Western Tartary. Here they live during winter on willows and other trees, and are by this diet reduced very lean. They lose their hair in April, and go naked all May, amidst the frosts of that severe climate. To thrive, they must have dry ground and salt marshes. There are several varieties of this species. The TURKMAN is the largest and strongest. The Arabian is hardy. What is called the DROMEDARY, MAIHARY, and RAGUAHL, is very swift. The common sort travel about 30 miles a day. The last, which has a less bunch, and more deli-

cate shape, and is also much inferior in size, never carries burdens; but is used to ride on. In Arabia, they are trained for running-matches: and in many places for carrying couriers, who can go above 100 miles a day on them, for 9 days together, over burning deserts, uninhabitable by any living creature. The African camels are the most hardy, having more distant and more dreadful deserts to pass over than any of the others, from Numidia to the kingdom of Ethiopia. In Western Tartary there is a white variety, very scarce, and sacred to the idols and priests. The Chinese have a swift variety, which they call by the expressive name of *Fong-Kyo Fo*, or camels with feet of the wind. Fat of camels, or, as these people call it, oil of bunches, being drawn from them, is esteemed in many disorders, such as ulcers, numbness, and consumptions. This species of camel is rare in Arabia, being an exotic, and only kept by great men. Camels have constituted the riches of Arabia from the time of Job to the present day. The patriarch reckoned 6000 camels among his pastoral treasures, and the modern Arabs estimate their wealth by the number of these useful animals. Without them great part of Africa would be wretched; by them the whole commerce is carried through arid and burning tracts, impassable but by beasts which Providence formed expressly for the scorched deserts. Their soles are adapted to the sands they are to pass over, their toughness and spongy-softness preventing them from cracking. Their great powers of sustaining abstinence from drinking, enables them to pass over unwatered tracts for many days, without requiring the least liquid; and their patience under hunger is such that they will travel many days fed only with a few dates, or some small balls of bean or barley-meal, or on the miserable thorny plants they meet with in the deserts. The Arabians regard the camel as a present from heaven, a sacred animal, without whose assistance they could neither subsist, carry on trade, nor travel. Camel's milk is their common food. They also eat its flesh, that of the young camel being reckoned highly savoury. Of the hair of those animals, which is fine and soft, and which is completely renewed every year, the Arabians make stuffs for clothes, and other furniture. With their camels, they not only want nothing, but have nothing to fear. In one day, they can perform a journey of 30 leagues into the desert, which cuts off every approach from their enemies. All the armies of the world would perish in pursuit of a troop of Arabs. Hence they never submit, unless from choice, to any power. With a view to his predatory expeditions, the Arab instructs, rears, and exercises his camels. A few days after their birth, he folds their limbs under their belly, forces them to remain on the ground, and, in this situation, loads them with a pretty heavy weight, which is never removed but for the purpose of replacing a greater. Instead of allowing them to feed at pleasure, and to drink when they are dry, he begins with regulating their meals, and makes them gradually travel long journeys, diminishing, at the same time, the quantity of their aliment. When they acquire some strength, they are trained to the course. He excites their emulation by the example of horses, and, in time, ren-

ders them more robust. In fine, after he is certain of the strength, fleetness, and sobriety of his camels; he loads them both with his own and their food, sets off with them, arrives unperceived at the confines of the desert, robs the first passengers he meets, pillages the solitary houses, loads his camels with the booty, and, if pursued, he is obliged to accelerate his retreat. On these occasions he unfolds his own talents and those of the camels. He mounts one of the fleetest, conducts the troop, and makes them travel night and day, without, almost, either stopping, eating, or drinking; and, in this manner, he easily performs a journey of 900 miles in 8 days. During this period of motion and fatigue, his camels are perpetually loaded, and he allows them each day, one hour only of repose, and a ball of paste. They often run in this manner 9 or 10 days, without finding water; and when, by chance, there is a pool at some distance, they scent the water half a league off. Thirst makes them double their pace, and they drink as much at once as serves them for the time that is past, and as much to come; for their journeys often last several weeks, and their abstinence continues an equal time. Of all carriages, that by camels is the cheapest and most expeditious. The merchants and other passengers unite in a caravan, to prevent the insults and robberies of the Arabs. These caravans are often very numerous, and are always composed of more camels than men. Each camel is loaded in proportion to his strength; and, when overloaded, he refuses to march, and continues lying till his burden is lightened. The large camels generally carry 1000 or 1200 lb. weight, and the smallest from 600 to 700. In these commercial travels, their march is not hastened: As the route is often 700 or 800 leagues, their motions and journeys are regulated. They walk only, and perform about from 10 to 12 leagues each day. Every night they are unloaded, and allowed to pasture at freedom. When in a rich country, or fertile meadow, they eat, in less than an hour, as much as serves them to ruminate the whole night, and to nourish them 24 hours. But they seldom meet with such pastures; neither is this delicate food necessary for them. They even seem to prefer wormwood, thistles, nettles, broom, cassia, and other prickly vegetables, to the softest herbage. As long as they find plants to browse, they easily dispense with drink. This facility of abstaining long from drink proceeds not, however, from habit alone, but is rather an effect of their structure. Independent of the 4 stomachs, which are common to ruminating animals, the camels have a 5th bag, which serves them as a reservoir for water. This 5th stomach is peculiar to the camel. It is so large as to contain a vast quantity of water, where it remains without corrupting, or mixing with the other aliments. When the animal is pressed with thirst, and has occasion for water to macerate his dry food in ruminating, he makes part of this water mount into his paunch, or even as high as the oesophagus, by a simple contraction of certain muscles. It is by this singular construction that the camel is enabled to pass several days without drinking, and to take at a time a prodigious quantity of water, which remains in the reservoir pure

and limpid, because neither the liquors of the body, nor the juices of digestion can mix with it. Travellers, when much oppressed with drought, are sometimes obliged to kill their camels in order to have a supply of drink from these reservoirs. These inoffensive creatures must suffer much; for they utter the most lamentable cries, especially when overloaded. But, though perpetually oppressed, their fortitude is equal to their docility. At the first signal, they bend their knees and lie down to be loaded, which saves their conductor the trouble of raising the goods to a great height. As soon as they are loaded, they rise spontaneously, and without any assistance. One of them is mounted by their conductor, who goes before, and regulates the march of all the followers. They require neither whip nor spur. But, when they begin to be tired, their courage is supported, or rather their fatigue is charmed, by singing, or by the sound of some instrument. Their conductors relieve each other in singing; and, when they want to prolong the journey, they give the animals but one hour's rest; after which, resuming their song, they proceed on their march for several hours more, and the singing is continued till they arrive at another resting place, when the camels again lie down; and their loads, by unloosing the ropes, are allowed to glide off on each side of the animals. Thus they sleep on their bellies in the middle of their baggage, which, next morning is fixed on their backs with equal quickness and facility as it had been detached the evening before. Fatigue, hunger, thirst, and meagreness, are not the only inconveniences to which these animals are subjected: To all these evils they are prepared by castration. One male is only kept for 8 or 10 females; and the labouring camels are generally geldings. They are unquestionably weaker than un mutilated males; but they are more tractable, and at all seasons ready for service; while the former are not only unmanageable, but almost furious, during the rutting season, which lasts forty days, and returns annually in the spring. It is then said, that they foam continually, and that one or two red vesicles, as large as a hog's bladder, issue from their mouths. In this season they eat little, attack and bite animals, and even their own masters, to whom at other times they are very submissive. Their mode of copulating differs from that of other quadrupeds; for the female, instead of standing, lies down on her knees, and receives the males in the same position that she reposes, or is loaded. This posture to which the animals are early accustomed, must be natural, since they assume it spontaneously in coition. The time of gestation is near 12 months, and like all large quadrupeds, the females bring forth only one at a birth. Her milk is copious and thick; and when mixed with a large quantity of water, affords an excellent nourishment to men. The females are not obliged to labour, but are allowed to pasture and produce at full liberty. The advantage derived from their produce and their milk is perhaps superior to what could be drawn from their working. In some places, however, most of the females are castrated, to fit them for labour; and it is alleged, that this operation, instead of diminishing,

ments their strength, vigour, and plumpness. In general, the fatter camels are, they are the more capable of enduring more fatigue. Their bunches seem to proceed from a redundancy of nourishment; for during long journeys, in which their conductor is obliged to husband their food, and when they often suffer much hunger and thirst, these bunches gradually diminish, and become so flat, that the place where they were is only perceptible by the length of the hair, which is always longer on these parts than on the rest of the back. The meagreness of the body augments in proportion as the bunches decrease. The Moors who transport all articles of merchandise from Libya and Numidia, as far as Ethiopia, set out with their camels well laden, which are very fat and vigorous; and bring back the same animals so meagre, that they commonly sell at a low price to the Arabs of the Desert, to be again fattened. Ancient authors assert, that camels are in a condition for propagating at the age of three years. This assertion is suspicious; for, in three years, they have not acquired one half of their growth. The penis of the male, like that of the bull, is very long and very slender. During erection, it stretches forward, like that of all other quadrupeds; but, in its ordinary state, the sheath is drawn backward, and the urine is discharged between the hind legs; so that both males and females urinate in the same manner. The young camel sucks her mother 12 months; but, when meant to be trained, in order to render him strong and robust in the chase, he is allowed to suck and pasture at freedom during the first years, and is not loaded, or made to perform any labour, till he is 4 years old. He generally lives 40 and sometimes 60 years, which duration of life is proportioned to the time of his growth. There is no foundation for what has been advanced by some authors, that he lives 100 years. By considering, under one point of view, all the qualities of this animal, and all the advantages derived from him, must be acknowledged, that he is the most useful creature subjected to the service of man. Gold and silk constitute not the true riches of the East: the camel is the genuine treasure of Asia. He is more valuable than the elephant; for he may be made to perform an equal quantity of labour at a small part of the expence. Besides the whole species are under subjection to man, who propagates and multiplies them at pleasure. But he has no such dominion over the elephant, whom he cannot multiply, and the individuals of whom he conquers with great labour and difficulty. The camel is not only more valuable than the elephant, but is perhaps equal in utility to the horse, the ass, and the ox, when their powers are united. He carries as much as two mules; though he eats as little, and feeds upon herbs equally coarse as the ass. The female furnishes milk longer than the cow. The flesh of a young camel is as good and wholesome as veal: The Africans and Arabs fill their pots and tubs with it. It is fried with oil, and preserved in this manner during the whole year for their ordinary repasts. The hair is finer and more in request than the best wool. Even their excrements are useful; for sal ammo-

niac is made of their urine; and their dung, dried in the sun and pulverised, serves for litter to themselves, as well as to horses, with which people frequently travel in countries where no hay or straw can be had. In fine, their dung makes excellent fuel, which burns freely, and gives as clear and nearly as hot a flame as dry wood, which is of great use in the deserts, where not a tree is to be found, and where, for want of combustible materials, fire is as scarce as water.

2. *CAMELUS DROMEDARIUS*, the Arabian camel, with one bunch or protuberance on the back. It has 4 callous protuberances on the fore-legs, and 2 on the hind ones. This species is common in Africa, and the warmer parts of Asia; not that it is spread over either of the continents. It is a common beast of burden in Egypt, and along the countries which border on the Mediterranean Sea; in Morocco, Sara or the Desert, and Ethiopia: but nowhere S. of these kingdoms. In Asia, it is equally common in Turkey and Arabia; but scarcely seen farther N. than Persia, being too tender to bear a more severe climate. India is destitute of this animal.

3. *CAMELUS GLAMA*, or } the South American camel
3. *CAMELUS LLAMA*, } can camel sheep, has an almost even black, small head, fine black eyes, and very long neck bending much, and very protuberant near the junction with the body; in a tame state, with smooth short hair; in a wild state with long coarse hair, white, grey and russet, disposed in spots; with a black line from the head along the top of the back to the tail, and belly white. The tail is short; the height from 4 to 4½ feet; the length from the neck to the tail, 6 feet. The carcase divested of skin and offals, according to the editor of Mr Byron's voyage, weighs 200lb. In general, the shape exactly resembles a camel, only it wants the dorsal bunch. It is the camel of Peru and Chili; and, before the arrival of the Spaniards, was the only beast of burden known to the Indians. It is very mild, gentle, and tractable. Before the introduction of mules, they were used by the Indians to plough the land: at present they serve to carry burdens of about 100lb. They go with great gravity; and, like their Spanish masters, nothing can prevail upon them to change their pace. They lie down to the burden; and when wearied, no blows can provoke them to go on. Teuillie says, they are so capricious, that if struck, they instantly squat down, and nothing but caresses can make them arise. When angry, they have no other method of revenging their injuries than by spitting; and they can ejaculate their saliva to the distance of ten paces: if it falls on the skin, it raises an itching and a reddish spot. Their flesh is eaten and is said to be as good as mutton. The wool has a strong disagreeable scent. They are very sure-footed, and are therefore used to carry the Peruvian ores over the ruggedest hills and narrowest paths of the Andes. They inhabit that vast chain of mountains through their whole length to the straits of Magellan; but, except where these hills approach the sea, as in Patagonia, never appear on the coasts. Like the camel, they have powers of abstaining long from drink, sometimes for

4 or 5 days : like that animal, their food is coarse. In a wild state, they keep in great herds in the highest and steepest parts of the hills ; and while they are feeding, one keeps centry on the pinnacle of some rock : if it perceives the approach of any one, it neighs ; the herd take the alarm, and go off with incredible speed. They outrun all dogs, so there is no other way of killing them but with the gun. They are killed for the sake of their flesh and hair ; for the Indians weave the last into cloth. From the form of the parts of generation in both sexes, no animal copulates with such difficulty. It is often the labour of a day, *antequam actum ipsum veneremur incipiant, et absolvant.*

4. CAMELUS PACOS, or the sheep of Chili, has no bunch on its back. It is covered with a fine valuable wool, which is of a rose red colour on the back of the animal, and white on the belly. They are of the same nature with the LLAMA, (No. 3.) inhabit the same places, but are more capable of supporting the rigour of frost and snow ; they live in vast herds ; are very timid, and excessively swift. The Indians take the pacos in a strange manner ; they tie cords with bits of cloth or wool hanging on them, about 3 or 4 feet from the ground, across the narrow passes of the mountains, then drive those animals towards them, which are so terrified by the flutter of the rags, as not to dare to pass, but, huddling together, give the hunters an opportunity to kill with their slings as many as they please. The tame ones will carry from 50 to 75 lb. ; but are kept principally for the sake of the wool and the flesh, which is exceedingly well tasted.

CAMELY, a village in Somersetshire, near E. Harptree.

(1.) CAMEO, *n. s.* a picture of one colour. *Asb.*

(2.) CAMEO. See CAMAIEU, § 2—4.

(1.) CAMERA, [Lat. *i. e.* a chamber,] in architecture, a vault or Gallery. *Asb.*

(2.) CAMERA, in old records, a winding plot of ground.

(3.) CAMERA ÆOLIA, a contrivance for blowing the fire, so named by Kircher, for the fusion of ores, without bellows ; by means of water falling through a funnel into a close vessel, which sends from it so much air or vapour as continually blows the fire : if there be the space of another vessel for it to expatiate in by the way, it there lets fall its humidity, which otherwise might hinder the work.

(4.) CAMERA LUCIDA, a contrivance of Dr Hook for making the image of any thing appear on a wall in a light room, either by day or night. Opposite to the place or wall where the appearance is to be, make a hole of at least a foot in diameter, or if there be a high window with a casement opened. At a convenient distance, to prevent its being perceived by the company in the room, place the object or picture intended to be represented, but in an inverted situation. If the picture be transparent, reflect the sun's rays by means of a looking-glass, so as that they may pass through it towards the place of representation ; and to prevent any rays from passing aside it, let the picture be encompassed with some board or cloth. If the object be a statue, or a living creature, it must be much enlightened by casting the

sun's rays on it, either by reflection, refraction, or both. Between this object and the place of presentation put a broad convex glass, growing to such a convexity as that it may represent the object distinctly in such place. The nearer the object is situated to the object, the more will the image be magnified on the wall, and the further the distance, such diversity depending on the difference of the spheres of the glasses. If the object cannot conveniently be inverted, there must be two large glasses of proper spheres, situated at suitable distances, easily found by trial, to make the representations erect. The whole apparatus of object glasses, &c. with the person employed in the management of them, are to be placed without the window or hole, so that they may not be perceived by the spectators in the room, and the operation itself will be easily performed. *Phil. Trans. No. 38. p. 741, seq.*

(5.) * CAMERA OBSCURA. [Latin.] An optical machine used in a darkened chamber, so that the light coming only through a double convex glass, objects exposed to day light, and opposite to the glass, are represented inverted upon any white matter placed in the focus of the glass. *Martin.*

(6.) CAMERA OBSCURA, or the DARK CHAMBER, was invented by Baptista Porta. See his *Magia Naturalis, lib. xvii. cap. 6.* It affords very diverting spectacles ; both by exhibiting images perfectly like their objects, and each clothed in their native colours ; and by expressing, at the same time, all their motions ; which latter no other art can imitate. By means of this instrument, a person unacquainted with designing may be able to delineate objects with the greatest accuracy and justness, and another well versed in painting will find many things herein to perfect his art. See the construction under DIOPTRICS.

* CAMERADE. *n. s.* [from *camera*, a chamber, Lat.] One that lodges in the same chamber : a bosom companion. By corruption we now say *comrade*.—*Comrades* with him, and confederates in his design. *Rymer.*

CAMERARIA, in botany : a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants ; and in the natural method ranking under the 30th order, Contortæ. There are two horizontal follicles at the base of the seed-capsule. The seeds are inserted into a proper membrane. There are two species ; viz.

1. CAMERARIA ANGUSTIFOLIA has an irregular shrubby stalk, which rises about 8 feet, sending out many branches which are garnished with very narrow thin leaves placed opposite at each joint. The flowers are produced scatteringly at the end of the branches, which are shaped like those of the LATIFOLIA (See N. 2.) but smaller. It is a native of Jamaica.

2. CAMERARIA LATIFOLIA, a native of the island of Cuba. It rises with a shrubby stalk to 10 or 12 feet, dividing into several branches, garnished with roundish pointed leaves placed opposite. The flowers are produced at the end of the branches in loose clusters, which have long tubes enlarging gradually upward, and at the top are cut into 5 segments, broad at their base, but ending in sharp points ; the flower is of a yellowish white colour. Both these plants abound with

rid' milky juice like the spurge. They are propagated by seeds, which must be procured from the places of their growth. They may also be propagated by cuttings planted in a hot-bed during summer: they must have a bark stove, for they are very tender; but in warm weather they must have plenty of air.

(1.) CAMERARIUS, Joachim, one of the most learned writers of his time, was born in 1500, at Nuremberg, in Franconia. He translated into Latin Herodotus, Demosthenes, Xenophon, Euclid, Homer, Theocritus, Sophocles, Lucian, Theodoret, Ptolemy, &c. He published a catalogue of the bishops of the principal sees; Greek Epistles; accounts of his journeys, in Latin verse; a commentary on Plautus: the Lives of Helius Eobanus Hessus, and Philip Melancthon, &c. He died in 1574.

(2.) CAMERARIUS, Joachim, son of the former, &c. (1.) and a learned physician, was born at Nuremberg in 1534. After having finished his studies in Germany, he went into Italy, where he obtained the esteem of the learned. At his return he was courted by several princes to live with them; but he was too much devoted to books, and the study of chemistry and botany, to comply. He wrote *Hortus Medicus*, and several other works. He died in 1598.

* CAMERATED. *adj.* [*cameratus*, Lat.] Arched; roofed slopewise.

* CAMERATION. *n. s.* [*cameratio*, Lat.] Vaulting or arching.

CAMERET BAY, a capacious bay of France on the coast of Cape Finisterre, which forms the harbour of Brest. See BREST, N. 1.

CAMERINGHAM, a town of Saxby, Lincolnshire.

CAMERINO, a town of the ecclesiastical state in Italy. Lon. 13. 7. E. Lat. 45. 5. N.

CAMERLINGO signified formerly the pope's chamberlain; at present the word is nowhere used but at Rome, where it denotes the cardinal who governs the ecclesiastical state and administers justice. It is the most eminent office at the court of Rome, because he is at the head of the treasury. During a vacation of the papal chair, the cardinal camerlingo publishes edicts, coins money, and exerts every other prerogative of a sovereign prince; he has under him a treasurer-general, auditor-general, and 12 prelates called *clerks of the chamber*.

(1.) CAMERON, a parish of Scotland, in Fifeshire, disjoined from that of St Andrews, above 60 years ago, being not 5 miles distant from the city of St Andrews. It is 6 miles long from E. to W. and 4½ broad from N. to S. The soil is fitter for pasturage than grain. The climate is healthy. The population, as stated by the rev. Mr Mair, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1165, in 1793; and had decreased 1304 in the 38 years preceding.

(2.) CAMERON, John, one of the most famous divines among the Protestants of France in the 17th century, was born at Glasgow in 1580, where he taught the Greek tongue; and having read lectures upon that language for about a year, travelled, and became professor and minister at Bourdeaux, Sedan, and Saumur; at which last place

he broached his new doctrine of grace and free will, which was framed by Amyraut, Cappel, Bochart, Daille, and others of the more learned among the reformed ministers, who judged Calvin's doctrines on these points too harsh. He published, 1. Theological lectures; 2. *Icon Johannis Cameronis*; and some miscellaneous pieces. He died in 1625, aged 60.

(3.) CAMERON, Richard, the founder of the Scots Cameronians, was a famous field-preacher, who refusing to accept the indulgence to tender consciences, granted by king Charles II. thinking such an acceptance an acknowledgment of the king's supremacy, and that he had before a right to silence them, made a defection from his brethren, and even headed a rebellion, in which he was killed.

(4.) CAMERON, CAPE, a head-land of N. America, on the N. part of Honduras. Lon. 83. 39. W. Lat. 15. 35. N.

(1.) CAMERONIANS, a sect in Scotland, who separated from the Presbyterians in 1666, and continued long to hold their religious assemblies in the fields. The Cameronians took their denomination from Richard Cameron. (See CAMERON, N. 3.) They were never entirely reduced till the Revolution, when they voluntarily submitted to king William.—The Cameronians adhere rigidly to the form of government established in 1648. They are also called *Cargillites* from another of their preachers. See CARGILLITES.

(2.) CAMERONIANS, or CAMERONITES, a party of Calvinists in France, who asserted that the will of man is only determined by the practical judgment of the mind; that the cause of men's doing good or evil proceeds from the knowledge which God infuses into them; and that God does not move the will physically, but only morally, in virtue of its dependence on the judgment of the mind. They were so named from prof. John Cameron. (See CAMERON, N. 2.) They are a sort of mitigated Calvinists, and approach to the opinion of the Arminians. They are also called UNIVERSALISTS, as holding the universality of Christ's death; and sometimes AMYRALDISTS. Their enemies accuse them of Pelagianism.

CAMERTON, two English villages: 1. in Somersetshire, near Finsborough: 2. in Yorkshire, in Holderness.

CAMERY, *n. s.* in farriery, the frounce, a disease of horses. *Asb.*

CAMES, a name given to the small slender rods of cast lead, of which the glaziers make their turned lead. The lead being cast into slender rods of 12 or 14 inches long each, is called the *came*; sometimes also they call each of these rods a *came*, which being afterwards drawn through their vice, makes their turned lead.

CAMESWORTH, a village of Dorsetshire, S. of Bournemouth.

CAMICA, *n. s.* in old records, camelot.

CAMILLA, in fabulous history, queen of the Volsci, a heroine of masculine courage, who was slain in the war with Aeneas, when she assisted Turnus against him, and the Latins.

CAMILLÆ, and CAMILLI, } in antiquity, girls and boys who ministered in the sacrifices of the gods; and especially those who attended

Though the bloom of his youth was effaced by long residence under the scorching sun-beams of Africa, and disfigured by the loss of an eye, his presence gave uneasiness to some gentlemen of families of the first rank, where he had formerly resided. Jealousy is the characteristic of the Spanish and Portuguese; its resentment knows no bounds, and Camoens now found it prudent to banish himself from his native country. Accordingly, in 1553, he sailed for India, with a resolution never to return. As the ship left the Tagus, he exclaimed, in the words of the sepulchral monument of Scipio Africanus, *Ingrata patria, non indehis ossa mea!* "Ungrateful country, thou shalt not possess my bones!" But he knew not what evils in the East would awake the remembrance of his native fields. When Camoens arrived in India, a fleet was ready to sail to revenge the king of Cochin on the king of Pimenta. Without any rest on shore after his long voyage, he joined this armament, and in the conquest of the Alagada islands displayed his usual bravery. In 1554, he attended Vasconcello in an expedition to the Red Sea. Here, says Faria, as Camoens had no use for his sword, he employed his pen. Nor was his activity confined in the fleet or camp. He visited Mount Felix and the adjacent inhospitable regions of Africa, which he so strongly pictures in the *Lusiad*, and in one of his little pieces where he laments the absence of his mistress. When he returned to Goa, he enjoyed a tranquillity which enabled him to bestow his attention on his Epic Poem. But this serenity was interrupted, perhaps by his own imprudence. He wrote some satires which gave offence; and, by order of the viceroy Francisco Barreto, he was banished to China. The accomplishments of Camoens soon found him friends, even under the disgrace of banishment. He was appointed commissary of the defunct in the island of Macao, a Portuguese settlement in the bay of Canton. Here he continued his *Lusiad*; and here also, after 5 years residence, he acquired a fortune, equal to his wishes. Don Constantine de Braganza was now viceroy of India; and Camoens, desirous to return to Goa, resigned his charge. In a ship, freighted by himself, he set sail; but was shipwrecked in the gulf near the mouth of the river Mehon on the coast of China. All he had acquired was lost; as he tells us in the 7th *Lusiad*.

"Now blest with all the wealth fond hope could crave,

Soon I beheld that wealth beneath the wave
For ever lost;—

My life, like Judah's heaven-doom'd king of yore,

By miracle prolong'd."—

His poems, which he held in one hand, while he swam with the other, were all that he possessed, when he stood friendless on the unknown shore. But the natives gave him a most humane reception; which he has immortalised in that beautiful prophetic song in the tenth *Lusiad*. On the banks of the Mehon, he wrote his beautiful paraphrase of the psalm, where the Jews, in the finest strain of poetry, are represented as hanging their harps on the willows by the rivers of Babylon, and weeping their exile from their native

country. Here Camoens continued some time, till an opportunity offered to carry him to Goa. When he arrived at that city, Don Constantine de Braganza, the viceroy, admitted him into intimate friendship, and Camoens was happy till count Rodondo assumed the government. But now, those who had formerly procured his banishment, exerted all their arts against him. Rodondo, when he entered on office, pretended to be the friend of Camoens; yet, he soon after suffered him to be thrown into the common prison. Camoens, however, in a public trial, fully refuted every accusation of his conduct while commissary at Macao, and his enemies were loaded with ignominy. But Camoens had some creditors, who detained him in prison a considerable time, till the gentlemen of Goa, ashamed that a man of his singular merit should experience such treatment among them, set him at liberty. He again assumed the profession of arms, and received the allowance of a gentleman volunteer, a character at this time common in Portuguese India. Soon after, Pedro Barreto, appointed governor of the fort at Sofala, by high promises, allured the poet to attend him thither. Though the only motive of Barreto was, to retain the conversation of Camoens at his table, it was his least care to render the life of his guest agreeable. Chagrined with his treatment, and a considerable time having elapsed in vain dependence upon Barreto, Camoens resolved to return to his native country. A ship, on the homeward voyage, at this time touched at Sofala, and several gentlemen who were on board were desirous that Camoens should accompany them. But to prevent this, the governor ungenerously charged him with a debt for board. Anthony de Cabra, however, and Hector de Sylveira, paid the demand; and "Camoens, says Faria, and the honour of Barreto, were sold together." After an absence of 16 years, Camoens, in 1569, returned to Lisbon, unhappy even in his arrival, for the pestilence then raged in that city, and prevented his publication for 3 years. At last, in 1572, he printed his *Lusiad*, which, in the opening of the first book, in a most elegant turn of compliment, he addressed to king Sebastian, then in his 18th year. The king, says the French translator, was so pleased with his merit, that he gave the author a pension of 4000 reals, on condition that he should reside at court. But this salary, says the same writer, was withdrawn by cardinal Henry, who succeeded to the crown of Portugal, lost by Sebastian at the battle of Alcazar. Though Henry was the great patron of one species of literature, yet the author of the *Lusiad* was utterly neglected by him, and under his inglorious reign, died in all the misery of poverty. By some, it is said, he died in an alms house. It appears, however, that he had not even the certainty of subsistence, which these houses provide. He had a black servant, who had grown old with him, who had long experienced his master's humanity. This grateful Indian, a native of Java, who, according to some writers, saved his master's life in the shipwreck, begged in the streets of Lisbon, for the only man in Portugal on whom God had bestowed those talents, which tend to erect the spirit of a degenerate age. To the eye of a careful observer, the

fare of Camoens throws great light on that of his country, and will appear strictly connected with it. The same ignorance, the same despicable spirit, which suffered Camoens to depend on alms, sunk the kingdom of Portugal into the most abject vassalage ever experienced by a conquered nation. While the grandees were blind to the ruin which impended over them, Camoens beheld it with a pungency of grief which hastened his exit. In one of his letters he has these remarkable words: *Em fim accaberey á vida, &c.* "I am ending the course of my life; the world will witness how I have loved my country. I have returned, not only to die in her bosom, but to die with her." In this unhappy situation, in 1759, in his 62d year, the year after the fatal defeat of Don Sebastian, died Lewis De Camoens, the greatest literary genius ever produced in Portugal; a man equal in martial courage and honour to her greatest heroes. And he was buried in a manner suitable to the poverty in which he died. The *Lusiad* has been translated once into Latin, twice into Italian, once into French, 4 times into Spanish, and once into English, by Mr Mickle. Rapin, however, has criticised it.

CAMOLIN, a village in Wexford, Ireland.

(1.) * CAMOMILE. *n. f.* [*anthemis.*] A flower.

(2.) CAMOMILE, in botany. See ANTHEMIS, § 2.

CAMOPI, a river in Cayenne.

* CAMOYS. *adj.* [*camus*, Fr.] Flat; level; depressed. It is only used of the nose.—Many Spaniards, of the race of Barbary Moors, though after frequent commixture, have not worn out the *camoys* nose unto this day. *Brown's Vulgar Err.*

(1.) * CAMP. *n. f.* [*camp*, Fr. *camp*, Sax. from *campus*, Lat.] the order of tents, placed by armies when they keep the field. We use the phrase *to pitch a camp*, to encamp.—

From camp to camp, thro' the foul womb of night,

The hum of either army stilly sounds. *Shakesp.*

Next, to secure our camp, and naval powers,
Raise an embattled wall, with lofty tow'rs. *Pope.*

(2.) CAMP, with all due deference to Dr Johnson, signifies rather *the ground* on which an army pitch their tents. It is marked out by the quarter-master general, who appoints every regiment their ground. See § 4—6.

(3.) CAMP is also used by the Siamese, and some other nations in the East Indies, as the name of the quarters which they assign to foreigners, who come to trade with them. In these, every nation forms a kind of town, where they carry on their trade, not only keeping all their warehouses and shops but also living in these camps with their whole families. The Europeans, however, may live either in the cities or suburbs, as they shall judge most convenient.

(4.) CAMPS, ADVANTAGES REQUISITE IN CHU-
SING. These are chiefly to have the camp near water, in a country of forage, where the soldiers may find wood for dressing their victuals; that it have a free communication with garrisons, and with a country from whence it may be supplied with provisions; and, if possible, that it be situated on a rising ground, in a dry gravelly soil. Besides, the advantages of the ground ought to be considered, as marshes, woods, rivers, and inclo-

tures; and if the camp be near the enemy, with no river or marsh to cover it, the army ought to be intrenched. An army always encamps fronting the enemy; and generally in two lines, running parallel about 500 yards distance; the horse and dragoons, on the wings, and the foot, in the centre: sometimes a body of 2, 3, or 4 brigades is encamped behind the two lines, and is called the *body of reserve*. The artillery and bread wagons are generally encamped in the rear of the two lines. A battalion of foot is allowed 80 or 100 paces for its camp; and 30 or 40 for an interval betwixt one battalion and another. A squadron of horse is allowed 30 for its camp, and 30 for an interval, and more if the ground will allow it. Where the grounds are equally dry, those camps are always the most healthful that are pitched on the banks of large rivers; because, in the hot season, situations of this kind have a stream of fresh air from the water, serving to carry off moist and putrid exhalations. On the other hand, next to marshes, the worst encampments are on low grounds close beset with trees; for then the air is not only moist and hurtful in itself, but by stagnating becomes more susceptible of corruption. However, let the situation of camps be ever so good, they are frequently rendered infectious by the putrid effluvia of rotten straw, and the privies of the army; more especially if the bloody flux prevails, in which case the best method of preventing a general infection, is to leave the ground with all the filth of the camp behind. This must be frequently done, if consistent with the military operations: but when they render it improper to change the ground often, the privies should be made deeper than usual, and once a-day a thick layer of earth thrown into them till the pits are near full; and then they are to be well covered, and supplied by others. It may also be a proper caution to order the pits to be made either in the front or the rear, as the then stationary winds may best carry off their effluvia from the camp. It will also be necessary to change the straw frequently, as being not only apt to rot, but to retain the infectious steams of the sick. But if fresh straw cannot be procured, more care must be taken in airing the tents, as well as the old straw.

(5.) CAMPS, ANCIENT FORMS OF. The disposition of the Hebrew encampment was at first laid out by God himself. Their camp was of a quadrangular form, surrounded with an inclosure of the height of 10 hands-breadths. It made a square of 12 miles in compass about the tabernacle; and within this was the Levites camp. The Greeks had also their camps, fortified with gates and ditches. The Lacedæmonians made their camp of a round figure, looking upon that as the most perfect and defensive of any form; though they doubtless dispensed with it when circumstances required. In the other Grecian camps, the most valiant of the soldiers were placed at the extremities, the rest in the middle. Thus Homer tells us, that Achilles and Ajax were posted at the ends of the camp before Troy, as bulwarks on each side of the other princes. The figure of the Roman camp was a square divided into two principal parts: in the upper parts were the general's pavilion,

vilion, or prætorium, and the tent of the chief officers; in the lower, those of inferior degree. On one side of the prætorium stood the quæstorium, or apartment of the treasurer; and near this the forum, both for a market-place and the assembling of councils. On the other side of the prætorium were lodged the legati; and below it the tribunes had their quarters, opposite to their respective legions. Aside from the tribunes were the præfecti of the foreign troops, over against their respective wings; and behind these were the lodgments of the EVOCATI; then those of the extraordinarii and ABLECTI equites, which concluded the higher part of the camp. Between the two partitions was a spot of ground called PRINCIPIA, for the altars and images of the gods, and probably also for the chief ensigns. The middle of the lower partition was assigned to the Roman horse; next to them were quartered the triarii; then the principes, and close by them the hastati; afterwards the foreign horse, and lastly the foreign foot. They fortified their camp with a ditch and parapet, which they termed *fossa* and *vallum*; in the latter some distinguish two parts, viz. the *agger* or earth, and the *fudes* or wooden stakes driven in to secure it. The camps were sometimes surrounded by walls made of hewn stone; and the tents themselves formed of the same matter.

(6.) CAMPS, TURKISH, ARABIC, &c. In the front of the Turkish camp are quartered the janizaries and other foot, whose tents encompass their aga: in the rear are the quarters of the spahis and other horsemen. The body of the camp is possessed by the stately tents or pavilions of the vizir, reis effendi, kahija, the tesserdar bashaw, and kapi-kahiafec. In the middle of these tents is a spacious field, wherein are erected a building for the divan, and a hafna or treasury. When the ground is marked out for a camp, all wait for the pitching of the tent LAILAC, the place where the courts of justice are held; it being the disposition of this, that is to regulate all the rest. The Arabs still live in camps, as the ancient Scenites did. The camp of the Assyne Emir, or king of the country about Tadmor, is described by a traveller who viewed it, as spread over a very large plain, and possessing so vast a space, that though he had the advantage of a rising ground, he could not see the utmost extent of it. His own tent was near the middle; scarce distinguishable from the rest, except that it was bigger, being made, like the others, of a sort of hair-cloth.

* To CAMP. v. a. [from the noun.] 1. To encamp; to lodge in tents, for hostile purposes.—

Had our great palace the capacity

To camp this host, we would all lie together.

Shakespeare.

2. To camp; to pitch a camp; to fix tents.

CAMPAGNA. See CAMPANIA, No. 1. & 2.

(1.) * CAMPAIGN. CAMPANIA. n. f. [*campagne*, French; *campania*, Ital.] 1. A large open level tract of ground, without hills.—In countries thinly inhabited, and especially in vast *campanias*, there are few cities, besides what grow by the residence of kings. Temple.—

Those grateful groves, that shade the plain,
Where Tiber rolls majestic to the main,
And fattens, as he runs, the fair campaign. Garth.

2. The time for which any army keeps the field, without entering into quarters.—This might have hastened his march, which would have made a fair conclusion of the campaign. Clarendon.—

An iliad rising out of one campaign. Addison.

(2.) CAMPAIGN. See § 1. def. 2. The beginning of every campaign is considerably more unhealthy than if the men were to remain in quarters. After the first 2 or 3 weeks encampment, the sickness decreases daily; the most infirm being in that time in the hospitals, and the weather daily growing warmer. This healthy state continues throughout the summer, unless the men get wet clothes or wet beds; in which case, a greater or less degree of the dysentery will appear in proportion to the preceding heats. But the most sickly part of the campaign begins about the middle or end of August, whilst the days are still hot, but the nights cool and damp, with fogs and dews: then the dysentery prevails greatly; and though its violence is over by the beginning of October, yet the remitting fever gaining ground, continues throughout the rest of the campaign, and never entirely ceases, even in winter quarters, till the frosts begin. At the beginning of a campaign, the sickness is so uniform, that the number may be nearly predicted; but for the rest of the season, as the diseases are then of a contagious nature, and depend much upon the heats of the summer, it is impossible to foresee how many may fall sick from the beginning to the end of autumn. The last fortnight of a campaign, if protracted, is attended with more sickness than the first 2 months encampment; so that it is better to take the field a fortnight sooner, in order to return into winter quarters so much the earlier. Winter expeditions, though severe in appearance, are attended with little sickness, if the men have strong shoes, quarters, fuel, and provisions. Long marches in summer are dangerous, unless made in the night, or so early in the morning as to be over before the heat of the day.

CAMPANA, [Lat. i. e. a bell.] See BELL, No. 1. § 9.

CAMPANACEÆ. See BOTANY, § 248, and 308.

CAMPANELLA, Thomas, a famous Italian philosopher, born at Stilo in Calabria, in 1568. He distinguished himself very early, for at the age of 13 he was a perfect master of the ancient orators and poets. His peculiar inclination was to philosophy, to which he at last confined his whole time and study. To arrive at truth, he shook off the yoke of authority; and the novelty of some of his opinions exposed him to many inconveniences; for at Naples he was thrown into prison, in which he remained 27 years. During his confinement, he wrote his famous work, entitled *Atheismus triumphatus*. Being at length set at liberty, he went to Paris, where he was graciously received by Louis XIII. and cardinal Richelieu; the latter procured him a pension of 2000 livres, and often consulted him on the affairs of Italy. Campanella passed the remainder of his days in a monastery at Paris, and died in 1639.

CAMPANI, Matthew, of Spoleto, curate at Rome, wrote a curious treatise on the art of cut-

... were converted into stables; and Gregory XI. on his return to Rome, in 1376, hardly found 10,000 inhabitants. It is only long after the time of Pius V. and Sixtus V. at the end of the 16th century, that the popes have employed the necessary method for purifying the air of Rome and its environs, by

branches are produced, which are terminated by flowers very like the *SPECULUM*. This was formerly cultivated in the gardens; but since the *speculum* hath been introduced, it hath almost supplanted this; for the other is a much taller plant, and the flowers larger, though of a less beautiful colour.

4. *CAMPANULA LATIFOLIA*, or greatest bell flower, hath a perennial root, composed of many fleshy fibres that abound with a milky juice. From these arise several strong, round single stalks, which never put out branches, but are garnished with oval spear-shaped leaves slightly indented on their edges. Towards the upper part of the stalk the flowers come out singly upon short foot-stalks; their colours are blue, purple, and white.

5. *CAMPANULA MEDIUM*, the Canterbury bell flower, is a biennial plant, which perishes soon after it has ripened its seeds. It grows natural in the woods of Italy and Austria; but is cultivated in the British gardens for the beauty of its flowers, which are blue, purple, white, and striped, with double flowers of all the colours. It has oblong, rough, hairy leaves, serrated on their edges: from the centre of these rises a stiff, hairy, furrowed stalk, about two feet high, sending out several lateral branches garnished with long, narrow, hairy leaves sawed on their edges. From the setting on of these leaves proceed the foot-stalks of the flowers; those, which are on the lower part of the stalk and branches, diminishing gradually in their length upward, and thereby forming a sort of pyramid. The flowers of this kind are very large, and make a fine appearance. The seeds ripen in September, and the plants decay soon after.

6. *CAMPANULA PYRAMIDALIS* hath thick tuberous roots filled with a milky juice; it sends out strong smooth, upright stalks, which rise to the height of 4 feet, garnished with smooth oblong leaves a little indented at the edges. The flowers are produced from the sides of the stalks, and are regularly set on for more than half their length, forming a sort of pyramid; these are large, open, and shaped like a bell. The most common colour of the flowers is blue, though some are white, but the former are much esteemed.

7. *CAMPANULA RAPUNCULUS*, the rampion, hath roundish fleshy roots, which are eatable, and much cultivated in France for sallads; some years past, it was cultivated in the English gardens for the same purpose, but is now generally neglected. It is a native of Britain; but the roots of the wild sort never grow to half the size of those which are cultivated.

8. *CAMPANULA SPECULUM* with yellow eye-bright leaves, is an annual plant with slender stalks rising a foot high, branching out on every side, and garnished with oblong leaves a little curled on their edges; from the wings of the leaves come out the flowers sitting close to the stalks, which are of a beautiful purple inclining to a violet colour. In the evening, they contract and fold into a pentagonal figure; from whence it is by some called *VIOLA PENTAGONIA*, or FIVE-CORNERED VIOLET.

9. *CAMPANULA TRACHELIUM*, with nettle leaves, has a perennial root, which sends up several

stiff hairy stalks having two ribs or angles. These put out a few short side branches, garnished with oblong hairy leaves deeply sawed on their edges. Toward the upper part of the stalks, the flowers come out alternately upon short trifid foot-stalks having hairy empalements. The colours of the flowers are a deep and pale blue and white, with double flowers of the same; the double flowered kind only merit a place in gardens.

(II.) *CAMPANULÆ*, CULTURE OF THE. The first species is propagated by parting the roots, which must be done with caution: for if they are broken or wounded, the milky juice will flow out plentifully; and if planted before the wounds are skinned over, it occasions their rotting: therefore when any of them are broken, they should be laid in the green-house a few days to heal. These roots must not be too often parted, if they are expected to flower well; for by this means they are weakened. The best time for transplanting and parting their roots is in July, soon after the stalks are decayed. They must not be planted in rich earth, otherwise they will be very luxuriant in branches, and have but few flowers. They succeed best in a light sandy loam, mixed with a fourth part of screened lime-rubbish: when the roots are first planted the pots should be placed in the shade, and unless the season is very dry they should not be watered; for during the time they are inactive, wet is very injurious to them. About the middle of August, the roots will begin to put out fibres; at which time, if the pots are placed under a hot-bed frame, and, as the nights grow cool, covered with the glasses, but opened every day to enjoy the free air, it will greatly forward them for flowering, and increase their strength; when the stalks appear, they must be now and then refreshed with water; but it must not be given too often, nor in too great quantity. The plants thus managed, by the middle of September will have grown so tall as not to be kept any longer under the glass frame; they must, therefore, be removed into a dry airy glass case, where they may enjoy the air in free mild weather, but screened from the cold. During winter they must be frequently refreshed with water, and guarded from frost; and, in spring, when the stalks begin to decay, the pots should be set abroad in the shade, and not watered. The 2d, 4th, 5th, and 9th species are so easily propagated by parting the roots, or by seeds, that no particular directions for the culture need be given. The 3d and 8th species are easily propagated by seeds, which they produce in plenty. If these, and the Venus navelwort, dwarf lychnis, candy-tuft, and other low annual flowers, are properly mixed in the border of the flower-garden, and sown at different seasons, so as to have a succession of them in flower, they will make an agreeable variety. If these seeds are sown in autumn, the plants will flower early in the spring; but if sown in spring, they will not flower till the middle of June; and if a third sowing is performed about the middle of May, the plants will flower in August; but from these, good seeds must not be expected. The *PYRAMIDALIS*, (N. 6.) is cultivated to adorn halls, and to place before chimnies in summer when it is in flower, for which purpose

goffe there is no plant more proper; for when the roots are strong, they will send out 4 or 5 stalks which will rise as many feet high, adorned with flowers a great part of their length. When the flowers begin to open, the pots are removed into the rooms, where, being shaded from the sun and rain, the flowers continue long in beauty; and if the pots are every night removed into a more airy situation, but not exposed to heavy rains, the flowers will be fairer, and continue much longer. Those plants which are thus treated, are seldom fit for the purpose the following season; therefore a supply of young ones must be annually raised. The plant may be propagated either by dividing the roots or by seeds, but the latter produce the most vigorous and best flowering plants. The seeds must be sown in autumn in boxes or pots filled with light undunged earth, and placed in the open air till the frost or hard rains come on: then they must be placed under a hot-bed frame, where they may be sheltered from both; but in mild weather the glasses should be drawn off every day: with this management the plants will come up early in spring, when they must be removed out of the frame, and placed first in a warm situation; but, when the season becomes warm, they should be so placed as to have the morning sun only. In September the leaves of the plants will begin to decay, at which time they should be transplanted; therefore there must be one or two beds prepared, in proportion to the number of plants. These beds must be in a warm situation, and the earth light, sandy, and without any mixture of dung. The plants must be taken out of the pots very carefully, so as not to bruise their roots; for they are very tender, and on being broken the milky juice will flow out plentifully, which will greatly weaken them.— They should be planted about six inches distant each way, with the head of the root half an inch below the surface. If the season proves dry, they must be gently watered 3 or 4 days after they are planted; the beds should also be covered with mats in the day, which should be taken off at night to let the dew fall on them. Towards the end of November the beds should be covered with old tanners bark to keep out the frost; and where there is not conveniency for covering them with frames, they should be arched over with hoops, that in severe weather they may be covered with mats. In spring the mats must be removed, and, the following summer, the plants kept free from weeds. In autumn the earth should be stirred between them, some fresh earth spread over the beds, and the plants covered in winter as before. In these beds the plants may remain two years, during which time they are to be treated in the manner before directed. The roots will now be strong enough to flower; so, in September they should be carefully taken up, and some of the most promising carefully planted in pots; the others may be planted in warm borders, or in a fresh bed, at a greater distance than before, to allow them room to grow. Those plants which are potted should be sheltered in winter from great rains and hard frosts, otherwise they will be in danger of rotting, or at least will be so weakened as not to flower with any strength the following

summer; and those which are planted in the ground, should have some old tanners bark round them to prevent the frost from getting to the roots. The *RAPUNCULUS*, (N. 7.) which is cultivated for its esculent roots, may be propagated by seeds, which are to be sown in a sunny border; when the plants are about an inch high, the ground should be hoed to cut up the weeds, and thin the plants, to the distance of 3 or 4 inches; and when the weeds come up again they must be hoed over to destroy them: this, if well performed in dry weather, will make the ground clean for a long time; so that, being three times repeated, it will keep the plants clean till winter, which is the season for eating the roots, when they may be taken up for use as wanted. They will continue good till April, at which time they send out their stalks, when the roots become hard.

* *CAMPANULATE*. *adj.* The same with *campaniform*.

CAMPANUS *sawus*, in ancient geography, the gulf of Naples.

CAMPASPE, a most beautiful concubine of Alexander the Great, who ordered Apelles to draw her picture naked. But the painter, during the operation, falling desperately in love with her, the conqueror of the world conquered his own passion so far, as to give her up to him.

(1.) *CAMPBELL*, Archibald, earl and marquess of Argyle, was the son of Archibald earl of Argyle, by lady Anne Douglas, daughter of William earl of Morton. He was born in 1598, and educated in the Protestant religion, according to the strictest rules of the church of Scotland, as established immediately after the reformation. During the commonwealth he was induced to submit to its authority. Upon the restoration, he was tried for his compliance; a crime common to him with the whole nation, and such a one as the most loyal and affectionate subject might frequently by violence be induced to commit. To make this compliance appear voluntary on his part, letters were produced in court, which he had wrote to Albemarle, while that general governed Scotland, and which contained expressions of the most cordial attachment to the established government. But, besides the general indignation excited by Albemarle's discovery of his private correspondence, it was thought, that even the highest demonstrations of affection might, during jealous times, be exacted as a necessary mark of compliance from a person of such distinction as Argyle; and could not, by any equitable construction, imply the crime of treason. The parliament, however, scrupled not to pass sentence upon him, May 25, 1661, and he suffered with great constancy and courage.

(2.) *CAMPBELL*, Archibald, earl of Argyll, son of the preceding, (N. 1.) had from his youth distinguished himself by his loyalty and attachment to the royal family. Though his father was head of the covenanters, he himself refused to concur in any of their measures; and when a commission of colonel was given him by the convention of states, he forbore to act upon it till it should be ratified by the king. By his respectful behaviour, as well as by his services, he rendered himself acceptable to Charles I. when that prince

in Scotland, and even after the battle of Worcester, all the misfortunes which attended the royal cause could not engage him to desert it. Under Middleton he obstinately persevered to harry and infest the victorious English; and it was not till he received orders from that general, that he would submit to accept of a capitulation. His jealousy of his loyal attachments was entered into by the commonwealth and protector, that pretence was soon after fallen upon to commit him to prison; and his confinement was rigorous and continued till the restoration. The king, sensible of his services, had remitted to him his father's forfeiture, and created him earl of Argyle; but when a most unjust sentence was passed upon him by the Scots parliament, Charles had anew remitted it. In the subsequent part of this reign Argyle behaved himself dutifully; and though he was never disposed to go all lengths with the court, he always appeared, even in his opposition, as a man of mild dispositions and peaceable deportment. A parliament was summoned at Edinburgh in summer 1681, and the duke was appointed commissioner. Besides granting money to the king, and voting the indefeasible right of succession, this parliament enacted a *test*, which all persons possessed of offices, civil, military, or ecclesiastical, were bound to take. In this test the king's supremacy was asserted, the covenant renounced, passive obedience assented to, and all obligations disclaimed of endeavouring any alteration in civil or ecclesiastical establishments. This was the state of the test as proposed by the court; but the country party proposed also a clause of adherence to the Protestant religion, which could not with decency be rejected. The whole was of an enormous length, considered as an oath; but, what was worse, a confession of faith was required which had been imposed a little after the reformation, and which contained many articles altogether forged by the parliament and king. Among others, the doctrine of *resistance* was inculcated; so that the test being voted in a hurry, was found on examination to be a medley of absurdity and contradiction. Though the courtiers could not reject the clause of adhering to the Protestant religion, they proposed, as a requisite mark of respect, that all princes of the blood should be exempted from taking that oath. This exception was zealously opposed by Argyle; he observed that the sole danger to be dreaded to the Protestant religion must proceed from the conversion of the royal family. By insisting on such topics, he drew on himself the secret indignation of the duke of York, of which he soon felt the fatal consequences. When Argyle took the oath as a privy counsellor, he subjoined, in the king's presence, an explanation which he had before communicated to that prince, and which he believed to have been approved by him. It was these words. "I have considered the test, and am very desirous of giving obedience as far as I can. I am confident that the parliament never intended to impose *contradictory oaths*; therefore I think no man can explain it but for himself. Accordingly I take it as far as it is *consistent with it* and the Protestant religion. And I do declare, that I mean not to bind myself, in my station,

and in a lawful way, from wishing and endeavouring any alteration, which I think to the advantage of church or state, and not repugnant to the Protestant religion and my loyalty: and this I understand as a part of my oath." The duke heard it with great tranquillity: no one took the least offence: Argyle was admitted to sit that day in council; and it was impossible to imagine that a capital offence had been committed, where occasion seemed not to have been given so much as for a frown or reprimand. The earl was not a little surprised, however, a few days after, to find that a warrant was issued for committing him to prison; that he was indicted for high treason, leasing-making, and perjury; and that from the innocent words above mentioned an accusation was extracted, by which he was to forfeit life, honours, and fortune. It is needless to enter into particulars, where the iniquity of the whole is so evidently apparent. Though the sword of *injustice* was displayed, even her semblance was not put on; and the forms of law were preserved to sanctify, or rather aggravate, the oppression. Of five judges, three did not scruple to find the guilt of treason and leasing-making to be incurred by the prisoner: a jury of 25 noblemen gave verdict against him; and the king being consulted, ordered the sentence to be pronounced, but the execution of it to be suspended till further orders. Argyle, however, saw no reason to trust to the justice or mercy of such enemies: He made his escape from prison, and, till he could find a ship for Holland, concealed himself for some time in London. The king heard of his lurking place, but would not suffer him to be arrested. All the parts, however, of his sentence, so far as the government in Scotland had power, were rigorously executed; his estate was confiscated, his arms reversed and torn. Having got over to Holland, he remained there during the remaining part of the reign of Charles II. But thinking himself at liberty, before the coronation of James II. to exert himself in order to recover the constitution by force of arms, he concerted measures with the duke of Monmouth, and went to Scotland, to assemble his friends: but not meeting with the success he expected, he was taken prisoner; and being carried to Edinburgh, was beheaded upon his former unjust sentence, June 30, 1685. He showed great constancy and courage under his misfortunes: on the day of his death he ate his dinner very cheerfully: and, according to custom, slept after it a quarter of an hour or more, very soundly. At the place of execution, he made a short, grave, and religious speech; and, after solemnly declaring that he forgave all his enemies, submitted to death with great firmness.

(3.) CAMPBELL, Archibald, first duke of Argyle, son to the preceding, (N. 2.) was an active promoter of the revolution. He came over with the Prince of Orange; was admitted into the convention as Earl of Argyle, though his father's attainder was not reversed; and in the claim of rights the sentence against him was declared to be, what most certainly it was, a reproach upon the nation. The establishment of the crown upon the Prince and Princess of Orange being carried by a great majority in the Scottish convention, the

the earl was sent from the nobility, with Sir James Montgomery and Sir John Dalrymple from the barons and boroughs, to offer the crown, in the name of the convention, to their Majesties, and tendered them the coronation oath; for which, and many other eminent services, he was admitted a member of the privy council, and, in 1696, made one of the Lords of the Treasury. He was afterwards made a colonel of the Scots horse guards; and, in 1694, one of the extraordinary Lords of Session. He was likewise created Duke of Argyle, Marquis of Kintyre and Lorn, &c. in 1701. He sent over a regiment to Flanders for king William's service, the officers of which were chiefly of his own name and family, who bravely distinguished themselves through the whole course of the war. He married Elizabeth, daughter of Sir Lionel Talmash of Helmingham in Suffolk, by whom he left issue two sons, (See N. 4. and 6.) and a daughter, Lady Anne, married to James earl of Bute.

(4.) CAMPBELL, Archibald, 3d Duke of Argyle, the youngest son of the preceding, (N^o 3.) was born at Hamhouse, in England, in June 1682, and educated at the University of Glasgow. He afterwards studied the law at Utrecht; but upon his father being created a Duke, he betook himself to a military life, and served some time under the duke of Marlborough. Upon quitting the army, he applied to the acquisition of that knowledge which would enable him to make a figure in the political world. In 1705, he was constituted treasurer of Scotland, and made a considerable figure in Parliament, though he was only 23 years of age. In 1706, he was appointed one of the commissioners for treating of the Union; and created Earl of Ilay, Lord Ormsay, &c. In 1708, he was made an extraordinary Lord of Session; and when the Union was effected, he was chosen one of the 16 Peers for Scotland, in the first Parliament of Great Britain; and was constantly elected to every succeeding Parliament till his death, except the 4th. In 1710, he was made lord justice general: in 1711, he was called to the privy council; and upon the accession of George I. he was nominated lord register of Scotland. When the rebellion broke out in 1715, he took arms, in defence of the house of Hanover, and by his prudent conduct in the West Highlands, he prevented General Gordon, at the head of 3000 men, from penetrating into the country, and raising levies. He afterwards joined his brother at Stirling, and was wounded at the battle of Dumblain. In 1725, he was appointed keeper of the privy seal; and, from this time, he was entrusted with the management of Scottish affairs. In 1734, upon his resigning the privy seal, he was made keeper of the great seal, which office he enjoyed till his death. Upon the death of his brother John, (N^o 6.) he succeeded to the dukedom, and all his other titles. He was elected chancellor of the University of Aberdeen; and laboured to promote the interest of that, as well as of the other universities of Scotland. He particularly encouraged the school of physic at Edinburgh, which has now acquired so high a reputation. Having the chief management of Scotch affairs, he was also extremely attentive to promote the trade, manufactures, and improvements of his

country. It was by his advice that, after the rebellion in 1745, the Highlanders were employed in the royal army. He was a man of great endowments both natural and acquired, well versed in the laws of his country, and possessed considerable parliamentary abilities. He was likewise eminent for his skill in human nature, had great talents of conversation, and had collected one of the most valuable private libraries in Great Britain. He built a very magnificent seat at Inverary. The faculties of his mind continued sound and vigorous till his death, April 15, 1761, in his 79th year. He was married, but had no issue; and was succeeded in his titles and estates, by John Campbell, son of the hon. John Campbell of Manmore, who was the 2d son of Archibald the 9th earl of Argyle.

(5.) CAMPBELL, George, D. D. and F. R. S. L. late Principal of Marischal College, Aberdeen, was the son of the rev. Colin Campbell, one of the ministers of that city; and was born in 1712, and educated in it.—In 1750, he was appointed minister of Banchory-Tarnan; in 1756, transferred to Aberdeen; in 1759, chosen principal of Marischal College, and in 1771, professor of divinity. He married Miss Grace Farquharson of Whitehead, who died in 1795, without issue. He died, April 6, 1796, aged 77. As a public teacher he was long admired for the clear and copious manner, in which he illustrated the great doctrines and precepts of religion, and the strength and energy with which he enforced them. Convinced of the truth and infinite consequences of what revelation teaches, he was anxious to carry the true conviction to the minds of his hearers; and delivered his discourses with that zeal, which is the result of sincerity combined with clearness of judgment. As an author, his reputation is spread through every civilized nation. He early entered the lists, as a champion for Christianity against some of its most acute opponents; and while he triumphantly refuted his arguments, commanded respect by the handsome and dexterous manner in which he conducted his defence. In politics he avoided those extremes into which men of warm passions are too apt to run. He cherished the patriotism, which, while it leads its possessor to endeavour to promote the greatest possible happiness of his own country, is still subservient to universal benevolence. Firmly attached to the British constitution, he was animated with the love of liberty which it inspires, and was equally averse to despotism and popular anarchy. Party spirit he considered as having an unhappy tendency to subvert the best principles of the human mind, and to clothe the most iniquitous actions with the most specious appearances. The following is a list of his works: 1. *A Sermon before the Synod of Aberdeen*: 1752, 8vo. 2. *An Essay on Miracles*, in answer to Mr Hume: 1761. This work was quickly translated into French, Dutch, and German. 3. *A Sermon before the Society for promoting Christian knowledge*: 1771. 4. *Another Sermon before the Synod of Aberdeen*. 5. *The Philosophy of Rhetoric*: in 2 vols 8vo, 1776. In this work the laws of elegant composition and criticism are laid down with great perspicuity. 6. *A Sermon, on Allegiance, preached on the king's first day*: 1777, 4to. Of this work 6000 copies, enlarged with

otes, were printed in 12mo, at the expence of government, and sent to America; but the American revolution was by that time too far advanced to be stoppt by any writings whatever. 7. *An Address to the people of Scotland, on the Alarms raised by what is called the Popish Bill*: 8vo, 1780. This is a powerful dissuative from bigotry, and every species of religious persecution. 8. *A translation of the Gospels, with preliminary Dissertations*: vols 8vo, 1793. This was his last and greatest work; the fruit of copious erudition and unwearied application, for about 30 years: and will lead the attentive reader to regret that the other books of the New Testament had not been elucidated by the same judicious author.

(6.) CAMPBELL, John, 2d duke of Argyle and Greenwich, eldest son of Archibald, (N^o 3.) was born Oct. 10, 1680; and on the very day when his grandfather suffered at Edinburgh, fell from a window 3 stories high without receiving any hurt. At the age of 15, he had made a considerable progress in classical learning. His father then perceived and encouraged his military disposition, and introduced him to king William, who in 1694 gave him the command of a regiment. In this situation he remained till the death of his father in 1703; when becoming duke of Argyle, he was soon after sworn of queen Anne's privy council, made captain of the Scotch horse guards, and appointed one of the extraordinary lords of session. In 1704, the queen, giving the Scottish order of the thistle, installed the duke one of the knights, and soon after appointed him high commissioner to the Scotch parliament; where, being of great service in promoting the intended union, he was on his return created a peer of England, and in 1710 was made knight of the garter. He first distinguished himself at the battle of Oudenard; where he commanded as brigadier-general, with all the bravery of youth and the conduct of a veteran officer. He was present under the duke of Marlborough at the siege of Ghent, and took possession of the town. He had also a considerable share in the victory of Malplaquet, by dislodging the French from the wood of Sart, and gaining a post of great consequence. In this sharp engagement, several bullet balls passed through the duke's clothes, at, and peruke. Soon after he was sent to take the command in Spain; and, after the reduction of Port Mahon, he returned to England. Having now a seat in the house of lords, he censured the measures of the ministry with such freedom, that all his places were disposed of to other noblemen: but at the accession of George I. he recovered his influence. At the breaking out of the rebellion in 1715, he was made commander in chief in North Britain; and was the principal cause of the total extinction, at that time, of the rebellion in Scotland, with little bloodshed. In direct opposition to that part of the army he commanded, at the head of all his Campbells was placed Campbell earl of Braidalbin, a nobleman of the same family and kindred. The consequence was, that both sets of Campbells, from family affection, refused to strike a stroke, and retired out of the battle. He arrived at London March 6th, 1716, and was in high favour: but, to the surprise of people of all ranks, he was in a few months divested of all

his employments; and from this period to 1718, he signalized himself in a civil capacity, by his uncorrupted patriotism and manly eloquence. In the beginning of 1719, he was again admitted into favour, appointed lord steward of the household, and in April following was created duke of Greenwich. He continued in the administration during all the remaining part of that reign; and, after the accession of king George II, till April 1740; when he delivered a speech with such warmth, that the ministry being highly offended, he was again dismissed from his employments. To these; however, on the change of the ministry, he was soon restored; but not approving of the measures of the new ministry more than those of the old, he gave up all his posts for the last time, and never after engaged in affairs of state. He now enjoyed privacy and retirement; and died of a paralytic disorder on the 4th Oct. 1743. A very noble monument was erected in Westminster-Abbey, executed by the ingenious Roubilliac, to his memory. Though never first minister, he was a very able statesman and politician; and steadily and inflexibly fixed in those principles he believed to be right. His delicacy and honour were so great, that it hurt him to be even suspected; witness that application said to be made to him by one of the adherents of the Stuart family before the last rebellion, in order to gain his interest; which was considerable both in Scotland and England. He immediately sent the letter to the secretary of state; and it vexed him much even to have an application made him, lest any person should think him capable of acting a double part. When he thought measures wrong or corrupt, he cared not who was the author; however great or powerful he might be; witness his boldly attacking the great duke of Marlborough in the house of lords, about his forage and army contracts in Flanders, in the very zenith of his power and popularity, though in all other respects he was the most able general of his time. The duke of Argyle, on all occasions, spoke well, with a firm, manly, and noble eloquence; and seems to deserve the character given him by Pope:

Argyle the state's whole thunder born to wield,
And shake alike the senate and the field.

In private life, the duke's conduct was highly exemplary. He was an affectionate husband and an indulgent master. He seldom parted with his servants till age had rendered them incapable of their employments; and then he made provision for their subsistence. He was liberal to the poor, and particularly to persons of merit in distress: but though he was ready to patronize deserving persons, he was extremely cautious not to deceive any by lavish promises, or leading them to form vain expectations. He was a strict economist, and paid his tradesmen punctually every month; and though he maintained the dignity of his rank, he took care that no part of his income should be wasted in empty pomp or unnecessary expences. He was twice married; and left five daughters, but no male issue. The titles of duke and earl of Greenwich and baron of Chatham became extinct at his death; but in his other titles he was succeeded by his younger brother, (N^o 4.) Archibald earl of Hay.

(7.) CAMPBELL, John, L. L. D. an eminent historical, biographical, and political writer, was born at Edinburgh, March 8, 1707-8. He was the 4th son of Robert Campbell of Glenlyon, Esq. by Eliz. Smith of Windsor in Berkshire, a descendant of the poet Waller. At 5 years of age, he was brought from Scotland to Windsor, where he received his education; and was placed as clerk to an attorney. This profession, however, he never followed; but by a close application to science, became qualified to appear with great advantage in the literary world. In 1736, before he had completed his 30th year, he gave to the public, in 2 vols. folio, *The Military History of Prince Eugene and the Duke of Marlborough*, enriched with maps, plans, and cuts. The reputation hence acquired, occasioned him soon after to be solicited to take a part in the *Ancient Universal History*. Whilst employed in this capital work, Mr Campbell found leisure to entertain the world with other productions. In 1739, he published the *Travels and Adventures of Edward Brown, Esq.* 8vo. and *Memoirs of the Balthazar Duke de Ripperda*; 8vo; reprinted, with improvements, in 1740. These memoirs were followed, in 1741, by the *Concise History of Spanish America*; 8vo. In 1742, he published *A Letter to a Friend in the Country, on the Publication of Thurloe's State Papers*; giving an account of their discovery, importance, and utility: also the 1st and 2d vols of his *Lives of the English Admirals, and other eminent British Seamen*. The two remaining vols. were completed in 1744; and the whole, not long after, was translated into German. This was the first of Mr Campbell's works to which he prefixed his name; and it is a performance of great acknowledged merit. In 1743, he published *Hermippus Revived*; a 2d edition of which, much improved and enlarged, came out, in 1749, entitled; "*Hermippus Redivivus: or, The Sage's Triumph over old Age and the Grave: wherein a method is laid down for prolonging the life and vigour of man: Including a Commentary upon an ancient Inscription, in which this great secret is revealed; supported by many authorities. The whole interspersed with a great variety of remarkable and well attested relations.*" This extraordinary tract had its origin in a foreign publication; but it was wrought up to perfection by the additional ingenuity and learning of Mr Campbell. In 1744, he gave to the public in 2 vols. folio, his *Voyages and Travels*, on Dr Harris's plan, being a very distinguished improvement of that collection, which appeared in 1705. The time and care employed by Mr Campbell in this important undertaking, did not prevent his engaging in another great work, the *Biographia Britannica*, which began to be published in weekly numbers in 1745, and extended to 7 vols folio; but his articles were only in the first 4 vols; of which, Dr Kippis observes, they constitute the prime merit. When the late Mr Doddsley formed the design of *The Preceptor*, which appeared in 1748, Mr Campbell was asked to assist in it. The parts written by him were the Introduction to Chronology, and the Discourse on Trade and Commerce, both of which displayed an extensive fund of knowledge upon these subjects. In 1750, he published the first separate edition of his *Present State of Europe*; a

work which had been originally begun in 1741 in the *Museum*; a very valuable periodical performance, printed for Doddsley. There is no production of his that has met with a better reception. It has gone through six editions, and fully deserved this encouragement. The next great undertaking which called for the exertion of his abilities and learning, was *The Modern Universal History*. This extensive work was published, in detached parts, till it amounted to 16 vols folio; and a 2d edition of it, in 8vo, began to appear in 1755. The parts written by Mr Campbell were, the histories of the Portuguese, Dutch, Spanish, French, Swedish, Danish, and Ostend Settlements in the East Indies; and the Histories of the kingdoms of Spain, Portugal, Algarve, and Navarre; and of France, from Clovis to 1656. The degree of LL.D. was very properly and honourably conferred upon him, June 18, 1754, by the university of Glasgow. His favourite work was, *A political survey of Great Britain*, 2 vols 4to, published a short time before his death; in which the extent of his knowledge, and his patriotic spirit, are equally conspicuous. Dr Campbell's reputation was not confined to his own country, but extended to the remotest parts of Europe. As a striking instance of this, in 1774, the empress of Russia honoured him with a present of her picture, drawn in the robes worn in that country in the days of John Basiliowitz, grand duke of Muscovy, who was contemporary with Q. Elizabeth. To manifest the doctor's sense of the honour done him, a set of the Political Survey of Britain, bound in Morocco, highly ornamented, and accompanied with a letter descriptive of the triumphs and festivities of her reign, was forwarded to St Petersburg, and conveyed into her hands by prince Orloff, who had resided some months in this kingdom. In 1736, Dr Campbell married Elizabeth, daughter of Benjamin Vobe, of Leominster, Herefordshire, with whom he lived near 40 years in the greatest conjugal happiness. He seldom went abroad: but by moderate exercise in his garden or house, united with the strictest temperance, he enjoyed a good state of health, though his constitution was delicate. His domestic manner of living did not preclude him from a very extensive and honourable acquaintance. His house, especially on a Sunday evening, was the resort of the most distinguished persons of all ranks, and particularly of such as had rendered themselves eminent by their knowledge or love of literature. He received foreigners, who were fond of learning, with an affability and kindness which excited in them the highest respect and veneration; and his instructive and cheerful conversation made him the delight of his friends in general. He was, during the latter part of his life, agent for the province of Georgia in North America; and died in 1775, aged 67. His literary knowledge was by no means confined to the subjects on which he treated as an author; he was well acquainted with mathematics, and had read even much in medicine. He was eminently versed in the different parts of sacred literature; and his acquaintance with the languages extended not only to the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin among the ancient, and to the French, Italian, and Spanish, Portuguese, and Dutch, among the moderns.

not likewise to the Oriental tongues. He was particularly fond of the Greek language. His attainment of such a variety of knowledge was exceedingly assisted by a memory surprisingly retentive, and which indeed astonished every person with whom he was conversant. In communicating his ideas, he had an uncommon readiness and facility; and the style of his works was perspicuous, easy, flowing, and harmonious. To all these accomplishments, Dr Campbell added the more important virtues of a moral and pious character. His disposition was gentle, and his manners obliging. He was the tenderest of husbands, a most indulgent parent, a kind master, a firm and sincere friend. To his great Creator he paid the constant and ardent tribute of devotion, duty, and reverence; and in his correspondences he showed that sense of piety was always nearest his heart.

(8.) CAMPBELL, a county of Virginia, bounded on the N. by the Fluvanna, which divides it from Amherst, E. by Charlotte and Prince-Edward counties, N. E. by Buckingham, W. by Franklin and Bedford counties, and S. by Pittsylvania. It is 45 m. in length, and 30 in breadth, and contains 7,685 inhabitants, of whom 2,488 are slaves.

(1.) CAMPBELTON, a parish of Scotland, in Argyllshire, so named about A. D. 1700, from the town, (N. 2.) and formerly called CERN-LOCH, and KILKERRAN, from an ancient parish united with it. But its most ancient name, by which a part of it is still known, was *Dalruadbain*, from its having been the capital of the DALREUDINIAN or ancient Scottish kingdom. See DALRUADHAIN. It consists of a large section of the peninsula of Kintyre, about 16 English miles long from N. to S. 15 broad at the N. end, and 9 at the S. but somewhat narrower in the middle. The climate is mild, but the air is moist. The soil is various; partly sand, partly arable and marsh, but chiefly improveable moss. Bear, oats, potatoes, beans, and flax are the chief produce. About 1500 bolls of corn are imported annually. The population in 1791, as stated in the rev. Dr John Smith's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 8700, and had increased 4103 since 1735. The Dr estimates the number of houses to be about 1200, and that of sheep and black cattle about 5000 each. The parish abounds with coals, peats, and fuller's earth. For the improvement of the parish, Dr Smith proposes, that the lower grounds should be inclosed, and the higher stocked with sheep: "But God forbid! (adds he) that the people, as in other places should be obliged to remove in order to make room for sheep. The principal proprietor (viz. the D. of Argyll) has happily discovered all along a marked aversion to remove his people; and often refused the higher offers of the few, for possessions held at inferior rents by the many." The Dr farther proposes, the introduction of planting, the growing of wheat, the raising of green crops, and the establishment of manufactures, as means of meliorating the condition of the people. He condemns the herring fishery, in which the people have been long employed, as "a game of hazard" compared with agriculture and manufactures. And he also thinks it would be beneficial to abolish their next principal busi-

ness, the distilling of whisky; which amounted to 26,150 gallons in 1792. "Were it not (he says) for preventing the temptation of smuggling, a duty next to a prohibition would be *mercy*." But when we consider the very high tax upon malt-liquor, the very low fare of the Highlanders in general, the coldness of their climate, and their habitude to this beverage, so long established by custom as to be almost constitutional, we are apt to think it would be no small *cruelty* to deprive them of this "their *daily fare*," as the Dr styles it; specially as he acknowledges, that they "are seldom guilty of *excess*" in it, and that very few are given to drunkenness. Even their health, we apprehend, would be endangered by such an innovation, if deprived of their chief *medicine* and only *cordial*, in a part of the country, where no substitute could be found to supply the deficiency.

(2.) CAMPBELTON, or } a town in the 2-

(2.) CAMPBELTOWN, } bove parish (N. 1.),
seated on the lake of Kilkerran, on the eastern shore of Kintyre, of which it is the capital. It has a good harbour; and is now a very considerable place, though within these sixty years only a petty fishing town. It has in fact been created by the fishery; for it was appointed the place of rendezvous for the busses; and above 260 have been seen in the harbour at once. The inhabitants are reckoned to be upwards of 8000 in number. Campbelton has a post office, but Dr Smith justly remarks, "it is much less useful to the people and less productive to the revenue, than it would otherwise be," if there were runners to deliver the letters, to those who do not know when to call for them, and whose letters, for want of this *second sight*, are often returned as dead. The *growth* of manufactures is begun, 50 weavers being employed in the cotton trade, and many young girls in tambouring muslins. Two public libraries are also established on easy terms, and a good school, with two teachers. This town was erected into a royal burgh in 1701, and is governed by a provost, 4 bailies, a dean of guild, treasurer and counsellors. It joins with Air, Irvine, Laverary and Rothsay, in sending a member to parliament. It lies 126 m. W. by S. from Edinburgh. Lon. 5. 30. W. Lat. 55. 29. N.

(3.) CAMBELTOWN, a village of Dauphin county, Pennsylvania; situated near a branch of Quittipihilla creek. It is 13 miles E. of Harrisburg, and 96 N. W. of Philadelphia. Lon. 76. 26. W. Lat. 40. 17. N.

CAMPDEN, a town of Gloucestershire, containing about 200 houses; famous for its stocking manufactures. It has 4 fairs, and a market on Wed. It lies 10 m. from Stow, 20 from Tewksbury, 22 N. E. of Gloucester, and 87 N. W. by W. of London. Lon. 1. 50. W. Lat. 52. 4. N.

(1.) CAMPEACHY, a town of Mexico, seated on the E. coast of the bay, (N. 2.) It is defended by a good wall and strong forts; but is neither so rich, nor carries on such a trade, as formerly; having been the port for the sale of logwood, the place where it is cut being about 30 miles distant. It was taken by the English in 1596; by the Dutch in 1650 and 1678; and by the Spaniards

of St Domingo in 1685, who set it on fire and blew up the citadel. Lon. 93. 57. W. Lat. 19. 20. N.

(1.) CAMPEACHY BAY, a bay of N. America, on the W. coast of Yucatan.

(3.) CAMPEACHY WOOD, in botany. See HÆMATOXYLUM.

CAMPEN, a strong town of Overijssel. It has a citadel and a harbour; but the latter is almost choked up with sand. It was taken by the Dutch in 1578, and by the French in 1672; but they abandoned it in 1673. It is seated near the mouth of the river Yssel, on the Zuider See. Lon. 5. 35. E. Lat. 52. 38. N.

* CAMPESTRAL. *adj.* [*campestris*, Lat.] Growing in fields.—The mountain beech is the whitest; but the *campestral*, or wild beech, is blacker and more durable. *Mortimer*.

CAMPESTRE, in antiquity, a cover for the privities, worn by the Roman soldiers in their field exercises; being girt under the navel, and hanging down to the knees. The name is formed from *campus*, the field, where they performed these exercises.

(1.) * CAMP-FIGHT. *n. s.* An old word for combat.—For their trial by *camp-fight*, the accuser was, with the peril of his own body, to prove the accused guilty; and, by offering him his glove or gantlet, to challenge him to this trial. *Hakevill*.

(2.) CAMP FIGHT, among our old law writers, is spelt KAMP FIGHT. We therefore refer the reader, for an account of this obsolete mode of legal duelling to that article.

(1.) * CAMPHIRE Tree. *n. s.* [*camphora*, Lat.] There are two sorts of this tree; one is a native of the isle of Borneo, from which the best *camphire* is taken; which is supposed to be a natural exudation from the tree, produced in such places where the bark of the tree has been wounded or cut. The other sort is a native of Japan, which Dr *Kempfer* describes to be a kind of bay, bearing black or purple berries, and from whence the inhabitants prepare their *camphire*, by making a simple decoction of the root and wood of this tree, cut into small pieces; but this sort of *camphire* is, in value, eighty or an hundred times less than the true Bornean *camphire*. *Miller*.—It is oftener used for the gum of this tree.

(2.) CAMPHIRE, a solid concrete juice extracted from the wood of CAMPHORA, or the *laurus camphora*. Pure *camphire* is very white, pellucid, somewhat unctuous; of a bitterish aromatic taste, yet accompanied with a sense of coolness; of a very fragrant smell, somewhat like that of rosemary, but much stronger. It has been long esteemed one of the most efficacious diaphoretics, and is celebrated in fevers, malignant and epidemical distempers. In deliria, also, where opiates could not procure sleep, but rather aggravated the symptoms, it has often been observed to procure it. See CHEMISTRY, EXTRACTS, and MATERIA MEDICA.

* CAMPHORATA, the name given by Tournefort to the genus of plants, called by Linnaeus CAMPHOROSMA.

* CAMPHORATE. *adj.* [from *camphora*, Lat.] Impregnated with camphire.—By shaking the saline and *camphorate* liquors together, we easily

confounded them into one high-coloured liquor. *Boyle*.

CAMPHORATED SPIRIT OF WINE is a remedy frequently applied externally in cases of inflammation, bruises, sprains, &c.

CAMPHOROSMA, in botany, stinking gum-pine, a genus of the tetrandria order, in the monogynia class of plants: ranking in the natural method under the 12th order, Holeraceæ. The calyx is pitcher-shaped and indented, there is no corolla; and the capsule contains a single seed. It is reputed cephalic and nervine; though little used in modern practice. It takes the name from its fruit, which bears some resemblance to that of *camphire*. There are 4 species. Of these the principal is

CAMPHOROSMA MONSPELIENSIS, which grows by the road side in Languedoc, and especially about Montpellier. It has been produced as a specific for the dropsy, and asthma. Mr *Berkeley* has given its history, analysis, and an account of its virtues.

CAMPHUYSEN, Dirk Theodore Raphael, an eminent painter; born at Gorcum in 1685. He learned the art from Govertze, but soon surpassed his master. He had an uncommon genius, and studied nature. His subjects were landscapes, mostly small, with ruinous buildings, huts of peasants, or views of villages on the banks of rivers. He generally represented them by moon light. His pencil is remarkably soft; his colouring very transparent, and his expertness in perspective is seen in the proportional distances of his objects, which have a surprising degree of truth. Few of his works are to be met with, and they bring considerable prices; for he practised only till he was 18 years of age, and being then recommended as a tutor to the sons of the lord of Nieupoort, he discharged it with so much credit, that he was appointed secretary to that nobleman. He excelled in drawing with a pen; and the designs which he finished in that manner are exceedingly valuable.

CAMPIAN, Edmund, an English Jesuit, born at London, of indigent parents, in 1540; he was educated at Christ's hospital, where he had the honour to deliver an oration before Q. Mary on her accession to the throne. He was admitted a scholar of St John's college in Oxford at its foundation, and took the degree of M. A. in 1564. About the same time he was ordained by a bishop of the church of England; and became an eloquent Protestant preacher. In 1566, when Q. Elizabeth was entertained by the university of Oxford, he spoke an elegant oration before her majesty, and was also respondent in the philosophy act in St Mary's church. In 1568, he was junior professor of the university. In 1569, he went over to Ireland, where he wrote a history of that kingdom, and turned papist; but being found rather too confiduous in persuading others to follow his example, he was committed to prison. He soon however made his escape, and in 1571, proceeded to Douay in Flanders; where he publicly recanted his former opinions, and was created B. D. He went soon after to Rome, where, in 1573, he was admitted of the Society of Jesus, and was sent by the general to Vienna, where he wrote his tragedy, called *Nephtis et ambrosia*, which was acted before the emperor with great applause. He was

next to Prague, where he resided in the Jesuits college about six years, and then returned to Rome. From thence, in 1580, he was sent by Pope Gregory XIII. with Father Parsons, to convert the people of England. Some time before, several English priests, who supposed themselves inspired, had undertaken to convert their countrymen, and so of these foreign missionaries, besides several others who had been converted in England, were actually engaged in this *pious* work; but seeing at last that the harvest was abundant and the labourers were few, they solicited the assistance of the Jesuits; who accordingly sent Campian and Parsons to England. They were joyfully received by their friends at London; but had not been long in England, before Walsingham used every means to have Campian apprehended; and he was at last taken by one Elliot, a noted *priest-taker*, who found him at Lyford in Berkshire, and conducted him in triumph to London. He was imprisoned in the tower; where, Wood says, he did undergo many examinations, abuses, stripes, tortures; *exquisitissimis cruciatibus*, says Pitts. It is hoped, for the credit of reformers, this torturing part of the story is true. He was, however, condemned, on June 25 Ed. III. for high treason; and executed at Tyburn, with 2 or 3 of his fraternity. Writers (says the Oxford antiquary), Protestants or Popish, say, that he was an admirable parts; an elegant orator, a philosopher and disputant, and an exact scholar in English or Latin, of a sweet temper, and a well polished man." His History of Ireland, in two books was written in 1570; published by Sir James Ware, from a MS. in the Cotton library, Dublin, 1633, folio. He wrote *Chronologia universalis*, a very learned work; and various other tracts.

CAMPICURSIO, in the ancient military art, a march of armed men for several miles, from and back again to the camp, to instruct them in the military pace.

CAMPIDOCORES, or **CAMPIDUCTORES**, in the Roman army, officers who instructed the soldiery in the discipline and exercises of war, and the art of handling their weapons to advantage. These are also sometimes called **CAMPIGENI** and *armiduciores*.

CAMPIDUCTOR, in writers of the middle age, signifies the leader or commander of an army, or party.

CAMPIGENI. See **CAMPIDOCORES**.

(1.) **CAMPION**, a town of the kingdom of Finguth in Tartary. It was formerly remarkable for being a place through which the caravans passed in the road from Bukharia to China. Lon. 54. 53. W. Lat. 40. 25. N.

(2.) * **CAMPION**. *n. f.* [*lychnis*, Lat.] A plant.

(3.) **CAMPION**, in botany. See **LYCHNIS**.

(4.) **CAMPION**, **VISCOUS**. See **SILENE**.

(5.) **CAMPION**, **WILD**. See **AGROSTEMA**.

CAMPIPARS. See **CHAMPART**.

CAMPISTRON, a celebrated French dramatic author, born in 1656. Racine directed his poetical talents to the theatre, and assisted him in his best pieces. He died in 1723.

CAMPITÆ, in church history, an appellation given to the Donatists, on account of their assembling in the fields for want of churches. For similar reasons, they were also denominated **MON-TENSES** and **RUPITANI**.

CAMPIUSA, in botany. See **SCABIOSA**.

CAMPOIDES, in botany. See **SCORPIURUS**.

CAMPOLI, or **CAMPLI**, a town of Italy, in Naples, and in the farther Abruzzo. Lon. 13. 55. E. Lat. 42. 38. N.

CAMPO, a river of Africa, in Benin.

CAMPO MAJOR, a town of Portugal, in Alentejo. It has a modern fortress, and two castles. It lies 10 m. N. of Elvas. Lon. 7. 24. W. Lat. 38. 50. N.

CAMPO MALDULI. See **CAMALDOLI**, N. 2.

CAMPREDON, a town of Catalonia in Spain, seated at the foot of the Pyrenean mountains, 50 m. N. of Barcelona. The fortifications were demolished by the French in 1691. Lon. 2. 7. W. Lat. 42. 26. N.

CAMPS, Francis de, abbot of Notre Dame at Sigi, was born at Amiens in 1643; and distinguished himself by his knowledge of medals, by writing a History of France, and several other works. He died at Paris in 1723.

CAMPSALL, a village in Yorkshire, 4 m. S. E. of Pontefract.

CAMPS-CASTLE, 15 miles from Cambridge.

CAMPSEY, or } [from *Campi*, Celt. *i. e.* crook-

(1.) **CAMPSIE**, } ed glen,] a parish of Scotland, in Stirling-shire, 8 m. long, and 7 broad, containing about 36 square miles, or 14,400 acres. Being partly hilly, (See N° 2.) the climate is extremely variable, but healthy, though rather wet; the soil is also various, but great part of it is very fertile; and produces oats, barley, potatoes, lint and grass. Servitudes are not totally abolished. The population, in 1793, as stated by the rev. Mr. Lapslie, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2517, and had increased 1117 since 1755. At that period, there were 2469 black cattle, and 1600 sheep in the parish. It abounds with waters, woods, coals, and lime-stone. Of the latter, 3000 chaldrons are burnt and sold annually: and, L. 2750 were drawn for coals in 1793, besides what were consumed in the lime works, &c. The roads are good, and there are 19 stone bridges in the parish. Two very extensive printfields were erected within these 13 years, which employ 612 persons, and pay about L. 8000 per annum to government.

(2.) **CAMPSIE FELS**, or } a range of hills in
CAMPSIE HILLS, } the above parish,
 (N° 1.) of which they constitute about a 5th part, running the whole length of it from E. to W. Their surface is somewhat broken with craigs and glens: the summit and back part is a deep moor ground interspersed with moss, fit for rearing sheep and black cattle. The highest ridge is about 1500 feet above the sea level, and 1200 from its base. It consists of various strata of lime-stone, moor stone, iron stone, spar and crystal, and is supposed to contain copper and lead. Its ascent is very rapid. In one part of the Fells there are beautiful basaltes, and some fine pebbles have been found among the rocks.

CAMPS.

CAMPSMICHAEL. See **CAMBUSMICHAEL.**

CAMPS-SHADY, a village 15 m. from Cambridge, near Essex.

CAMPTON, in Bedfordshire, near Wreth.

CAMPVERE. See **VEER.**

CAMPULUM, a distortion of the eye-lids.

CAMP-VOLANT, in military affairs, a flying camp.

(1.) **CAMPUS**, in antiquity, a field or vacant plain in a city, not built upon, left vacant on account of shows, combats, exercises, or other uses of the citizens.

(2.) **CAMPUS MARI**, in ancient customs, an anniversary assembly, held by our ancestors on May-day, when they confederated together for the defence of the kingdom against its enemies.

(3.) **CAMPUS MARTIUS**, a large plain in the suburbs of ancient Rome, lying between the Quirinal and Capitoline mounts and the Tiber; thus called because consecrated to the god Mars, and set apart for military sports and exercises, to which the Roman youth were trained; such as the use of arms, and all manner of feats of activity. Here were the races run, either with chariots or single horses; here also stood the villa publica or palace for the reception of ambassadors, who were not permitted to enter the city. Many of the public comitia were held in the same field, part of which was for that purpose cantoned out. The place was also nobly decorated with statues, arches, columns, porticoes, and the like structures.

(4.) **CAMPUS SCCELERATUS**, a place without the walls of ancient Rome, where the Vestals who had violated their vows of virginity were buried alive.

(1.) **CAMS**, a village S. E. of Farham, Hampsh.

(2.) **CAMS, UPPER**, in Gloucestersh. S. of Cambridge.

CAMSWICK, near Kendal, Westmoreland.

CAMUL, a town of Asia, on the E. extremity of the kingdom of Cialus, on the frontiers of Tangut. Lon. 98. 3. E. Lat. 37. 15. N.

(1.) **CAMUS**, Charles Stephen Lewis, a celebrated French mathematician, born at Cressy, 25th Aug. 1699. His early ingenuity in mechanics induced his parents to send him to a college at Paris, at 10 years of age; where within two years he made such rapid progress, that he gave lectures on mathematics and defrayed his own expenses, without farther charge to them. In 1727, he gained the prize given by the Academy of Sciences "to determine the most advantageous way of masting ships;" in consequence of which, he was made adjoint-mechanician to the academy; and, in 1730, professor of architecture. In 1733, he was made secretary and associate; and distinguished himself by his memoirs on living forces; bodies in motion acted on by forces, on the figure of the teeth of wheels and pinions; and on pump work, &c. In 1736, he was sent with Messrs Clairaut, Maupertuis, and Monnier, on the celebrated expedition to measure a degree at the North Polar circle; in which he proved highly useful, both as a mathematician and mechanic. In 1741, he was appointed geometrician in the academy, and invented a gauging rod, to measure all kinds of casks and calculate their contents. In 1747 he was appointed examiner of the schools of

artillery, and in 1765 he was elected F. R. S. of London. He died 4th May, 1768, after having published many mathematical works; of which Dr Hutton gives a list in his *Math. and Phil. Dict.*

(2.) **CAMUS**, John Peter, a French prelate born in 1582. He was author of a number of pious romances (the taste of his time,) and other theological works, to the amount of 200 vols. His definition of politics is remarkable: *Ars non est regendi, quam fallendi, homines*; "the art not is much of governing, as of deceiving mankind." He died in 1652.

(3.) **CAMUS**, *n. f.* a person with a low flat nose, hollowed in the middle. The Tartars are great admirers of *camus* beauties. Rubruquis observes, that the wife of the great Jenghiz Khan, a celebrated beauty, had only two holes for a nose!

(4.) * **CAMUS**, *n. f.* [probably from *camisa*, Lat.] A thin dress mentioned by *Spenser*.—

And was yclad, for heat of scorching air,
All in silken *camus*, lilly white,
Purled upon with many a folded plight.

Fairy Queen

(1.) **CAN**, a river in Essex.

(2.) **CAN**, a town in Dorsetshire, S. E. of Shaftsbury.

(3.) * **CAN**, *n. f.* [*canne*, Sax.] A cup; generally a cup made of metal, or some other matter than earth.—

I hate as an unfill'd *can*. *Shakespeare*
—One tree, the coco, afforded stuff for housing,
cloathing, shipping, meat, drink, and *can*. *Grec.*

His empty *can*, with ears half worn away,
Was hung on high, to boast the triumph of the day. *Dryden*

(4.) **CAN**, in sea language, is variously applied: thus,

1. **CAN-BUOY**. See **BUOY**, § II. N^o 3.

2. **CAN-HOOK**, an instrument used to sling a cask by the ends of the staves: it is formed by fixing a board and flat hook at each end of a short rope; and the tackle, by which the cask so slung may be hoisted or lowered, is hooked to the middle of the rope.

3. **CAN-PUMP**, a vessel wherewith sea-men pour water into the pump to make it go.

* **To CAN**, *v. n.* [*kennen*, Dutch. It is sometimes, though rarely, used alone; but is in constant use as an expression of the potential mood; as, I *can* do, thou *canst* do, I *could* do, thou *couldst* do. It has no other terminations.] 1. To be able; to have power.—In place there is licence to do good and evil, whereof the latter is a curse; for, in evil, the best condition is not to will; the second not to *can*. *Bacon*.—

O, there's the wonder!

Mecenas and Agrippa, who *can* most
With Cæsar, are his foes. *Dryden*

—He *can* away with no company, whose discourse goes beyond what claret and dissoluteness inspires. *Locke*. 2. It expresses the potential mood; as, I *can* do it.—

If she *can* make me blest! she only *can*:
Empire and wealth, and all she brings beside,
Are but the train and trappings of her love. *Dryden*

3. It is distinguished from *may*, as *power* from *permission*; I *can* do it; it is in my power: I *may* do

it; it is allowed me: but, in poetry, they are confounded. 4. *Can* is used of the person with the *verb active*, where *may* is used; of the thing, with the *verb passive*; as, *I can* do it; it *may* or *can* be done.

CANA, in ancient geography, a town on the confines of Galilee; memorable for our Saviour's first miracle of turning water into wine. John ii. It was the birth place of Simon, and of Nathaniel.

(1.) CANAAN, [כנען, Heb. i. e. a merchant,] the fourth son of Ham. The irreverence of Ham towards his father Noah is recorded in Gen. ix. The curse denounced by the patriarch, not against Ham the immediate transgressor, but against his son Canaan, has occasioned various conjectures. Some think Moses's chief intent in recording this prediction was to raise the spirits of the Israelites, then entering on a terrible war with the children of Canaan, by the assurance, that, in consequence of the curse, that people were destined by God to be subdued by them. For the opinion of those, who imagine all Ham's race were here accursed, is not only repugnant to the plain words of Scripture, but is also contrary to fact. Indeed, the prophecy of Noah, that Canaan "should be a servant of servants to his brethren," seems to have been wholly completed in his descendants. It was completed with regard to Shem, not only in that a considerable part of the 7 nations of the Canaanites were made slaves to the Israelites, when they took possession of their land, as part of the remainder of them were afterwards enslaved by Solomon; but also by the subsequent expeditions of the Assyrians and Persians, who were both descended from Shem; and under whom the Canaanites suffered subjection, as well as the Israelites; not to mention the conquest of part of Canaan by the Elamites, or Persians, under Chedorlaomer, prior to them all. With regard to Japhet, we find a completion of the prophecy, in the successive conquests of the Greeks and Romans in Palestine and Phœnicia, where the Canaanites were settled; but especially in the total subversion of the Carthaginian power by the Romans; besides some invasions of the northern nations, as the posterity of Thogarma and Magog: wherein many of them, probably, were carried away captive. The posterity of Canaan were very numerous. His eldest son was Sidon, who at least founded and peopled the city of Sidon, and was the father of the Sidonians and Phœnicians. Canaan had besides ten sons, who were the fathers of so many people, dwelling in Palestine, and in part of Syria; namely, the Hittites, the Jebusites, the Amorites, the Gergasites, the Hivites, the Arkites, the Sinites, the Arvadites, the Semarites, and Hamathites.

(2.) CANAAN, the tract of country, which lies between the Mediterranean sea and the mountains of Arabia, and extends from Egypt to Phœnicia: so named from CANAAN, N° 1. It was bounded on the E. by the mountains of Arabia; on the S. by the wilderness of Paran, Idumæa, and Egypt; on the W. by the Mediterranean, called in Hebrew the Great Sea; on the N. by the mountains of Libanus. Its length from the city of Dan to Beerseba, was about 70 leagues; and its breadth from the Mediterranean sea to the eastern borders,

in some places 30. This country, was afterwards called PALESTINE, from the people whom the Hebrews called PHILISTINES, who inhabited the sea coasts. It was also called the *Land of Promise*, from the promise God made Abraham of giving it to him; the *Land of Israel*, from the Israelites having made themselves masters of it; of JUDAH, from the tribe of Judah, which was the most considerable of the twelve; and lastly, the *Holy Land* from its having been sanctified by the presence, actions, miracles, and death of Jesus Christ, which last name it still retains. The first inhabitants of this land were the CANAANITES, who were descended from Canaan, and the eleven sons of that patriarch. Here they multiplied extremely; trade and war were their first occupations; these gave rise to their riches, and the several colonies scattered by them over almost all the islands and maritime provinces of the Mediterranean. The measure of their idolatry and abominations was completed, when God delivered their country into the hands of the Israelites. In St Athanasius's time, the Africans still said they were descended from the Canaanites; and it is said, that the Punic tongue was almost entirely the same with the Canaanitish and Hebrew languages. The colonies which Cadmus carried into Thebes in Boœtia, and his brother Cilix into Cilicia, came from the stock of Canaan. The isles of Sicily, Sardinia, Malta, Cyprus, Corfu, Majorca and Minorca, Gades and Ebusus, are thought to have been peopled by the Canaanites. Bochart, in his large work, entitled *Canaan*, has set all this matter in a clear light. Many of the old inhabitants of the N. W. of Canaan, however, particularly on the coast of Tyre and Sidon, were not driven out by the children of Israel; whence this tract seems to have retained the name of Canaan long after those other parts of the country, which were better inhabited by the Israelites, had lost the name. The Greeks called this tract, inhabited by the old Canaanites, Phœnicia; the more inland parts, being inhabited partly by Canaanites, and partly by Syrians, Syrophœnicia: and hence the woman, said by St Matthew (xv. 22.) to be a woman of Canaan, whose daughter Jesus cured, is said by St Mark (vii. 26.) to be a Syrophœnician by nation, as she was a Greek by religion and language.

(3.) CANAAN, a post town of the United States, in Connecticut, seated on the E. side of the river Housatoneck, in Litchfield county. It has a congregational church, and lies 264 m. from Philadelphia.

CANAANITES, 1. the descendants of Canaan in general; 2. a particular tribe of these. See CANAAN, N° 1, and 2.

(1.) CANADA, or the province of QUEBEC, an extensive country of North America, bounded on the N. E. by the gulph of St Lawrence, and St John's river; on the S. W. by lands inhabited by the savage Indians, which are frequently included in this province; on the S. by the provinces of Nova Scotia, New England, and New York; and on the N. W. by other Indian nations. Under this name the French comprehended a very large territory; taking into their claim part of New Scotland, New England, and New York on the

the E. and extending it on the W. as far as the Pacific Ocean. That part, however, which was reduced by the British arms, lies between 61° . and 81° . W. lon. and between 45° . and 52° . of N. lat. The climate is not very different from that of the northern British colonies; but as it is much farther from the sea, and more to the northward, than most of those provinces, it has a much severer winter, though the air is generally clear; and, like most of those American tracts that do not lie too far to the northward, the summers are very hot, and exceedingly pleasant. The soil in general is very good, and in many parts extremely fertile; producing many different sorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables. The meadow grounds, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of cattle. The uncultivated parts are a continued wood, composed of prodigiously large and lofty trees, of which there is such immense variety, that even of those who have taken most pains to know them, there is not perhaps one that can tell half the number. Canada produces, among others, two sorts of pines, the white and the red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and female maple; three sorts of ash trees, the free, the mongrel, and the bastard; three sorts of walnut trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; vast numbers of beech trees and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, some of which made out of one piece will contain 20 persons; others are made of the bark; the different pieces of which they sew together with the inner rind, and daub over the seams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter resembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; the ribs of these canoes are made of boughs of trees. In the hollow elms, the bears and wild cats take up their lodging from November to April. The country produces also a vast variety of other vegetables, particularly tobacco, which thrives well. Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and many excellent ones of iron have been discovered. It has also been reported that silver is found in some of the mountains. The rivers are extremely numerous, and many of them very large and deep. The principal are, the Ouatauais, St John's, Seguinay, Despaires, and Trois Rivières; but all these are swallowed up by the great river ST LAURENCE. This river is the only one upon which any settlements of note are as yet formed; but it is very probable, that, in time to come, Canada, and those vast regions to the west, may be enabled of themselves to carry on a considerable trade upon the great lakes of fresh water which these countries environ. Here are 5 lakes, the least of which is of greater extent than the largest to be found in any other part of the world: viz. Ontario, Erie, Huron, Michigan, and Superior. See AMERICA, § 39 and 53. All these are navigable by any vessels, and they all communicate with each other; but the passage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by a most stupendous cataract, called the *falls of Niagara*. See NIAGARA. The St Laurence is the outlet of these lakes, by which they discharge themselves into the ocean. The French built forts at the straits between these lakes, by which, while the

country was in their possession, they effectually secured the trade of the lakes, and preserved an influence over all the Indian nations that dwelt near them.

(2.) CANADA, ANIMALS, TRADE, &c. OF. Canada abounds with stags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, large squirrels, hares and rabbits. The southern parts breed great numbers of wild bulls, divers sorts of roe bucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marshes, lakes, and pools swarm with otters and beavers, of which the white are highly valued, as well as the right black kind. A vast variety of birds are to be found in the woods; and the St Laurence abounds with such quantities of fish, that it is affirmed by some writers, this would be a more profitable article than even the fur trade. There are in Canada a multitude of different Indian tribes; but these are observed to decrease in number where the Europeans are most numerous; owing chiefly to the immoderate use of spirituous liquors, of which they are exceedingly fond. For their manners, way of living, &c. see AMERICANS, § 1—26. The principal towns are Quebec, Trois Rivières, and Montreal. The commodities required by the Canadians from Europe are, wine, or rather rum; cloths, chiefly coarse; linen; and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a sort of duffel blankets, gums, powder, balls, and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds. While the country was in possession of the French, the Indians supplied them with poultry, and the French had traders, who, like the original inhabitants traversed the vast lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible industry and patience, carrying their goods into the remotest parts of America, and among nations entirely unknown to us. They again brought the furs, &c. home to them, as the Indians were habituated to trade with them. For this purpose, people from all parts, even from the distance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and sometimes lasted three months. On this occasion many solemnities were observed, guards were placed, and the governor assisted to preserve order in so great and various a concourse of savage nations. But sometimes great disorders and tumults, happened; and the Indians frequently gave for a dram all that they were possessed of. It is remarkable, that many of these nations actually passed by the English settlement of Albany in New York, and travelled 200 miles further to Montreal, though they could have purchased the goods they wanted cheaper at the former. Since Britain became possessed of Canada, our trade with that country has generally employed 34 ships and 400 seamen: their exports, at an average 3 years, in skins, furs, ginseng, snake-root, capillaire, and wheat, amount to L.150,000. Their imports from Great Britain are computed at nearly the same sum. It will, however, be always impossible to overcome the inconveniences arising from the violence of the winter. This is so excessive from December to April, that the broadest rivers are frozen over, and the snow lies commonly from 4 to 6 feet deep on the ground, even in those parts which lie 3° S. of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another

inconvenience arises from the falls in the river St Laurence below Montreal, which prevents ships from penetrating to that emporium of inland commerce. Our communication therefore with Canada, and the immense regions beyond it, will always be interrupted during winter, until roads are formed that can be travelled without danger from the Indians. For these savage people often commit hostilities against us, without any previous notice; and frequently, without any provocation, at least that can be discovered; although it must be owned, that our people are too often to blame in beginning quarrels with them.

(3.) CANADA, HISTORY OF. Canada was discovered by Sébastien CABOT, the famous English adventurer, who sailed under a commission from Henry VII. See AMERICA, § 15. But though the English monarch did not make any use of this discovery, the French quickly attempted it. We have an account of their fishing for cod on the banks of Newfoundland, and along the coast of Canada, in the beginning of the 16th century. About 1506, one Denys, a Frenchman, drew a map of the gulph of St Laurence; and two years after, one Aubert a ship-master of Diéppe, carried over to France some of the natives of Canada. As the new country, however, did not promise the same amazing quantities of gold and silver produced by Mexico and Peru, the French for some years neglected it. At last, in 1524, Francis I. sent 4 ships under Verazani, a Florentine, to prosecute discoveries in that country. The particulars of his first expedition are not known. He returned to France and next year he undertook a second. As he approached the coast, he met with a violent storm; however, he came so near as to perceive the natives on the shore making friendly signs to him to land. This being found impracticable by reason of the surf upon the coast, one of the sailors threw himself into the sea; but, endeavouring to swim back to the ship, a surge threw him on shore without signs of life. He was, however, treated by the natives with such care and humanity, that he recovered his strength, and was allowed to swim back to the ship, which immediately returned to France. This is all we know of Verazani's second expedition. He undertook a third, but was no more heard of, and it is thought that he and all his company perished. In 1534, James Cartier of St Maloes set sail under a commission from the French king. See AMERICA, § 10. On his return, he was again sent out with a commission, and a pretty large force; he returned in 1535, and passed the winter at St Troix; but the season proved so severe, that he and his companions must have died of the scurvy, had they not, by the advice of the natives, made use of the decoction of the tops and bark of the white pines. As Cartier, however, could produce neither gold nor silver, all that he could say about the utility of the settlement was disregarded; and in 1540, he was obliged to become pilot to one M. Roberval, who was by the French king appointed viceroy of Canada, and who sailed from France with 5 vessels. Arriving at the gulph of St Laurence, they built a fort; and Cartier was left to command the garrison in it, while Roberval returned to France for additional recruits to

VOL. IV. PART II.

his new settlement. At last, having embarked in 1549, with a great number of adventurers, neither he nor any of his followers were heard of more. This so greatly discouraged the court of France, that for 50 years, no measures were taken for supplying with necessaries the settlers that were left. At last, Henry IV. appointed the Marquis de la Rouche, lieutenant general of Canada, and the neighbouring countries. In 1598, he landed on the isle of Sable, which he absurdly thought to be a proper place for a settlement, though it was without any port, and without product except briars. Here he left about 40 male-factors, the refuse of the French jails. After cruizing for some time on the coast of Nova Scotia, without being able to relieve these poor wretches, he returned to France, where he died of a broken heart. His colony must have perished, had not a French ship been wrecked on the island, and a few sheep driven upon it at the same time. With the boards of the ship they erected huts; and while the sheep lasted they lived on them, feeding afterwards on fish. Their clothes wearing out, they made coats of seal-skins; and in this miserable condition they spent 7 years, when Henry ordered them to be brought to France. The king had the curiosity to see them in their seal-skin dresses, and was so moved with their appearance, that he forgave them all their offences, and gave each of them 50 crowns to begin the world anew. In 1600, one Chauvin, a commander in the French navy, attended by a merchant of St Malo, called *Pontgrave*, made a voyage to Canada, from whence he returned with a very profitable quantity of furs. Next year he repeated the voyage with the same good fortune, but died while he was preparing for a third. The many specimens of profit to be made by the Canadian trade, at last induced the public to think favourably of it. An armament was equipped, and the command of it given to Pontgrave, with powers to extend his discoveries up the river St Laurence. He sailed in 1603, and took with him Samuel Champlain, who had been a captain in the navy, and was a man of parts and spirit. It was not however, till 1608, that the colony was fully established, by founding the city of Quebec, which from that time commenced the capital of all Canada. The colony for many years continued in a low way, and was often in danger of being totally exterminated by the Indians. The French, however, at last not only concluded a permanent peace with them, but so much ingratiated with them, that they could with ease prevail upon them at any time to murder and scalp the English in their settlements. These practices had a considerable share in bringing about the last war with France, wherein the whole country was conquered by the British in 1761. The most remarkable transaction in that conquest was the siege of QUEBEC; for an account of which, see that article. And for the events that occurred in Canada, during the American war, see AMERICA, § 12—14. 27—33.

* CANAILLE. *n. f.* [Fr.] The lowest people; the dregs; the lees; the offscouring of the people: a French term of reproach.

CANAJOHARIE, a flourishing post of New York.

M m m m

York



Fig. 1.

Plate LVI.



like a vessel descend from the canal D into the inferior canal B. If the lock is empty, as in *fig. 2.* the gate C and sluice K must be shut, and the upper sluice G opened, so that the water in the lock may rise to a level with the water in the upper canal D. Then open the gate A, and let the vessel pass through into the lock. Shut the gate A and the sluice G; then open the sluice K, till the water in the lock be on a level with the water in the inferior canal; then the gate C is opened, and the vessel rises along into the canal B, as was required.

(4) CANALS, ANCIENT ATTEMPTS TO MAKE. The advantages of navigable canals did not escape the observation of the ancients. From the most early accounts, we read of attempts to cut through large isthmuses, in order to make a communication by water, either betwixt different nations, or distant parts of the same nation, where land carriage was long and expensive. Herodotus relates, that the Cnidians designed to cut the isthmus which joins that peninsula to the continent; but were superstitious enough to give up the undertaking, because they were interdicted by an oracle. Several kings of Egypt attempted to join the Red sea to the Mediterranean. Cleopatra was exceedingly fond of this project. Soliman II. emperor of the Turks, employed 50,000 men in this great work. This canal was completed under the caliphate of Omar, but was afterwards allowed to fall into disrepair; so that it is now difficult to discover any traces of it. Both the Greeks and Romans intended to make a canal across the isthmus of Corinth, which joins the Morea and Achaia, in order to make a navigable passage by the Ionian sea into the Archipelago. Demetrius Poliorcetes, Julius Cæsar, Caligula, and Nero, made several unsuccessful efforts to open this passage. But, as the ancients were entirely ignorant of the use of water locks, their whole attention was employed in making level cuts, which is probably the principal reason why they so often failed in their attempts. Charlemagne formed a design of joining the Rhine and the Danube, to make a communication between the ocean and the Black sea, by a canal from the river Almutz which falls into the Danube, to the Reditz, which runs into the Maine, and this last falls into the Rhine near Mayence: for this purpose he employed a prodigious number of workmen; but he met with so many obstacles, from different quarters, that he was obliged to give up the attempt.

(5.) CANALS, ENGLISH. Though the Romans made a canal between the Nyne, a little below Peterborough, and the Witham, 3 miles below Lincoln, which is now almost entirely filled up, yet it is not long since canals were revived in England. The first canal act only passed in 1755. They are now however become very numerous, particularly in the counties of York, Lincoln, and Cheshire. Most of the counties betwixt the mouth of the Thames and the Bristol Channel are connected together either by natural or artificial navigations; those upon the Thames and Isis reaching within about 20 miles of those upon the Severn. The duke of Bridgewater's canal in Cheshire runs 27 miles on a perfect level; but at Barton it is carried by a very high aqueduct bridge 200 yards across a valley, and more than 40 feet high above

the Irwell, a navigable river; so that it is common for vessels to be passing at the same time both under and above the bridge. It likewise runs, by a subterranean passage, $\frac{1}{4}$ of a mile through the hill, to the duke's coal works. In some places the passage is cut through the solid rock; in others it is arched over with brick. Air funnels, some of which are 37 yards perpendicular, are cut at proper distances, through the rock to the top of the hill. This canal was finished in 5 years, under the direction of the celebrated J. Brindley. Coals formerly retailed at 7d. per 100 weight, are now sold at 3½d. The GRAND TRUNK CANAL in Staffordshire is partly described under the article BRINDLEY. It is carried over the river Dove in an aqueduct of 23 arches, and over the Trent in another of 6. At Harecastle it is conveyed underground a mile and a half. At Barton it has another subterraneous passage of 560 yards; another near it of 350, and at Preston on the hill, where it joins the duke's canal, a 4th, for 1241 yards. Several branches are made from it to Birmingham, Wolverhampton, Worcester, &c.

(6) CANALS, FOREIGN. The French have many fine canals: that of Briare was begun under Henry IV. and finished under the direction of cardinal Richelieu in the reign of Louis XIII. See BRIARE. It enters the Loire a little above Briare, and terminates in the Loing at Cepon. There are 42 locks on it. The canal of Orleans, for making another communication between the Seine and the Loire, was begun in 1675, and finished by Philip of Orleans, regent of France, during the minority of Louis XV. and is furnished with 20 locks. It begins at the village of Combleux. The canal from Bruzes to Ostend carries vessels of 200 tons. But the greatest work of this kind in France is the junction of the ocean with the Mediterranean by the canal (*ci devant Royale*) of Languedoc. It was proposed in the reigns of Francis I. and Henry IV. and was undertaken and finished under Louis XIV. It begins with a large reservoir 4000 paces in circumference, and 24 feet deep, which receives many springs from the mountain Noire. This canal is about 64 leagues in length, is supplied by a number of rivulets, and is furnished with 104 locks, of about 8 feet rise each. In some places it passes over bridges of vast height; and in others it cuts through solid rocks for 1000 paces. At one end it joins the river Garonne near Thoulouse, and terminates at the other in the lake Tau, which extends to the port of Cette. It was planned by Francis Riquet in 1666, and finished in 1682. The Chinese have also a great number of canals. That which runs from Canton to Peking extends about 825 miles in length, and was executed about 800 years ago. There are likewise many canals, in Germany, Holland, Russia, &c. &c.

(7.) CANALS, IRISH. The grand canal of Ireland commences at the W. end of Dublin, and is to be carried on to Shannon. It already communicates with the Barrow, whereby a communication is opened with Athy, Carlow, Clonmel, Ross, Waterford, &c. The execution of this work was arduous; for, besides having hard and rocky strata to cut through, and aqueducts to erect over rivers and valleys, a long tract of turf bog for some time baffled every effort, by filling up the channel,

(from its soft consistence,) as often as the digging ceased. These difficulties, however, are now got over, and the canal has proved such a drain to the bog, that much of it is recovered and cultivated. By a branch now carried, at an immense expence, round the S. side of the city, the grand canal now communicates with the harbour of Dublin. There are other canals in the N. and W. of Ireland, besides the royal canal on the N. side of Dublin.

(8.) CANAL, THE GRAND TRUNK. See § 5.

(9.) CANAL, THE GREAT, OF SCOTLAND. A navigable canal betwixt the Forth and Clyde dividing the kingdom in two parts, was first thought of by Charles II. for transports and small ships of war; the expence of which was to have been 500,000*l.* a sum far beyond the abilities of his reign. It was again projected in 1722, and a survey made; but nothing more done till 1761, when the then Lord Napier, at his own expence, caused make a survey, plan, and estimate on a small scale. In 1764, the trustees for fisheries, &c. in Scotland caused make another survey, plan, and estimate of a canal 5 feet deep, which was to cost 79,000*l.* In 1766, a subscription was obtained by a number of the most respectable merchants in Glasgow, for making a canal 4 feet deep and 24 feet in breadth; but when the bill was nearly obtained in parliament, it was given up on account of the smallness of the scale, and a new subscription set on foot for a canal 7 feet deep, estimated at 150,000*l.* This obtained the sanction of parliament; and the work was begun in 1768, by Mr Smeaton the engineer. The extreme length of the canal from the Forth to the Clyde is 35 miles, beginning at the mouth of the Carron, and ending at Dalmure Burnfoot on the Clyde, six miles below Glasgow, rising and falling 160 feet by means of 39 locks, 20 on the east side of the summit, and 19 on the W. as the tide does not ebb so low in Clyde as in the Forth by 9 feet. Vessels drawing 8 feet water, and not exceeding 19 feet beam and 73 feet in length, pass with ease; the canal having been afterwards deepened to more than 8 feet. The carrying the canal through moss, quicksand, gravel, and rocks, up precipices and over valleys, was attended with inconceivable difficulties. There are 18 draw-bridges and 15 aqueduct bridges of note, besides small ones and tunnels. In the first 3 miles there are only six locks; but in the 4th mile there are no less than ten locks, and a very fine aqueduct bridge over the great road W. of Falkirk. In the next 6 miles there are only four locks, which carry on to the summit. The canal then runs 18 miles on a level, and terminates about a mile from Glasgow. In this course, for a considerable way the ground is banked about 25 feet high, and the water is 16 feet deep, and two miles of it is made through a deep moss. At Kirkintulloch, the canal is carried over the water of Logie on an aqueduct arch of 90 feet broad. This arch was thrown over in 3 stretches, having only a centre of 30 feet, which was shifted on small rollers from one stretch to another; a thing new, and never attempted before with an arch of this size; yet the joinings are as fairly equal as any other part, and admired as a very fine piece of masonry. On each side there is a very considerable banking over the valley. The work was

carried on till within 6 miles of its junction with the Clyde; when the subscription and a frequent loan being exhausted, it was stop'd in 1791. The city of Glasgow, however, by means of a collateral branch, opened a communication with the Forth, which has produced a revenue of about 6000*l.* annually; and, in order to finish the remaining six miles, government, in 1784, gave 50,000*l.* out of the forfeited estates, the dividend arising from this sum to be applied to making and repairing roads in the Highlands. Accordingly the work was resumed in July 1786, and completely finished within 4 years after; the navigation being opened between the British Sea and Atlantic Ocean, on the 28th July, 1790. See BURLING BAY. The aqueduct bridge over the Kelvin (supposed to be the greatest of the kind in the world) consists of 4 arches, and carries the canal over a valley 65 feet high and 420 in length, exhibiting a very singular effort of human ingenuity and labour. To supply the canal with water was of itself a very great work. There is one reservoir of 50 acres 24 feet deep; and another of 50 acres 22 feet deep, into which many rivers and streams terminate, which it is thought will afford sufficient supply of water at all times. This whole undertaking has cost about 200,000*l.* It is the greatest of the kind in Britain, and must prove of immense national utility; as it shortens the natural distance from 800 to 1000 miles, and affords a safe and speedy navigation at all seasons to Ireland and the western parts of Britain, without danger of shipwreck. See farther, under FORTH AND CLYDE NAVIGATION.

* CANAL-COAL. *s. f.* A fine kind of coal, dug up in England.—Even our *canal-coal* nearly equals the foreign jet. *Woodward.*

CANALEGIE, a town, S. of Padstow, Cornwall.

* CANALICULATED. *adj.* [from *canaliculus*, Lat.] Channelled; made like a pipe or gutter. *Di8.*

(1.) CANANDAQUI, a lake of New York, in the county of Ontario.

(2.) CANANDAQUI, a post town, the capital of Ontario county, seated near the lake, (N. 100 m. from Jerusalem, and 434 N. N. W. of Philadelphia. Courts of sessions and common pleas are held in it, 1st Tues. of June and Nov.

* CANANITE, or CANAITE, a native of Canaan in Galilee. Simon, the apostle, is styled in translation, *the Canaanite*; (*Mat. 10. 4. Mark. 18.*) but this is evidently wrong. The word in the original is, *Kanaani*, or *Kanaiz*.

(1.) CANANORE, a kingdom of Asia, on the coast of Malabar, whose king can raise a considerable army. The natives are generally Mahomedans; and the country produces pepper, cardamoms, ginger, mulojolans, and tamarinds, in which they drive a considerable trade.

(2.) CANANORE, a large maritime town in the above kingdom, (N. 100 m.) with a very large and fine harbour. It formerly belonged to the Portuguese, and had a strong fort to guard it; but in 1683, the Dutch together with the natives, drove them away; and after they became masters of the town enlarged the fortifications. They have but a very small trade; but there is a town at the bottom of

the bay independant of the Dutch, whose prince can bring 20,000 men into the field. The fort is large, and the governor's lodgings are at a good distance from the gate; so that, when there was a skirmish between the factory and the natives, he knew nothing of it till it was over. It is now held by the English East India Company. Lon. 74. 10. E. Lat. 12. 0. N.

CANARA, a kingdom of Asia, on the coast of Malabar. The inhabitants are Pagans; and there is a pagod, called *Ramtrut*, which is visited every year by a great number of pilgrims. Here the custom of burning the wives with their husbands had its beginning, and is still practised. The country is generally governed by a queen, who keeps her court at a town called *Baydor*, two days journey from the sea. She may marry whom she pleases; and is not obliged to burn with her husband, like her female subjects. They are so good observers of their laws, that a robbery or murder is scarce ever heard of among them. The Canarans have forts built of earth along the coast, which are garrisoned with 200 or 300 soldiers, to guard against the robberies of their neighbours. The lower grounds yield every year 2 crops of corn or rice; and the higher produce pepper, betel nuts, sanders wood, iron and steel. The Portuguese clergy here live very loosely, and make no scruple of procuring women for strangers.

(1.) CANARIA, in ancient geography, one of the FORTUNATE ISLANDS, a proof that these are what we now call the *Canaries*. Canaria had its name from abounding with dogs of an enormous size. See N. 1.

(2.) CANARIA, or the GRAND CANARY, an island in the Atlantic Ocean, about 180 miles from the coast of Africa. It is 42 m. long, 27 broad; about 100 in circumference, and 33 in diameter. It is fruitful, and famous for its wine. It also abounds with apples, melons, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, figs, olives, peaches, and plantains. The fir and palm trees are the most common. The towns are, Canary the capital, Gualdera, and Geria.

CANARINA, in botany, a genus of the order monogynia, belonging to the hexandria class of plants.

(1.) CANARIUM, in antiquity, [from *canis*, a dog,] a Roman sacrifice, wherein dogs of a red colour were sacrificed, for a security of the fruits of the earth against the raging heats of Sirius in the dog-days.

(2.) CANARIUM, in botany, a genus of the diœcia order, in the pentandria class of plants. Its characters are, that it hath male and female flowers; that, in both, the calyx has two leaves, and the corolla consists of 3 petals: the fruit is a drupa with a three-cornered nut. There is but one species.

(1.) * CANARY. *n. f.* [from the *Canary* islands.] 1. Wine brought from the Canaries; now called *sack*.—I will to my honest knight Falstaff, and drink *canary* with him—I think I shall drink in pipe wine first with him; I'll make him dance. *Shakespeare*. 2. An old dance.

(2.) CANARY, or CIVIDAD DE PALMAS, the capital of the island CANARIA, N. 1. It has an magnificent castle, a court of inquisition, and the

supreme council of the rest of the Canary islands. It is a bishop's see, and has 4 convents, two for men and two for women. It is about 3 miles in compass, and contains 12,000 inhabitants. The houses are only one story high, and flat at the top; but they are well built. The cathedral is a handsome structure. Lon. 15. 20. W. Lat. 28. 4. N.

(3.) * CANARY BIRD. An excellent singing bird, formerly bred in the Canaries, and nowhere else, but now bred in several parts of Europe, particularly Germany.—Of singing birds, they have linnets, goldfinches, ruddocks, *canary birds*, blackbirds, thrushes, and divers other. *Carew*.

(4.) CANARY BIRDS. See FRINGILLA. These birds are much admired for their singing, and take their name from the islands, (N. 9.) from whence they originally came, but of late there is a species brought from Germany, and therefore called *German birds*, which are much better, though both are supposed to have originally come from the same place. The cocks never grow fat, and by some cannot be distinguished from common green birds; though the Canary birds are much lustier, have a longer tail, and differ much in heaving the passages of the throat when they sing. Canary birds are distinguished by different names at different times and ages: those that are new flown, and cannot feed themselves, are called *pishers*; those brought up by hand, *nestlings*; those of the 1st year, under the care of the old ones, *branchers*; those above two years old, *eriffs*; and those of 3 years, *runts*. Canary birds are various in their notes; some having a sweet song, others a low note, others a long song, which is best, as having the greatest variety of notes: but they sing chiefly either the titlark or nightingale notes. See SONG OF BIRDS.

(5.) CANARY BIRDS, DIRECTIONS FOR CHOOSING. These birds being much esteemed for their song, are sometimes sold at high prices, according to the excellency of their notes. To know whether a Canary bird is in good health, take him out of their store cage, and put him in a clean cage by himself; if he stand up boldly, without shrinking in his feathers, look with a brisk eye, and does not clap his head under his wing, it is a sign he is in good health; if he bolts his tail like a nightingale after he has dinged, it is a sign he is not in good health; or at least that he will soon be sick; but if his dung be very thin like water, or of a slimy white without any blackness, it is a sign of approaching death. When in perfect health, his dung lies round and hard, white on the outside, dark within, and dries quickly; though a feed bird seldom dungs so hard, unless he is very young.

(6.) CANARY BIRDS, MANAGEMENT OF. Canary birds are subject to many diseases, particularly imposthumes, which affect the head, cause them to fall suddenly from the perch, and die in a short time, if not speedily cured. The most approved medicine is an ointment made of fresh butter and capon's grease melted together. With this the top of the bird's head is to be anointed for 2 or 3 days, and it will dissolve the imposthume; but if the medicine has been too long delayed, then, after 3 or 4 times anointing, see whether the

the place of his head be soft; and if so, open it gently, and let out the matter, which will be like the yolk of an egg; when this is done, anoint the place, and the bird will be cured. At the same time he must have figs with his other food, and in his water a slice or two of liquorice, with white sugar-candy. The Canary birds may be bred with us; and, if treated with proper care, they will become as vigorous and healthful as if bred in their native country. The cages in which these birds are kept should be made either of wainut-tree or oak, with bars of wire; because these, being strong, do not require to be used in large pieces. The common shape of cages, which is cylindric, is very improper for these birds; for this allows little room to walk, and without that the birds usually become melancholy. The most proper of all shapes is the high and long, but narrow. If these birds eat too much, they grow too fat, lose their shape, and their singing is spoiled. In this case their victuals must be given them in a smaller quantity, and they will thus be gradually recovered to all their beauty, and will sing as at first. When they are about to build their nests, some hay must be put into their cages dried thoroughly in the sun: with this must be mixed some moss dried in the same manner, and some stag's hair. Great care is to be taken of breeding the young birds in the article of food. As soon as they are 8 days old, or somewhat more, and are able to eat and pick up food of themselves, they should be taken out of the cage, and each put separately into another, and hung up in a room where it may never have an opportunity of hearing the voice of any other bird. After they have been kept thus about 8 days, they are to be excited to sing by a bird pipe; but this must not be blown too shrill. For the first 15 days, the cages should be covered with a black cloth, and for the 15 following with a green one. Five lessons in a day from the pipe are sufficient for these young creatures; and they must not be disturbed with several sounds at the same time, lest they puzzle them. Two lessons should be given them early in the morning, one about the middle of the day, and two more at night. The genius and temper of the several birds of this kind are very different. The males are almost always melancholy, and will not sing, unless excited by hearing others. They will often kill the female, and when there are several females together with the males, they will often kill each other from jealousy. It is therefore proper to manage their breeding in this manner: let two female birds be put into one cage, and when they have lived together some time, they will have contracted a sort of fondness for one another, which will not easily be dissolved. Put a male bird into the cage with these two, and every thing will go well: their friendship will keep them from quarrelling about his favours, and from danger of his mischievous disposition; for if he attacks one of them, the other will immediately take her part; and after a few of these battles, the male will find that they are an overmatch for him at fighting, and will then distribute his favours to both, and there will soon be a young bird or two, which are to be taken away from their parents, and educated as before directed.

Some males watch the time of the female's laying and devour the eggs; others take the young in their beak as soon as hatched, and crush them to death against the sides of the cage. When a male has been once guilty of this, he must be shut up in a small cage, in the middle of the large one, in which the female is breeding her young, and thus he will comfort her with singing all day, while she sits upon the eggs or takes care of the young ones; and when the time of taking away, to put them into separate cages, is come, the male is to be let out, and he will always after this live in friendship with the female. If the male become sick during the time of the female's sitting or bringing up her young, he must be removed immediately, and only brought to the side of her cage at certain times, that she may see him, till he is perfectly cured; and then he is to be shut up again in his cage in the middle.

(7.) CANARY, GRAND. See CANARIA, N. 1.

(8.) CANARY GRASS. See PHALARIS.

(9.) CANARY ISLANDS are situated in the Atlantic ocean, over against the empire of Morocco in Africa. They were formerly called the *Fertunate Islands*, on account of the temperate healthy air, and excellent fruits. The land is very fruitful; both wheat and barley produce 130 for one. The cattle thrive well, and the woods are full of all sorts of game. The birds are well known all over Europe. See N. 3, & 4. Sugar canes abound greatly, but the Spaniards first planted vines here, from whence we have the wine called *Canary*. These islands were not unknown to the ancients; but they were long forgot, till John de Becourt discovered them, in 1402. It is said they were first inhabited by the Phœnicians, or Carthaginians, but the inhabitants could not tell from whence they were derived; on the contrary they did not know there was any other country in the world. Their language, manners, and customs, had no resemblance to those of their neighbours. However, they were like the people on the coast of Barbary in complexion. They had no iron. The Spaniards got possession of all these islands, except Madeira, which belongs to the Portuguese; and they still retain them. The inhabitants are chiefly Spaniards; though there are some of the original natives remaining, whom they call *GUANCHES*. They are somewhat civilized by their intercourse with the Spaniards; and are a hardy, active, bold people. They live in the mountains, and their chief food is goat's milk. Their complexion is tawny, and their noses flat. The Spanish vessels, when they sail for the West Indies, always rendezvous at these islands, going and coming. Their names are Allegranza, Canaria, Ferro, Fuefaventura, Gomera, Graciosa, Inferno, Lancerotta, Lobos, Madeira, Pico, Rocca, St Clare, Salvages, and Teneriff. Long. from 12° to 21° W. Lat. from 27° 30' to 29° 30' N.

(10.) CANARY WEED. See ARCHIL.

* To CANARY, v. a. A cant word, which seems to signify to dance; to frolick.—Master, will you win your love with a French brawl?—How mean'st thou, brawling in French?—No, sir, compleat master; but to jigg off a tune at the tongue's end, *canary* to it with your head.

move it with turning up your eyelids. *Shakespeare.*

(1.) CANCELLE, a town of France in the department of Morbihan, and ci-devant province of Upper Brittany. Here the British landed in 1758, in their way to St Maloes, where they burnt a great number of ships in the harbour, and then retired without loss. This town was in their power; but they acted like generous enemies, and did no hurt to it, nor any other on the coast. Lon. 1. 57. W. Lat. 47. 41. N.

(2.) CANCELLE BAY, a bay of France on the coast of Morbihan.

CANCAMUM, among ancient Greek physicians, a gum or resin, supposed to be GUM LAC.

* To CANCEL. *v. a.* [*canceller*, Fr. from *cancellis notare*, to mark with cross lines] 1. To cross a writing. 2. To efface; to obliterate in general.

Now welcome night, thou night so long expected,

That long day's labour doth at last defray,
And all my cares which cruel love collected,
Has summ'd in one, and cancelled for aye. *Shens.*

Know then, I here forget all former griefs,
Cancel all grudge; repeal thee home again.

Shakespeare.

Thou whom avenging pow'rs obey,

Cancel my debt, too great to pay,

Before the sad accounting day. *Roscommon.*

I pass the bills, my lords,

For cancelling your debts.

Southerne.

CANCELLIER, in falconry, is when a light brown hawk, in her stooping, turns two or three times upon the wing, to recover herself before she seizes.

CANCELLARIUS. See CHANCELLOR.

* CANCELLED. *partic. adj.* [from *cancel*.] Cross barred; marked with lines crossing each other.—The tail of the caïor is almost bald, though the beast is very hairy; and cancelled, with some resemblance to the scales of fishes. *Grew.*

* CANCELLATION *n. f.* [from *cancel*.] According to Bartolus, is an expunging or wiping out of the contents of an instrument, by two lines drawn in the manner of a cross. *Asylife.*

(1.) CANCELLI, in building, lattice windows, or those made of cross bars disposed latticewise. It is also used for rails or balusters inclosing the communion table, a court of justice, or the like; and for the network in the inside of hollow bones.

(2.) CANCELLI, in military affairs, the same with barriers.

CANCELLING, in the civil law, an act whereby a person consents that some former deed be rendered null and void; otherwise called *rescison*.

CANCELLUS, a synonyme of the hermit crab. See CANCER, § IV. N. 4.

(1.) * CANCER. *n. f.* [*cancer*, Lat.] 1. A crab-like. 2. The sign of the summer solstice.—

When now no more th' alternate Twins are
nir'd,

And Cancer reddens with the solar blaze,

Shor is the doubtful empire of the night. *Thomson.*

3. A virulent swelling, or sore, not to be cured.—Any of these three may degenerate into a schirrus, and that schirrus into a cancer. *Wifeman*—

As when a cancer on the body feeds,
And gradual death from limb to limb proceeds;
So does the chilness to each vital part,
Spread by degrees, and creeps into the heart.

Addison.

(II. 1.) CANCER, in astronomy, one of the 12 signs, represented on the globe in the form of a crab, and thus marked (♋) in books. It is the 4th constellation in the starry zodiac. See ASTRONOMY, § 548. The reason generally assigned for its name as well as figure, is a supposed resemblance which the sun's motion in this sign bears to the crab. As the latter walks backwards, so the former, in this part of his course, begins to go backwards, or recede from us. By others, the disposition of stars in this sign is supposed to have given the first hint to the representation of a crab. It gives name to a quadrant of the ecliptic, viz.

(2.) CANCER, TROPIC OF, in astronomy, a lesser circle of the sphere parallel to the equator, and passing through the beginning of the sign Cancer. See ASTRONOMY, *Index*.

(III.) CANCER, in medicine, a roundish, unequal, hard, and livid tumour, generally seated in the glandulous part of the body, supposed to be so called, because it appears at length with turgid veins shooting out from it, so as to resemble, as it is thought, the figure of a crab fish; or, others say, because, like that fish, where it has once got, it is scarce possible to drive it away. See MEDICINE, *Index*.

(IV.) CANCER, in zoology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of insecta aptera. The generic characters are these: they have 8 legs, (seldom ten or six,) besides the two large claws which answer the purpose of hands. They have two eyes at a considerable distance from each other, and for the most part supported by a kind of pedunculi or footstalks; the eyes are likewise elongated and moveable; they have two clawed palpi, and the tail is jointed. There are no less than 87 species of cancer, distinguished principally by the length of their tails and the margins of their breasts. The following are the most remarkable.

1. CANCER ASTACUS, or the craw-fish, with a projecting snout slightly serrated on the sides; a smooth thorax; back smooth, with two small spines on each side; claws large, beset with small tubercles; two first pair of legs clawed; the two next subulated; tail consisting of 5 joints; the caudal fins rounded. It inhabits many of the rivers in England, lodging in holes which they form in the clayey banks. Cardan says, that this species indicates the goodness of water; for in the best water they are boiled into the reddest colour.

2. CANCER ATOMOS, atom lobster, with a slender body; blisum antennæ; three pair of legs near the head; behind which are two pair of oval vesicæ; beyond are three pair of legs, and a slender tail between the last pair. It is very minute, and the help of the microscope is often necessary for its inspection.

3. CANCER CRANGON, the SHRIMP, with long slender feelers, and between them two projecting laminae; claws with a single, hooked, moveable fang; three pair of legs; 7 joints in the tail; the middle

middle caudal fin subulated, the other 4 rounded and fringed; a spine on the exterior side of each of the outmost. It inhabits the shores of Britain in vast quantities, and is the most delicious of the genus.

4. **CANCER DIOGENES**, soldier crab, or hermit crab, with rough claws; the left claw is the longest (this being the only difference between the *diogenes* and *bernardus*); the legs are subulated, and serrated along the upper ridge; the tail naked and tender, and furnished with a hook by which it secures itself in its lodging. See *Plate XLIX*. This species is parasitic; and inhabits the empty cavities of turbinated shells, changing its habitation according to its increase of growth from the small *nerite* to the large *whelk*. Nature denies it the strong covering behind, which it hath given to others of this class; and therefore directs it to take refuge in the deserted cases of other animals. They crawl very fast with the shell on their back; and at the approach of danger draw themselves within the shell, and, thrusting out the larger claw, will pinch very hard whatever molests them. Aristotle describes it very exactly under the name of *καρδινος*. By the moderns it is called the *soldier*, from the idea of its dwelling in a tent; or the *hermit*, from retiring into a cell. When this animal wants to change its shell, it travels along that line of pebbles and shells which is formed by the extreme wave; still, however, dragging its old incommodious habitation at its tail, unwilling to part with one shell, even though a troublesome appendage, till it can find another more convenient. It is seen stopping at one shell, turning it, and passing it by; going on to another, contemplating that for a while, and then slipping its tail from its old habitation to try on the new: If this also is found to be inconvenient, it quickly returns to its old shell again. In this manner it frequently changes, till at last it finds one light, roomy, and commodious; to this it adheres, though the shell be sometimes so large as to hide the body of the animal, claws and all. Yet it is not till after many trials, and many combats also, that the soldier is thus completely equipped; for there is often a contest between two of them for some well-looking favourite shell for which they are rivals. They both endeavour to take possession; they strike with their claws, they bite each other, till the weakest is obliged to yield by giving up the object of dispute. It is then that the victor immediately takes possession, and parades in his new conquest 3 or 4 times back and forward upon the strand before his envious antagonist. When this animal is taken, it sends forth a feeble cry, endeavouring to seize the enemy with its nippers; which if it fastens upon it, will sooner die than quit the grasp. The hermit crabs frequent mostly those parts of the sea shores which are covered with shrubs and trees, producing various wild fruits on which they subsist; though they will also feed on the fragments of fish and other animal substances cast on shore. When masted in the shell, they are esteemed delicate.

Hermit crab, hung in the air, dissolves into a oil, which speedily cures the rheumatism, upon the part.

CANCER ERYTHROPUS, or red-clawed crab,

is of a small size, and brown colour; it has two claws of unequal bigness, red at the ends; and legs, which seem of less use to them than those of other crabs; for when on the ground, they crawl with slow pace, dragging their bodies along; but they are mostly seen grasping with their claws, and hanging to some sea-plant, or other marine substance.

6. **CANCER GAMMARUS**, the common lobster, with a smooth thorax, short serrated antennæ; and between them two smaller ones, bifid; claws and fangs large, the greater tuberculated; the lesser serrated on the inner edge; four pair of legs; six joints in the tail; tail-fins rounded. It inhabits all the rocky shores of our island, but chiefly where there is a depth of water. In Llyn in Caernarvonshire a certain small lobster, nothing different except in size, burrows in the sand. They are brought in vast quantities from the Orkney isles, and many parts of the eastern coast of Scotland, to the London markets. From the neighbourhood of Montrose alone, 60, or 70,000 are annually brought. The lobster was well known to the ancients, and is well described by Aristotle under the name of *στραχ*. It is found as far as the Hellespont; and is called at Constantinople *liczuda* and *licpax*. Lobsters fear thunder, and are apt to cast their claws on a great clap: It is said that they will do the same on the firing of a great gun; and that, when men of war meet a lobster boat, a jocular threat is used, that if the master does not sell them good lobsters, they will *salute him*. This species inhabit the clearest water, at the foot of rocks that impend over the sea; which has given opportunity of examining more closely into the natural history of the animal, than of many others who live in an element, that in a great measure, limits the inquiries of the most inquisitive. Some lobsters are taken by hand; but the greater quantity in pots, a sort of trap formed of twigs, and baited with garbage. They are formed like a wire mouse trap, so that when the lobster gets in, it cannot return. These are fastened to a cord that lies in the sea, and their place marked by a buoy. Lobsters begin to breed in spring, and continue breeding most part of the summer. They propagate *more humano*, and are extremely prolific. Mr. Baister says he counted 12,444 eggs under the tail, besides those that remained in the body unproduced. They deposit those eggs in the sand, where they are soon hatched. Lobsters change their shells annually. Previous to their putting off their old ones, they appear sick, languid, and restless. They acquire an entire new coat in a few days; but during the time that they remain defenceless, they seek some very lonely place, out of fear of being devoured by such of their brethren as are not in the same situation. It is remarkable, that lobsters and crabs renew their claws, when accidentally torn off; and they grow again in a few weeks, though they never attain to the size of the first. They are very voracious animals, and feed on sea-weeds, garbage, and all sorts of dead bodies. The pincers of one of the lobsters large claws are furnished with knobs, and those of the other are always serrated. With the former it keeps firm hold of the stalks of submarine plants.

lants, and with the latter it cuts and minces its food very dexterously. The knobbed or *numb* jaw, as the fishermen call it, is sometimes on the right and sometimes on the left side indifferently. It is more dangerous to be seized by them with the cutting claw than the other; but, in either case, the quickest way to get disengaged from the creature is to pull off its claw. The female or hen lobster does not cast her shell the same year that she deposits her ova, or, in the common phrase, is in *berry*. When the ova first appear under her tail, they are small, and extremely black; but they become in succession almost as large as ripe elder berries before they are deposited, and turn of a dark brown colour, especially towards the end of the time of her depositing them. They continue full, and deposit the ova in constant succession, as long as any of that black substance is in their bodies, which, when boiled, turns of a beautiful red colour, and is called their *roe*. Hen lobsters are found in berry at all times of the year, but chiefly in winter. It is a common mistake, that a berried hen is always in perfection for the table. When her berries appear large and brownish, she will always be found exhausted, watery, and poor. Though the ova be full at all seasons, they seem only to come to life in July and August. Great numbers of them may then be found, in the form of tadpoles, swimming about the little pools left by the tides among the rocks, and many also under their proper form from half an inch to 4 inches in length. In casting their shells, it is hard to conceive how the lobster is able to draw the fish of their large claws out, leaving the shells entire and attached to the shell of their body, in which state they are constantly found. The fishermen say, the lobster does before casting, till the fish of its large claw is no thicker than the quill of a goose, which enables it to draw its parts through the joints and narrow passage near the trunk. The new shell is quite membranaceous at first, but hardens by degrees. Lobsters only grow in size while their shells are in their soft state. They are chosen for the table, by their being heavy in proportion to their size; and by the hardness of their shells on their sides, which, when in perfection, will not yield to moderate pressure. Barnacles and other small fish adhering to them are reckoned certain signs of superior goodness. Cock lobsters are in general better than the hens in winter; they are distinguished by the narrowness of their tails, and by their having a strong spine upon the centre of each of the transverse processes beneath the tail, which support the 4 middle plates of their tails. The fish of a lobster's claw is more tender, delicate, and easy of digestion, than that of the tail. In summer, the lobsters are found near the shore, and thence to about six fathoms water; in winter, they are seldom taken in less than 12 or 15 fathoms. Like other insects, they are much more active and alert in warm weather than in cold. In the water, they can run nimbly upon their legs and small claws; and, if alarmed, can spring, tail foremost, to a surprising distance, as swift as a bird can fly. The fishermen can see them pass about 30 feet; and, by the swiftness of their motion, suppose they may go much further. *Athe-*

næus remarks this circumstance, and says, that "the incurvated lobsters will spring with the activity of dolphins." Their eyes are raised upon moveable bases, which enables them to see readily every way. When frightened, they will spring from a considerable distance to their hold in the rock, and, what is not less surprising than true, will throw themselves into their hold in that manner through an entrance barely sufficient for their bodies to pass.

7. *CANCER GRANULATUS*, or rough-shelled crab: these crabs are pretty large, and are commonly taken from the bottom of the sea in shallow water; the legs are small in proportion to the body; the two claws are remarkably large and flat. The whole shell is covered over with innumerable little tubercles like shagreen; the colour is brown, variously stained with purple.

8. *CANCER GRAPUS*, or the red mottled crab, has a round body, the legs longer and larger than in other kinds; the claws are red, and the rest of the animal is mottled in a beautiful manner with red and white. These crabs inhabit the rocks hanging over the sea; they are the nimblest of all crabs, and run with surprising agility along the upright side of a rock, and even under the rocks that hang horizontally below the water. This they are often necessitated to do for escaping the assaults of rapacious birds that pursue them. These crabs never go to land; but frequent mostly those parts of the promontories and islands of rocks in and near the sea, where, by the continual and violent agitation of the waves against the rocks, they are always wet, continually receiving the spray of the sea, which often washes them into it; but they instantly return to the rock again, not being able to live under water, and yet requiring more of that element than any of the crustaceous kind that are not fish.

9. *CANCER HORRIDUS*, the horrid crab, with a projecting bifurcated snout, the end diverging; body heart-shaped; with the claws and legs covered with long and very sharp spines.—It is a large species, and inhabits the rocks on the eastern coasts of Scotland. It is common to Norway and Scotland, as many of the marine animals and birds are. See *Plate XLIX*.

10. *CANCER LOCUSTA*, the locust lobster, with 4 antennæ; two pair of imperfect claws; the first joint ovated; the body consists of 14 joints. It abounds, in summer, on the shores, beneath stones and algæ, and leaps about with vast agility.

11. *CANCER MÆNAS*, the common CRAB, with 3 notches on the front; 5 serrated teeth on each side; claws ovated; next joint toothed; hind feet subulated; of a dirty green colour, but red when boiled. It inhabits all our shores; lurks under the algæ, or burrows under the sand; and is sold and eaten.

12. *CANCER PAGURUS*, or the black-clawed crab, with a crenated thorax; smooth body; quinque-dentated front; smooth claws and black tips; hind feet subulated. It inhabits the rocky coasts; is very delicious meat, and casts its shell between Christmas and Easter. The tips of the claws of this species are used in medicine; to absorb acidities in the stomach and bowels.

13. *CANCER PISUM*, the pea crab, with rounded

approach of their prey, were warned of it by their vigilant friend.

16. *CANCER PULEX*, the flea lobster, with 5 pairs of legs, and two claws, imperfect; and 32 joints in the body. It is very common in fountains and rivulets, swims very swiftly in an incurved posture on its back; embraces and protects its young between the legs, does not leap.

17. *CANCER BURICOLA*, the sand crab, or violet crab, with a smooth entire thorax, and the two last joints of the feet armed with spines. It inhabits the Bahama islands, as well as moist sands between the tropics, and feeds upon vegetables. These animals are not only in a kind of orderly society in the retreats in the mountains, but regularly once a year march down to the sea-side in a body of some millions at a time. As they multiply in great numbers, they choose the month of April or May to begin their expedition; and then fall out by thousands from the fumps of hollow trees, from the clefts of rocks, and from the holes which they dig for themselves under the surface of the earth. At that time the whole ground is covered with the band of adventurers, there is no setting down one's foot without treading upon them. The sea is their place of destination, and so that they direct their march with right-lined precision. No geometriician could send them to their destined station by a shorter course; they neither turn to the right nor left, whatever obstacles intervene; and even if they meet with a house, they will attempt to scale the walls to keep the unbroken tenor of their way. But though on other occasions, are obliged to conform to the face of the country; and if it is intersected with rivers, they are then seen to wind along the course of the stream. The procession sets forward from the mountains with the regularity of an army under an experienced commander. They are commonly divided into three battalions; of which the first consists of the strongest and boldest males, who, like pioneers, march forward to clear the route obliged to take for want of space, and then the most convenient encampment till the weather changes. The main body of the army is composed of females, which never leave the mountains till the rain is set in for some time, and then descend in regular battalions, being formed into columns of 50 paces broad, and 3 miles deep, and so close that they almost cover the ground. The rear-guard follows 3 or 4 days after; a straggling undisciplined tribe, consisting of males and females, but not so vigorous as the former. The night is their chief time of proceeding; but if it rains, they do not fail to profit by the occasion; and they continue to move forward in their slow uniform manner. When the sun shines red as hot upon the surface of the ground, they

even nippers together, as if to threaten and disturb them. But though they thus strive to be formidable to man, they are much more so to each other; for they are possessed of one most valuable property, which is, that if any of them by accident is wounded in such a manner as to be incapable of proceeding, the rest fall upon and devour it on the spot, and then pursue their journey.

When, after a fatiguing march, and escaping thousand dangers, (for they are sometimes slain at their destined ports, they prepare to cast their spawn. The eggs are as yet within their bodies, and not excluded, as is usual in some of the kind, under the tail, for the creature was in the benefit of sea water to help the delivery; and the edge of the water, and lets the waves enter its body two or three times. This faculty, for, without further delay, they withdraw in fast growing larger, is excluded out of the body, and the barbs under the flap, or membrane, of the tail. This bunch is soon as big as a ring. In this state of pregnancy they once more seek the shore for the last time, and bury their spawn into the water, leave none of it lying it to maturity. At this time whole flocks of hungry fish are at the shore in expectation of this annual supply; the sea to a great distance seems black with them, and about two thirds of the crabs eggs are immediately devoured by fish rapacious invaders. The eggs that escape are hatched under the sand; and, soon after, appear as a race of these little crabs are seen coming in shore, and slowly travelling up to the mountains. The old ones, however, are not so slow in their march; they have become so feeble and tired, that they can hardly creep along, and the sea a full time changes its colour. Most of them, then, are obliged to continue in the flat parts of the country till they recover, making holes in the earth, which they cover at the mouth with sand and dirt, that no one may enter. They then throw off their old shells, which they leave whole; the place where they opened is now the belly being unclean. At that time they are quite naked, and almost without motion for some weeks. This animal, when possessed of its retreats in the mountains, is inexpressible for its subsisting upon vegetables, its hidden nature, and its habitations being in the sand.

places, it remains for a great part of the season in perfect security. It is only when impelled by the desire of bringing forth its young, and when compelled to descend into the flat country, that it is taken. At that time the natives wait for its descent in eager expectation, and destroy thousands; but, disregarding their bodies, they only seek for that small prawn which lies on each side of the stomach within the shell, of about the thickness of a man's thumb. They are much more valuable upon their return after they have cast their shell; for, being covered with a skin resembling soft parchment, almost every part except the stomach may be eaten. They are taken in the holes by feeling for them with an instrument; they are sought after by light, when on their journey, by flambeaux. The instant the animal perceives itself attacked, it throws itself on its back, and with its claws pinches most terribly whatever it happens to fasten on. But the dexterous crab-catcher takes them by the hinder legs in such a manner that the pinners cannot touch them; and thus he throws them into his bag. Sometimes also they are caught when they take refuge in the bottoms of holes in rocks by the sea-side, by covering the mouth of the hole, to prevent their getting out; and then soon after, the tide coming, enters the hole, and the animal is found, upon its ebbing, drowned in its retreat. These crabs are of various sizes, the largest about 6 inches wide; they walk side-ways like the sea crab, and are shaped like them: some are black, some yellow, some red, and others variegated with red, white, and yellow mixed. Some of these are poisonous; and several people have died by eating them, particularly the black kind. The light coloured are reckoned best; and when full in flesh, are very well tasted. In some of the sugar islands they are eat without danger; and are no small help to the negro slaves, who, on many of these islands, would fare very hard without them. See *Plate XLIX.*

16. *CANCER SERRATUS*, or the *PRAWN*, with a long serrated snout bending upwards; 3 pair of very long filiform feelers; claws small, furnished with two fangs; smooth thorax; 5 joints to the tail; middle caudal fin subulated, two outmost lat and rounded. It is frequent in several shores among loose stones; sometimes found at sea, and taken on the surface over 30 fathoms depth of water; cinereous when fresh; of a fine red when boiled.

17. *CANCER SQUILLA*, with a snout like a prawn, but deeper and thinner; the feelers longer in proportion to the bulk; the sub-caudal fins rather larger; is, at full growth, not above half the bulk of the former.—It inhabits the coasts of Kent; and is sold in London under the name of the *white shrimp*, as it assumes that colour when boiled.

18. *CANCER STRIGOSUS*, or the *plated lobster*, with a pyramidal spiny snout; thorax elegantly plated, each plate marked near its junction with short striæ; claws much longer than the body, thick, echinated, and tuberculated; the upper fang trifid; only 3 legs spiny on their sides; tail broad. The largest of this species is about six inches long. It inhabits the coasts of Anglesea, under stones and fuci. It is very active; and, if

taken, flaps its tail against the body with much violence and noise. See *Plate XLIX.*

19. *CANCER VELUTINUS*, or *velvet crab*, with the thorax quinquedentated; body covered with short, brown, velvet-like pile; claws covered with minute tubercles; small spines round the top of the 2d joint; hind legs broadly ovated. This is among the species taken notice of by Aristotle on account of the broad feet, which, he says, assist them in swimming; as web-feet do the water-fowl. It inhabits the western coast of Anglesea.

20. *CANCER VOLANS*, or *sand crab*, is but of a small size; its colour light brown, or dusky white. It has eight legs, and two claws, one of which is double the size of the other: these claws serve both to defend and feed them. The head has two square holes, which are receptacles for its eyes; out of which it thrusts them, and draws them in again at pleasure. Their abode is only on the sandy shores of Ilathera, and others of the Bahama islands. They run very fast, and retreat from danger into little holes they make in the sand.

* *To CANCERATE.* *v. n.* [from *cancer.*] To grow cancerous; to become a cancer.—But striking his fist upon the point of a nail in the wall, his hand *cancerated*, he fell into a fever, and soon after died on't. *L'Esfrange.*

* *CANCERATION.* *n. s.* [from *cancerate.*] A growing cancerous.

* *CANCEROUS.* *adj.* [from *cancer.*] Having the virulence and qualities of a cancer.—How they are to be treated when they are strumous, schirrhous, or *cancerous*, you may see in their proper places. *Wise man.*

* *CANCEROUSNESS.* *n. s.* [from *cancerous.*] The state of being cancerous.

CANCHE, a river of France, which rises in the department of the Straits of Calais, becomes navigable at Montreuil, and falls into the sea below Staples.

CANCHERIZANTE, or } in the Italian music,
CANCHERIZATO, } a term signifying a piece of music that begins at the end, being the retrograde motion from the end of a song, &c. to the beginning.

CANCHRYS. See *CACHRYS*, N° II.

CANCERIFORM, *adj.* having the form of a crab.

* *CANCERINE.* *adj.* [from *cancer.*] Having the qualities of a crab.

CANCROMA, or *BOAT-BILL*, in ornithology, a genus of birds belonging to the order of *Grallæ*; the characters of which are: The bill is broad, with a keel along the middle; the nostrils are small, and lodged in a furrow; the tongue is small; and the toes are divided. There are two species:

1. *CANCROMA CANCROPHAGA*, or the *brown boat-bill*, resembles the *COCHLEARIA* (see N° 2.) so much in size, head, crest, and every thing almost, except the colour, that Mr Lathan considers them both as only varieties of the same species: Linnæus however ranks them as distinct. In this species the under parts, instead of ash colour, are of a pale rufous brown; the tail rufous ash; and the upper parts wholly of a cream colour; the bill and legs of a yellow brown. It inhabits Cayenne, Guiana, and Brasil, and chiefly frequents

y without being disturbed with the fear that wild animals may invade and ravage his folds. The inhabitants are happy in not being exposed to the troublesome bite of noxious insects, the poison of serpents, and the rapacity of the wild beasts of the desert. The ancient Cretans believed that the island enjoyed these singular advantages, on account of its having been the birth-place of Jupiter. "The Cretans, says Ælian, celebrate in their songs the beneficence of Jupiter, and the favour which he conferred on their island, which was the place of his birth and education, by freeing it from every noxious animal, and even rendering it unfit for nourishing those that are introduced into it from foreign countries."

(3.) CANDIA, CLIMATE AND NATURAL ADVANTAGES OF. Of the climate of Candia travellers speak with rapture. The heat is never excessive; and in the plains violent cold is never felt. In the warmest days of summer, the atmosphere is cooled by breezes from the sea. Winter properly begins here with December and ends with January; and during that short period snow never falls on the lower grounds, and the surface of the water is rarely frozen over. Most frequently the weather is as fine then, as in Britain at the beginning of June. These two months have received the name of *winter*, because in them there is a copious fall of rain, the sky is obscured with clouds, and the north winds blow violently; but the rains are favourable to agriculture; the winds chase the clouds towards the summits of the mountains, where a repository is formed for those waters which are to fertilize the fields; and the inhabitants of the plain suffer no inconvenience from these transient blasts. In February, the ground is overspread with flowers and rising crops. The rest of the year is almost one continued fine day. The inhabitants of Crete never experience any of those mortifying returns of piercing cold, which are so frequently felt in Britain and even more southern countries; and which, succeeding suddenly after the cherishing heats of spring, nip the blossoming flowers, wither the open buds, destroy half the fruits of the year, and are fatal to delicate constitutions. The sky is always unclouded and serene; the winds are mild and refreshing breezes. The radiant sun proceeds in smiling majesty along the azure vault, and ripens the fruits on the lofty mountains, the rising hills, and the plains. The nights are no less beautiful; their coolness is delicious. The atmosphere not being overloaded with vapours, the sky unfolds to the observer's view a countless profusion of stars; sparkling with the most vivid rays. Nothing can be more magnificent than this sight, and the Cretans enjoy it for six months in the year. To the charms of the climate are added other advantages; there are scarce any morasses in the island; the waters never stagnate; they flow in numberless streams from the tops of the mountains, and form large fountains or small rivers that empty themselves into the sea; the elevated situation of their springs causes them to dash down with such rapidity, that they never gather in pools or lakes; consequently insects cannot deposit their eggs upon them, as they would be immediately hurried

down into the sea; and Candia is not infested, like Egypt, with those clouds of insects, and whose sting is insufferably painful; nor is the atmosphere loaded with those noxious vapours which rise from marshy grounds. The mountains and hills are overspread with various kinds of thyme, savoury, wild thyme, and with a multitude of odoriferous and balsamic plants; the rivulets which flow down the vallies are overhung with myrtles and laurel roses; clumps of orange, citron and almond trees, are plentifully scattered over the fields; the gardens are adorned with tufts of Arabian jasmine. In spring, they are beset with beds of violets; some extensive plains are arrayed in saffron; and the cavities of the rocks are fringed with sweet smelling dittany. In a word, from the hills, the vales, and the plains, on all hands, there arise clouds of exquisite perfumes, which embalm the air, and render it a luxury to breathe it.

(4.) CANDIA, DISEASES OF. Diseases are very rare in a country whose atmosphere is exceedingly pure; and in Candia, epidemical diseases are unknown. Fevers prevail here in summer, but are not dangerous; and the plague would be wholly unknown, had not the Turks destroyed the lazarets that were established by the Venetians, for strangers to perform quarantine in. Since these were demolished, it is occasionally introduced by ships from Smyrna and Constantinople. As no precautions are taken against it, it gains ground, and spreads over the island from one province to another; and as the colds and heats are never intemperate, it sometimes continues its ravages for six months at a time. This fine country is infested with a disease less dangerous than the plague, but whose symptoms are more hideous, viz. leprosy. In ancient times, Syria was the focus in which it raged with most fury; and from Syria it was carried into several of the islands of the Archipelago. It is infectious, and is instantaneously communicated by contact. The victims who are attacked by it, are driven from society, and confined to little ruinous houses on the high way. They are strictly forbidden to leave these miserable dwellings, or hold intercourse with any person. Those poor wretches have generally beside their huts a small garden producing pulse, and feeding poultry; and with that support, and what they obtain from passengers, they find means to drag out a painful life in circumstances of shocking bodily distress. Their bloated skin is covered with a scaly crust, speckled with red and white spots; which afflict them with intolerable itchings. A hoarse and tremulous voice issues from the bottom of their breasts. Their words are scarce articulated; because their distemper inwardly preys upon the organs of speech. These frightful spectres gradually lose the use of their limbs. They continue to breathe till such time as the whole mass of their blood is corrupted, and their bodies are entirely in a state of putrefaction. The rich are not attacked by this distemper: it confines itself to the poor, chiefly to the Greeks. But those Greeks observe strictly their Lent; and eat nothing during that time but salt fish, botorgo, salted and smoked pickled olives.

olive, and cheese. They drink plentifully of the hot and muddy wines of the island. The natural tendency of such a regimen must be, to fire the blood, to thicken the fluid part of it, and thus at length to bring on a leprosy.

(5.) **CANDIA, GOVERNMENT OF.** Candia is at present governed by 3 Pachas, who reside respectively at Candia, Canea, and Retimo. The first, who is always a Pacha of 3 tails, may be considered as viceroy of the island. He enjoys more extensive powers than the others. To him the inspection of the forts and arsenals is entrusted. He nominates to such military employments as fall vacant, as well as to the governments of the Sude, Grabusa, Spina Longua, and Gira-petra. The governors of these forts are denominated Beys. Each of them has a constable and 3 general officers under him: one of whom is commander of the artillery; another of the cavalry; and the third of the janissaries. The council of the pacha consists of a kyaia, who is the channel through which all orders are issued, and all favours bestowed; an aga of the janissaries, colonel general of the troops, who has the chief care of the regulation of the police; two topigi bachi; a defterdar, who is treasurer general for the imperial revenues; a keeper of the imperial treasury; and the chief officers of the army. This government is entirely military, and the power of the pacha *serasquier* is absolute. The justice of his sentences is never called into question; they are instantly carried into execution. The people of the law are the musti, who is the religious head, and the cadi. The first interprets those laws which regard the division of the patrimony among the children of a family, successions, and marriages; in a word, all that are contained in the Koran; and he also decides on every thing that relates to the ceremonies of the Mussulman religion. The cadi cannot pronounce sentence on affairs connected with these laws, without first taking the opinion of the musti in writing, which is named *Faitfa*. It is his business to receive the declarations, complaints, and donations of private persons; and to decide on such differences as arise among them. The pacha is obliged to consult those judges, when he puts a Turk legally to death; but the pacha, who is dignified with 3 tails, sets himself above all laws, condemns to death, and see his sentence executed, of his own authority. All the mosques have their *kam*, a kind of curate, whose duty is to perform the service. There are school-masters in the different quarters of the city. These persons are much respected in Turkey, and are honoured with the title of *Effendi*. The pachas of Canea and Retimo are no less absolute, within the bounds of their respective provinces, than the pacha of Candia. They enjoy the same privileges with him, and their council consists of the same officers. Their chief object is to get rich as speedily as possible; and to accomplish this, they practise all the arts and cruelties of oppression, to squeeze money from the Greeks. In truth, those poor wretches run to meet the chains with which they are loaded. Envy always preys upon them, and if some one among them, enjoys a decent fortune, the rest assiduously seek some pretence for accusing him before the pacha, who takes advan-

tage of these dissensions, to seize the property of both the parties. It is by no means astonishing, that under so barbarous a government, the number of the Greeks is daily diminished. See § 9.

(6.) **CANDIA, HISTORY OF THE SIEGE AND CAPTURE OF.** Candia came into the possession of the Venetians by purchase, in the year 1174, and soon began to flourish under the laws of that republic. The inhabitants, encouraged by their masters, engaged in commerce and agriculture. The Venetian commandants readily afforded to those travellers who visited the island, every assistance necessary to enable them to extend and improve useful knowledge. Belon, the naturalist, is lavish in praise of their good offices, and describes, in an interesting manner, the flourishing state of that part of the island which he visited. The seat of government was established at Candia. The magistrates and officers, who composed the council, resided there. The provisor general was president. He possessed the chief authority; and his power extended over the whole principality. It continued in the possession of the Venetians for five centuries and an half. Cornaro held the chief command when it was threatened with a storm, on the side of Constantinople. The Turks, for a whole year, had been employed in preparing a vast armament. They deceived Cornaro, by assuring him that it was intended against Malta. In 1645, in the midst of a solemn peace, they appeared unexpectedly before Crete with a fleet of 400 sail, having on board 60,000 land forces, under the command of a pacha. The emperor Ibrahim, under whom this expedition was undertaken, had no fair pretext to offer in justification of his enterprize. He made use of all that perfidy which characterizes the people of the east, to impose on the Venetian senate. He loaded their ambassador with presents, directed his fleet to bear for Cape Matapan, as if they had been going beyond the Archipelago; and caused the governors of Tina and Cerigna to be solemnly assured, that the republic had nothing to fear for her possessions. At the very instant when he was making those assurances, his naval armament entered the gulf of Canea; and, passing between that city and St Theodore, anchored at the mouth of Platania. The Venetians, not expecting the sudden attack, had made no preparations to repel it. The Turks landed without opposition. The isle of St Theodore is but a league and a half from Canea, and is only three quarters of a league in compass. The Venetians had erected two forts there; one of which, standing on the summit of the highest eminence, on the coast of that little isle, was called Turluru; the other on a lower situation, was named St Theodore. It was an important object to the Mussulmans to make themselves masters of that rock, which might annoy their ships. They immediately attacked it with ardour. The first of those fortresses, being destitute of soldiers and cannon, was taken without striking a blow. The garrison of the other consisted of no more than 60 men. They made a gallant defence and stood out till the last extremity; and when the Turks at last prevailed, their number was diminished to ten, whom the captain

pacha cruelly caused to be beheaded. Being now
 masters of that important post, as well as of
 Lazaret, an elevated rock, standing above half a
 league from Canea, the Turks invested the city by
 sea and land. General Cornaro was struck, as with
 a thunder-clap, when he learned the descent of
 the enemy. In the whole island there were no
 more than a body of 3500 infantry, and a small
 number of cavalry. The besieged city was de-
 fended only by 1000 regular troops, and a few
 citizens, who were able to bear arms. He made
 haste to give the republic notice of his distress;
 and posted himself off the road, that he might the
 more readily succour the besieged city. He threw
 a body of 250 men into the town, before the lines
 of the enemy were completed. He afterwards
 made several attempts to strengthen the besieged
 with other reinforcements; but in vain. The
 Turks had advanced in bodies close to the town,
 and carried a half-moon battery, which covered
 the gate of Retimo; and were battering the walls
 night and day with their numerous artillery. The
 besieged defended themselves with resolute valour,
 and the smallest advantage which the besiegers
 gained cost them dear. General Cornaro made
 an attempt to arm the Greeks, particularly the
 pachots, who boasted loudly of their valour. He
 formed a battalion of these. But the era of their
 valour was long past. When they beheld the e-
 nemy, and heard the thunder of the cannon, they
 took to flight; not one of them would stand fire.
 While the senate of Venice were deliberating on
 the means to be used for relieving Canea, and en-
 deavouring to equip a fleet, the Mahometan ge-
 nerals were sacrificing the lives of their soldiers to
 bring their enterprise to a glorious termination.
 In different engagements they had already lost
 6,000 warriors; but, descending into the ditch-
 es, they had undermined the walls, and blown
 up the most impregnable forts with explosions of
 powder. They sprung one of those mines be-
 neath the bastion of St Demetri. It overturned
 a considerable part of the wall, which crushed all
 the defenders of the bastion. That instant the
 besiegers sprung up with their sabres in their
 hands, and taking advantage of the general con-
 fusion of the besieged on that quarter, made
 themselves masters of the post. The besieged, re-
 covering from their terror, attacked them with
 unequalled intrepidity. About 400 men assailed
 200 Turks already firmly posted on the wall,
 and pressed upon them with such obstinate and
 untiring valour, that they killed a great number,
 and drove the rest down into the ditch. In this
 extremity, every person in the city was in arms.
 The Greek monks took up muskets; and the wo-
 men, forgetting the delicacy of their sex, appear-
 ed on the walls among the defenders, either sup-
 plying the men with ammunition and arms, or
 fighting themselves; and several of those daring
 heroines lost their lives. For 50 days the city
 held out against all the forces of the Turks. If,
 even at the end of that time, the Venetians had
 sent a naval armament to its relief, the kingdom
 of Candia might have been saved. Doubtless,
 they were not ignorant of this well known fact.
 The north wind blows straight into the harbour
 of Canea. When it blows a little briskly, the sea

rages. It is then impossible for any squadron of
 ships, however numerous, to form in line of bat-
 tle in the harbour, and to meet an enemy. If the
 Venetians had set out from Cerigo with a fair
 wind, they might have reached Canea in five hours,
 and might have entered the harbour with full sails,
 without being exposed to one cannon shot; while
 none of the Turkish ships would have dared to
 appear before them; or if they had ventured,
 must have been driven back on the shore, and
 dashed in pieces among the rocks. But, instead
 of thus taking advantage of the natural circum-
 stances of the place, they sent a few galleys, which,
 not daring to double Cape Spada, coasted along
 the southern shore of the island, and failed of ac-
 complishing the design of their expedition. At
 last, the Canaans, despairing of relief from Ve-
 nice, seeing three breaches made in their walls,
 through which the infidels might easily advance
 upon them, exhausted with fatigue, and covered
 with wounds, and reduced to the number of 500
 men, who were obliged to scatter themselves
 round the walls, which were half a league in ex-
 tent, and undermined in all quarters, demanded
 a parley, and offered to capitulate. They ob-
 tained very honourable conditions; and after a
 glorious defence of two months, which cost the
 Turks 20,000 men, marched out of the city with
 the honours of war. Those citizens, who did
 not chuse to continue in the city, were permitted
 to remove; and the Ottomans faithfully observed
 their stipulations. The Venetians, after the loss
 of Canea, retired to Retimo. The captain pacha
 laid siege to the citadel of the Sude, situated in
 the entrance of the bay, on a high rock, of about
 a quarter of a league in circumference. He rai-
 sed earthen batteries, and made an ineffectual at-
 tempt to level its ramparts. At last, despairing
 of taking it by assault, he left some forces to block
 it up from all communication, and advanced to-
 wards Retimo. That city, being unwall'd, was
 defended by a citadel, standing on an eminence
 which overlooks the harbour. General Cornaro
 had retired thither. At the approach of the ene-
 my, he advanced from the city, and waited for
 them in the open field. During the action, he
 encouraged his soldiers, by fighting in the ranks.
 A glorious death was the reward of his valour;
 but his fall determined the fate of Retimo. The
 Turks having landed additional forces, they in-
 troduced the plague, which was almost a constant
 attendant on their armies. This dreadful pest
 destroyed most part of the inhabitants. The rest
 escaped into the Venetian territories, and the
 island was left almost desolate. The siege of the
 capital commenced in 1646, and was protracted
 much longer than that of Troy. For two years
 the Turks scarce gained any advantages before
 that city. They were often routed by the Vene-
 tians, and sometimes compelled to retire to Re-
 timo. In 1649, Ussien Pacha, who blockaded
 Candia, receiving no supplies, owing to the revo-
 lutions at Constantinople by the depposition and
 death of brahim, and accession of Mahomet IV.
 was compelled to raise the siege, and retreat to
 Canea. The Venetians were then on the sea with
 a strong squadron. They attacked the Turkish
 fleet in the bay of Smyrna, burnt 12 of their ships

and 2 galleys; and killed 6000 of their men. Some time after, the Mahometans having landed an army on Candia, renewed the siege of the city with greater vigour, and made themselves masters of an advanced fort that was very troublesome to be besieged; which obliged them to blow it up. From 1650 till 1658, the Venetians, continuing masters of the sea, intercepted the Turks every year in the straits of the Dardanelles, and fought them in 4 naval engagements; in which they defeated their numerous fleets, sunk a number of their caravels, took others, and extended the terror of their arms even to the walls of Constantinople. That capital became a scene of tumult and disorder. The Grand Signior, alarmed, left the city with precipitation. These great successes revived the hopes of the Venetians, and depressed the courage of the Turks. They converted the siege of Candia into a blockade, and suffered considerable losses. The Sultan, to exclude the Venetian fleet from the Dardanelles, caused two fortresses to be built at the entrance of the straits. He ordered the Pacha of Canea to appear again before the walls of Candia, and to make every possible effort to gain the city. In the mean time, the Venetians made several attempts on Canea. In 1660, the city was about to surrender, when the Pacha of Rhodes reinforced it with a body of 2000 men. He doubled the extremity of Cape Melec, within sight of the Venetian fleet, which was becalmed off Cape Spada, and could not advance one fathom to oppose an enemy considerably weaker than themselves. Kiopruli, knowing that the murmurs of the people against the long continuance of the siege of Candia were rising to a height, and fearing a general revolt, set out from Constantinople about the end of 1666, at the head of a formidable army. Having escaped the Venetian fleet, which was lying off Canea, he landed at Palio Castro, and formed the lines around Candia. Under his command were 4 Pachas, and the flower of the Ottoman forces. Those troops, being encouraged by their chiefs, and supported by a great quantity of artillery, performed prodigies of valour. All the exterior forts were destroyed. Nothing now remained to the besieged but the bare line of the walls, unprotected by fortresses; and these being battered by an incessant discharge of artillery, soon gave way on all quarters. Still, however, (incredible as it may appear,) the Caneans held out 3 years against all the forces of the Ottoman empire. At last they were going to capitulate, when the hope of assistance from France reanimated their valour. The expected succours arrived on the 26th of June 1669. They were conducted by the duke of Noailles. Next day the ardour of the French prompted them to make a general sally. The duke of Beaufort, admiral of France, assumed the command. He was the first to advance against the Mussulmans, and was followed by a numerous body of infantry and cavalry. They advanced furiously upon the enemy, forced the trenches, and would have compelled them to abandon their lines and artillery, had not an unforeseen accident damped their courage. In the midst of the engagement a powder magazine blew up; the D. of Beaufort and the foremost of the combatants

lost their lives; the French ranks were broken, and fled in disorder; and the duke of Noailles, with difficulty, effected a retreat within the walls of Candia. The French accused the Italians of having betrayed them; and on that pretext prepared to set off sooner than the time agreed upon. Negotiations of the commandant could prevail with them to delay their departure. This determined the fate of the city, which had only 500 men to defend it. Morosini capitulated with Kiopruli, to whom he surrendered the kingdom of Crete, accepting only the Sude, Grabusa, and Spina Longua. The grand visir made his entrance into Candia, Oct. 4th, 1670; and stayed 8 months in it, inspecting the reparation of its walls and fortresses. The 3 fortresses left in the hands of the Venetians continued long in their possession, but were all taken at last. In short, after a war of 36 years continuance, in the course of which more than 200,000 men fell, Candia was at last subdued by the Turks, in whose hands it still continues.

(7.) CANDIA, INHABITANTS OF. The Mahometan men are generally from 5½ to 6 feet. They bear a strong resemblance to ancient statues; and it must have been after such models that the ancient artists wrought. The women also are generally beautiful. Their dress does not restrain the growth of any part of their bodies, and their shape therefore assumes those admirable proportions, with which the hand of the Creator has graced his fairest workmanship on earth. They are not all charming, but some of them are beautiful, particularly the Turkish ladies. In general, the Cretan women have a rising throat, a neck gracefully rounded, black eyes sparkling with animation, a small mouth, a fine nose, and cheeks delicately coloured with the fresh vermilion of health. But the oval of their form is different from that of the Europeans, and the character of their beauty is peculiar to their own nation.

(8.) CANDIA, MILITARY FORCE OF. The garrison of Candia consists of 46 companies, composing a military force of about 10,000 men. All these forces do not reside constantly in the city, but they can be mustered in a very short time. They are all regularly paid every 3 months, excepting the janissaries, none of whom but the officers receive pay. The different gradations of this military body do not depend on the pay. The council of each company, consisting of veterans, and of officers in actual service, has the power of naming to them. A person can occupy the same post for no longer than two years; but the post of *Sorbagi*, or captain, which is purchased at Constantinople, is held for life. The *bas*, or cook, is also continued in his employment as long as the company to which he belongs is satisfied with him. Each company has an almoner, denominated *imam*. The garrisons of Canea and Retimo, formed on a similar plan, are much less numerous. The first consists of about 3000 men, the other, of 500; but as all the male children of the Turks are enrolled among the janissaries as soon as born, the number of these troops might be greatly augmented in time of war. They are, however, far from formidable. Most of them

have never seen fire, nor are they ever exercised in military evolutions.

(9.) **CANDIA, POPULATION OF.** The total number of inhabitants in this island does not exceed 350,200. There are scarcely 150,000 Greeks in the island, of whom 65,000 pay the carach. The Turks have not possessed the island for more than 120 years; yet, as they are not exposed to the same oppression, they have multiplied in it, and raised themselves upon the ruin of the ancient inhabitants. Their number amounts to 200,000. The Jews amount only to 200. This fertile country is in want of nothing but industrious husbandmen, secure of enjoying the fruit of their labours. It might maintain four times its present number of inhabitants. Antiquity has celebrated the island of Crete as containing 100 populous cities; and geographers have preserved their names and situations. Many of these cities contained no fewer than 30,000 inhabitants. By reckoning them, on an average, at 6,000 each, we shall in all probability be rather within than beyond the truth. This calculation gives for 100 cities 600,000
Allowing as many in the rest of the island, 600,000

The whole number of the inhabitants of ancient Crete will amount to 1,200,000
This number cannot be exaggerated. When Candia was in the hands of the Venetians, it was reckoned to contain 996 villages. It appears therefore, that when this island enjoyed the blessings of liberty, it maintained to the number of 249,800 more inhabitants than it does at present. But since those happy times, she has been deprived of her laws by the tyranny of the Romans; has groined under the destructive sway of the monarchs of the lower empire; has been exposed for a period of 120 years to the ravages of the Arabians; has next passed under the dominion of the Venetians; and has at last been subjected to the despotism of the Turks, who have produced a dreadful depopulation in all the countries which have been subdued by their arms.

(10.) **CANDIA, RIVERS, MOUNTAINS, AND PRODUCE OF.** This island is watered by many fine rivers, anciently known by the names of *Geratus*, *Loxus*, *Therenus*, *Triton*, &c. which, in spite of Turkish indolence, render it very productive. West of the city, (N° II.) there is an extensive range of hills, which are a continuation of mount Ida, and of which the extremity forms the promontory of Dion. For more than half a league round the walls of Candia there is not a single tree to be seen. The Turks cut them all down in the time of the siege, and laid waste the gardens and orchards. Beyond that extent, the country is plentifully covered with corn and fruit trees. The neighbouring hills are overspread with vineyards, which produce the *malmsey* of mount Ida, worthy of preference at the table of the most exquisite connoisseur in wines. This species of wine has a fine flavour, a very pleasant relish, and is highly esteemed in the island. Candia produces also oil, silk, wool and excellent honey.

(11.) **CANDIA, STATE OF THE GREEK HIERARCHY IN.** The Turks allow the Greeks the free exercise of their religion, but forbid them to repair their churches or monasteries; and accord-

ingly they cannot obtain permission to repair their places of worship, or religious houses, but by the powerful influence of gold. From this article the pachas derive very considerable sums. They have 12 bishops as formerly, the first of whom has the title of Abp. of Gortynia. He resides at Candia; in which city the metropolitan church stands. He is appointed by the patriarch of Constantinople; and has the right of nominating to all the other bishoprics of the island; the names of which are, Gortynia, Cnossou, Mirabella, Hyera, Gira-petra, Arcadia, Cherronose, Lambis, Milopotamo, Retimo, Canea, Cifamo. These bishoprics are nearly the same as under the reign of the Greek emperors. The patriarch wears a triple tiara, writes his signature in red ink, and answers for all the debts of the clergy. To enable him to fulfil his engagements, he lays impositions on the rest of the bishops, and particularly on the monasteries, from which he draws very handsome contributions. He is considered as the head of the Greeks, whom he protects, as far as his slender credit goes. The orders of government are directed to him on important occasions; and he is the only one of all the Greeks in the island who enjoys the privilege of entering the city on horseback.

(12.) **CANDIA, the capital of the island (N° I.)** is situated on its northern coast, on the site of the ancient Heraclea, and is the seat of government under the Turks. Its walls, which are more than a league in compass, are in good repair, and defended by deep ditches, but not protected by any exterior fort. Towards the sea, it has no attacks to fear; because the shallowness of the harbour renders it inaccessible to ships of war. The Pacha of 3 tails with the principal officers, and several bodies of the Ottoman soldiery, are stationed here. This city, when under the Venetians, was opulent, commercial, and populous; but it has now lost much of its former strength and grandeur. The harbour, naturally a fine basin, in which ships are securely sheltered from every storm, is every day becoming narrower and shallower. At present it admits only boats, and small ships after they have discharged a part of their freight. Those vessels, which the Turks freight at Candia, are obliged to go almost empty to the ports of Standie, whether their cargoes are conveyed to them in barks. Candia, which was embellished by the Venetians with regular streets, handsome houses, a fine square, and a magnificent cistern, contains at present but a small number of inhabitants, notwithstanding the vast extent of the area inclosed within its walls. Several divisions of the city are void of inhabitants. That in which the market place stands is the only one which discovers any stir of business, or show of affluence. The Mahometans have converted most of the Christian temples into mosques; yet they have left two churches to the Greeks, one to the Armenians, and a synagogue to the Jews. The Capuchins possess a small convent, with a chapel in which the vice-consul of France hears mass. At present he is the only Frenchman who attends it, as the French merchants have taken up their residence at Canea. Candia lies 500 miles from Constantinople. Lon. 25. 23. E. Lat. 35. 16. N.

(1.) CANDIAC, a town of France in the department of Gard, and ci-devant province of Languedoc.

(2.) CANDIAC, John Lewis, a premature genius, born at Candiac, (N. I.) in 1719. In the cradle he distinguished his letters: at 13 months, he knew them perfectly: at 3 years of age he read Latin, either printed or in MS.: at 4 he translated from that tongue: at 6, he read Greek and Hebrew; was master of the principles of arithmetic, history, geography, heraldry, and the science of medals; and had read the best authors on almost every branch of literature. He died of a complication of disorders, at Paris, in 1726.

* CANDICANT. *adj.* [*candicans*, Lat.] Growing white; whitish. *Dis.*

* CANDID. *adj.* [*candidus*, Lat.] 1. White. This sense is very rare —

The box receives all black: but, pour'd from thence,

The stones came *candid* forth, the hue of innocence. *Dryden.*

2. Free from malice; not desirous to find faults; fair; open; ingenuous.—The import of the discourse will, for the most part, if there be no designed fallacy, sufficiently lead *candid* and intelligent readers into the true meaning of it. *Locke.*—

A *candid* judge will read each piece of wit, With the same spirit that its author writ. *Pope.*

(1.) * CANDIDATE. *n. f.* [*candidatus*, Lat.]

1. A competitor; one that solicits, or proposes himself for something of advancement.—

So many *candidates* there stand for wit,

A place at court is scarce so hard to get.

Anonymous.

—One would be surpris'd to see so many *candidates* for glory. *Addison.*—2. It has generally for before the thing sought.—

What could thus high thy rash ambition raise?
Art thou, fond youth, a *candidate* for praise?
Pope.

3. Sometimes of.—

Thy first-fruits of poetry were giv'n,
To make thyself a welcome inmate there,
While yet a young probationer,
And *candidate* of heav'n. *Dryden.*

(2.) CANDIDATE is derived, by Mr Chambers, from *candidus*, white, because in the Roman commonwealth, candidates were obliged to wear a white gown during the time of their soliciting a place. This garment, according to Plutarch, they wore without any other clothes, that the people might not suspect they concealed money for purchasing votes, and also that they might more easily show to the people the scars of those wounds they had received in fighting for the defence of the commonwealth. The candidates usually declared their pretensions a year before the time of election, which they spent in making interest and gaining friends. Various arts of popularity were practis'd for this purpose, and frequent circuits made round the city, and visits and compliments to all sorts of persons, the process of which was called *ambitus*. See *AMBITUS*.

(1.) CANDIDATI MILITES, an order of soldiers, among the Romans, who served as the emperor's body guards to defend him in battle. They were the tallest and strongest of the whole

troops, and most proper to inspire terror. They were called *candidati*, because clothed in white, either that they might be more conspicuous, or because they were considered in the way of preferment.

(2.) CANDIDATI PRINCIPIS, persons recommended to any office by the emperors.

* CANDIDLY. *adv.* [from *candidus*.] Fairly; without trick; without malice; ingenuously.—We have often desired, they would deal *candidly* with us; for if the matter stuck only there, we would propose, that every man should swear, that he is a member of the church of Ireland. *See* *S.*

* CANDIDNESS. *n. f.* [from *candidus*.] Ingenuity; openness of temper; purity of mind.—He presently sees the guilt of a sinful action; and, on the other side, observes the *candidness* of a man's very principles, and the sincerity of his intentions. *South.*

* To CANDIFY. *v. a.* [*candifico*, Lat.] To make white; to whiten. *Dis.*

CANDIOT, *adj.* belonging to Candia.

CANDISATION, *n. f.* the candying of sugar.

CANDISH, a considerable province of India, in the dominions of the Great Mogul, bounded by Chytor and Malva on the N. Orissa on the E. Decan on the S. and Guzarat on the W. It is populous and rich; and abounds in cotton, rice, and Indigo. Brampore is the capital town. It is subject to the Poonal Mahrattas.

CANDITEERS, in fortification, frames to lay brushwood on, to cover the workmen.

(1.) * CANDLE. *n. f.* [*candela*, Lat.] 1. A light made of wax or tallow, surrounding a wick of flax or cotton.—

Here burns my *candle* out. ay, here it dyes,
Which, while it lasted, gave king Henry light.

Shakespeare.

—We see that wax *candles* last longer than tallow *candles*, because wax is more firm and hard. *Recon's Nat. History.*—Take a child, and, setting a *candle* before him, you shall find his pupil to contract very much, to exclude the light, with the brightness whereof it would otherwise be dazzled. *Ray.* 2. Light or luminary.—

By these blessed *candles* of the night,

Had you been there, I think you would have begg'd

The ring of me, to give the worthy doctor.

Shakespeare.

(2.) CANDLE. A tallow candle, to be good, must be half sheep's and half bullock's tallow. Hog's tallow makes the candle gutter, and always gives an offensive smell, with a thick black smoke. The wick ought to be pure, sufficiently dry, and properly twisted; otherwise the candle will emit an inconstant vibratory flame, which is both prejudicial to the eyes and insufficient for the distinct illumination of objects. There are two sorts of tallow candles; the one dipped, the other moulded: (See § 8.) the former are the common candles; the others the invention of the *sieur le Brege* at Paris. Candles are also made of spermaceti.

(3.) CANDLE, in medicine. See *CANDLES*.

(4.) CANDLE, MEDICATED. See *BOUGIE*.

(5.) CANDLE, SALE, OR AUCTION BY INCH OF, is when a small piece of candle, being lighted, the bystanders are allowed to bid for the merchant.

dize that is selling; but the moment the candle is out, the commodity is adjudged to the last bidder. This mode of sale seems to have been borrowed from the church of Rome, where there is an excommunication by inch of candle, when the sinner is allowed to come to repentance while a candle continues burning; but after it is consumed he remains finally excommunicated.

(6.) CANDLES, ANCIENT. The Roman candles were at first little strings dipt in pitch, or surrounded with wax; though afterwards they made them of papyrus, covered likewise with wax; and sometimes also of rushes, by stripping off the outer rind, and only retaining the pith.—For religious offices, wax candles were used; for common uses, those of tallow.

(7.) CANDLES, METHOD OF LIGHTING, BY ELECTRIC SPARKS. This method, invented by Dr Ingenhoufz, is recorded in the *Phil. Trans.* vol. xviii. It is done by a small phial, having 8 or 10 inches of metallic coating, or even less, charged with electricity, which may be done at any time of the night by a person who has an electrical machine in his room. “When I have occasion to light a candle (says he), I charge a small coated phial, whose knob is bent outwards, so as to hang a little over the body of the phial; then I wrap some loose cotton over the extremity of a long brass pin or a wire, so as to stick moderately fast to its substance. I next roll this extremity of the pin wrapped up with cotton in some fine powder of resin, which I always keep in readiness upon the table for this purpose, either in a wide-mouthed phial or in a loose paper; this being done, I apply the extremity of the pin or wire to the external coating of the charged phial, and bring as quickly as possible the other extremity wrapped round with cotton to the knob: the powder of resin takes fire, and communicates its flame to the cotton, and both together burn long enough to light a candle. As I do not want more than half a minute to light my candle in this way, I find it a readier method than kindling it by a flint and steel, or calling a servant. I have found that powder of white or yellow resin lights easier than that of brown. The *farina lycopodii* may be used for the same purpose, but it is not so good as the powder of resin, because it does not take fire quite so readily, requiring a stronger spark not to miss: besides, it is soon burnt away. By dipping the cotton in oil of turpentine, the same effect may be as readily obtained, if you take a jar somewhat greater in size. This oil will inflame so much the readier if you strew a few fine particles of brass upon it. The pin dust is the best for this purpose; but as this oil is scattered about by the explosion, and when kindled fills the room with much more smoke than the powder of resin, I prefer the last.”

(8.) CANDLES, METHOD OF MAKING. After the tallow has been weighed, and mixed in the due proportions, it is cut into very small pieces, that it may melt the sooner; for the tallow in lumps, as it comes from the butchers, would be in danger of burning or turning black, if it were left too long over the fire. Being perfectly melted and skimmed, they pour a certain quantity of water into it, proportionable to the quantity of tallow. This serves to precipitate to the bottom

of the vessel the impurities of the tallow which may have escaped the skimmer. No water, however, must be thrown into the tallow designed for the three first dips; because the wick being still quite dry, would imbibe the water, which makes the candles crackle in burning. The tallow, thus melted, is poured into a tub, through a coarse sieve of horse hair, to purify it still more, and may be used after having stood 3 hours. It will continue fit for use 24 hours in summer and 15 in winter. The wicks are made of spun cotton, which the tallow chandlers buy in skains, and which they wind up into bottoms or clues; whence they are cut out, with an instrument contrived on purpose, into pieces of the length required; then put on the sticks or broaches, or else placed in the moulds, as the candles are intended to be either dipped or moulded.

(9.) CANDLES, PROPORTIONAL VALUE OF DIFFERENT KINDS OF. Lord Bacon proposes candles of divers compositions and ingredients, and of different sorts of wicks; with experiments of the degrees of duration, and light of each. Some good housewives bury their candles in flour or bran, which it is said lengthens their duration nearly one half. It is observed in optics, that the flames of two candles joined, give a much stronger light than both of them separate. The remark was first made by Dr Franklin. Probably the union of the two flames produces a greater degree of heat, whereby the vapour is attenuated, and the particles of which light consists more copiously emitted. Experiments have been made to determine the real and comparative expence of burning candles of different sorts and sizes. The following table exhibits the result of these. The time that one candle lasted was calculated from an average of several different trials in each size. The last column though stated at 6d per dozen will also show the proportion of expence at any price.

TABLE exhibiting the REAL and COMPARATIVE EXPENCE, in farthings and 100th parts, of CANDLES of different sorts and sizes.

	No of candles in one pound.	Weight of one candle.		Time one can- dle lasted.		Time that one lb. will last.		Expence in 12 hours, at 6d per doz.
		oz.	dr.	b.	min.	b.	min.	
Sm. } wick }	18½	0	14	3	15	59	26	4.85
Lar. } wick }	19	0	13½	2	40	50	34	5.70
	16½	0	15½	2	40	44	2	6.54
	12	1	5½	3	27	41	24	6.96
	10½	1	8	3	36	38	24	7.50
	7½	2	1	4	9	32	12	8.94
	8	2	0	4	15	34	0	8.47
	5½	2	13	5	19	30	15	9.53

Moulded Candles.

		Weight of one candle.		Time one can- dle lasted.		Time that one lb. will last.		at 78 per doz.
		oz.	dr.	b.	min.	b.	min.	
5½	2	12		7	20	42	39	7.87
4	4	0		9	3	36	20	9.18

O O O O 2

(10.) CAN-

(10.) CANDLES, RUSH, used in different parts of England, are made of the pith of a sort of rushes, peeled or stripped of the skin, except on one side, and dipped in melted tallow.

(11.) CANDLES, STATUTES RESPECTING THE MAKING OF. If any chandlers mix with their wares any thing deceitfully, &c. the candles shall be forfeited. Stat. 23 Eliz. and a tax or duty is granted on candles, by 8 & 9 Anne, cap. 6. made for sale, of one penny a pound, besides the duty upon tallow, by 8 Anne, cap. 9. And by 24 Geo. III. cap. 11. an additional duty of an halfpenny a pound: and by the same an additional duty of an halfpenny a pound is laid upon all candles imported, (except those of wax and spermaceti, for which see WAX CANDLES,) subject also to the two additional 5 per cents. imposed by 19 and 22 Geo. III. besides the duty of 2½d. formerly imposed by 2 W. sess. 2. cap. 4. 8 Anne, cap. 9. and 9 Anne, cap. 6. And every maker of candles, other than wax candles for sale, shall annually take out a licence at 11. The maker of candles shall, in 4 weeks within the bills, and elsewhere in 6 weeks, after entry, clear off the duties on pain of double duty: nor sell any after default in payment on pain of double value; 8 Anne, cap. 9. The makers of candles are not to use melting houses, without making a true entry, on pain of 100l. and to give notice of making candles to the excise officer for the duties; and of the number, &c. or shall forfeit 50l. Stat. 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. See also 23 Geo. II. cap. 21. and 26 Geo. II. cap. 32. No maker of candles for sale shall begin to make candles, without notice first given to the officer, unless from September 29th to March 25th yearly, between seven in the morning and five in the evening, and from March 25th to September 29th, between five in the morning and seven in the evening, on pain of 10l. 10 Anne, cap. 26. The penalty of obstructing the officer is 20l. and of removing candles before they are surveyed 20l. 8 Anne, cap. 9. The penalty of privately making candles is the forfeiture of the same and utensils, and 100l. 5 Geo. III. cap. 43. And the penalty of mingling weighed with unweighed candles, of removing them before they are weighed, or of concealing them, is the forfeiture of 100l. 11 Geo. cap. 30. Candles, for which the duty hath been paid, may be exported, and the duty drawn back; but no draw-back shall be allowed on the exportation of any foreign candles imported. 8 Anne, cap. 9. 23 Geo. II. cap. 21.

(12.) CANDLES, WAX. See WAX CANDLES.

(1.) * CANDLEBERRY TREE. See SWEET-WILLOW; of which it is a species.

(2.) CANDLEBERRY TREE. See MYRICA.

CANDLE BOMBS, a name given to small glass bubbles, having a neck about an inch long, with a very slender bore, by means of which a small quantity of water is introduced into them, and the orifice afterwards closed up. The stalk being put through the wick of a burning candle, the vicinity of the flame soon rarifies the water into a steam, by the elasticity of which the glass is burst with a loud crack.

* CANDLEHOLDER. *n. f.* [from *sandle* and

hold.] 1. He that holds the candle. 2. He that remotely assists.—

Let wantons, light of heart,
Tickle the senseless rushes with their heels;
For I am proverb'd with a grandeur phrase,
To be a *candleholder*, and look on. *Shakspeare*

* CANDLELIGHT. *n. f.* [from *candle* and *light*.]
1. The light of a candle.—In darkness *candlelight* may serve to guide men's steps, which, to walk in the day, were madness. *Hooker*.—

Before the day was done, her work she sped,
And never went by *candlelight* to bed.

Dryden's Fanny

The boding owl

Steals from her private cell by night,

And flies about by *candlelight*. *Southey*

—Such as are adapted to meals, will indifferently serve for dinners or suppers, only distinguishing between daylight and *candlelight*. *Swift*. 2. The necessary candles for use.—I shall find him coal and *candlelight*. *Molmeux to Locke*.

CANDLE-MAKER, one who makes candles.

CANDLE-MAKING, the art of making candles. See CANDLES, § 8.

(1.) * CANDLEMAS. *n. f.* [from *candle* and *mas*.] The feast of the Purification of the Blessed Virgin, which was formerly celebrated with many lights in churches.—The harvest dinners are held by every wealthy man, or, as we term it, by every good liver, between Michaelmas and Candlemas. *Carew's Survey of Cornwall*.—There is a general tradition in most parts of Europe, that intensifies the coldness of the succeeding winter, upon the setting of the sun upon Candlemas day. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

Come Candlemas nine years ago she dy'd.

And now lies bury'd by the yew-tree side. *Ga.*

(2.) CANDLEMAS is held on the 2d of February. The ancient Christians on that day used lights in their churches and processions, in memory, it is said, of our Saviour's being on that day declared by Simon "to be a light to lighten the Gentiles." In imitation of this custom, the Roman Catholics on this day consecrate all the tapers and candles which they use in their churches during the whole year. At Rome, the Pope performs that ceremony himself; and distributes wax-candles to the cardinals and others, who carry them in procession through the great hall of the Pope's palace. This ceremony was prohibited in England by an order of council in 1548.

(3.) CANDLEMAS is one of the 4 terms of the year for paying and receiving rents or borrowed money, &c. In the courts of law, Candlemas term begins 15th January, and ends 3d February.

CANDLESBY, } two villages in Lincolnshire.
CANDLESHOW, } N. E. of Spilby.

(1.) * CANDLESTICK. *n. f.* [from *candle* and *stick*.] The instrument that holds candles.—

The horsemen sit like fixed *candlesticks*,
With torch-staves in their hands; and their poor
jades

Lob down their heads. *Shakspeare*

—These countries were once Christian, and members of the church, and where the golden *candlesticks* did stand. *Bacon*.—I know a friend, who has converted the essays of a man of quality, into a kind of *fringe* for his *candlesticks*. *Addison*.

(2.) CANDLESTICK.

(1.) **CANDLESTICK, GOLDEN**, was one of the sacred utensils made by Moses to be placed in the Jewish tabernacle. It was made of hammered gold, a talent in weight. It consisted of 7 branches supported by a base or foot. These branches were adorned at equal distances with six flowers like lilies, and with as many bowls and knobs placed alternately. Upon the stock and 6 branches of the candlestick were the golden lamps, which were immoveable, wherein were put oil and cotton. These 7 lamps were lighted every evening, and extinguished every morning. They had their tongs oruffers to draw the cotton in or out, and dishes under them to receive the sparks or droppings of the oil. This candlestick was placed in the antichamber of the sanctuary on the S. side, and served to illuminate the altar of perfume and the tabernacle of the shew-bread. When Solomon had built the temple of the Lord, he placed in it ten golden candlesticks of the same form as that described by Moses, 5 on the N. and 5 on the S. side of the holy place: But after the Babylonish captivity, the golden candlestick was again placed in the temple, as it had been before in the tabernacle by Moses. This sacred utensil, upon the destruction of the temple by the Romans, was lodged in the temple of peace built by Vespasian; and the representation of it is still to be seen on the triumphal arch at the foot of mount Palatine, on which Vespasian's triumph is delineated.

* **CANDLESTUFF**. *n. f.* [from *candle* and *stuff*.] Any thing of which candles may be made; kitchen-luff, grease; tallow.—By the help of oil, and wax, and other *candlestuff*, the flame may continue, and the wick not burn. *Bacon*.

* **CANDLEWASTER**. *n. f.* [from *candle* and *waste*.] One that consumes candles; a spendthrift. Patch grief with proverbs, make misfortune drunk.

With *candlewasters*. *Shakespeare*.

CANDLE WOOD, slips of pine about the thickness of a finger, used in New-England and other colonies to burn instead of candles, giving a very good light. The French inhabitants of Tortuga use slips of yellow santal-wood for the same purpose, and under the same denomination, which yields a clear flame though of a green colour.

CANDO, **CONDI**, or **CUNDI**, in commerce, a long measure used in several parts of the East Indies, particularly at Goa, to measure linen. The cando used in Pegu is equal to the Venetian ell.

* **CANDOCK**. *n. f.* a weed that grows in rivers. —Let the pond lie dry six or twelve months, both to kill the water-weeds, as water-lilies, *candocks*, cate, and bulrushes, and also, that as these die for want of water, so grass may grow on the pond's bottom. *Walter*.

* **CANDOUR**. *n. f.* [*candor*, Lat.] Sweetness of temper; purity of mind; openness; ingenuity; frankness.—He should have so much of a natural candour and sweetness, mixed with all the improvement of learning, as might convey knowledge with a sort of gentle insinuation. *Watts*.

(1.) **CANDY**, a large kingdom of Asia, in Ceylon. It contains about a quarter of the island; and as it is encompassed with high mountains, and covered with thick forests, through which the roads and paths are narrow and difficult, the king

has them guarded to prevent his subjects from going into other countries. It is full of hills, from whence rivulets proceed which are full of fish; but as they run among the rocks, they are not fit for boats: however, the inhabitants are very dexterous in turning them to water their land, which is fruitful in rice, pulse, and hemp. The king is absolute, and his subjects are idolaters.

(2.) **CANDY**, the capital of the above kingdom. (N. r.) It has been often burnt by the Portuguese, when they were masters of these coasts. The houses are very poor, low, and badly furnished. Lon. 80. 52. E. Lat. 7. 45. N.

(3.) **CANDY**, or **SUGAR-CANDY**, a preparation of sugar made by melting and crystallizing it 6 or 7 times over, to render it hard or transparent. It is of three kinds, white, yellow, and red. The white comes from the loaf-sugar, the yellow from the cassonado, and the red from the muscavado.

(1.) * *To CANDY*. *v. a.* [probably from *candare*, a word used in later times for *to whiten*.] 1. To conserve with sugar, in such a manner as that the sugar lies in flakes or breaks into spangles.—

Should the poor be flatter'd?

No, let the *candy'd* tongue lick absurd pomp,
And crook the pregnant hinges of the knee,
Where thrift may follow fawning. *Shakespeare*.
—They have in Turkey confections like to *candied* conserves, made of sugar and lemons, or sugar and citrons, or sugar and violets, and some other flowers, and mixture of amber. *Bacon*.—

With *candy'd* plantanes, and the juicy pine,
On choicest melons and sweet grapes they dine.
Waller.

2. To form into congelations.—

Will the cold brook,

Candied with ice, cawdle thy morning toast,
To cure thy o'er-night's surfeit? *Shakespeare*.

3. To incrust with congelations.—

Since when those frosts that winter brings,
Which *candy* every green,

Renew us like the teeming springs,

And we thus fresh are seen. *Drayton*.

(2.) * *To CANDY*. *v. n.* To grow congealed.

CANDYING, the act of preserving simples in substance, by boiling them in sugar. The performance of this originally belonged to the apothecaries, but is now become a part of the business of the confectioner.

(1.) * **CANDY LION'S FOOT**. [*catananche*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller*.

(2.) **CANDY LION'S FOOT**. See **CATANANCHE**. **CANDY TUFT**. See **IBERIS**.

(1.) * **CANE**. *n. f.* [*canna*, Lat.] 1. A kind of strong reed, of which walking staves are made; a walking staff.—

Shall I to please another wine-sprung mind
Lose all mine own? God hath given me a measure

Short of his *cane* and body: must I find

A pain in that wherein he finds a pleasure?

Herbert.

—The king thrust the captain from him with his *cane*; whereupon he took his leave and went home. *Harvey*.—If the poker be out of the way, or broken, stir the fire with your master's *cane*. *Swift*. 2. The plant which yields the sugar.—This *cane* or reed grows plentifully both in the East

East and West Indies. Other reeds have their skin hard dry, and their pulp void of juice; but the skin of the sugar *cane* is soft, and the spongy matter or pith it contains very juicy. It usually grows four or five feet high, and about half an inch in diameter. The stem or stalk is divided by knots a foot and a half apart. At the top it puts forth a number of long green tufted leaves, from the middle of which arise the flower and the seed. There are likewise leaves springing out from each knot; but these usually fall as the *cane* rises. They usually plant them in pieces cut a foot and a half below the top of the flower, and they are ordinarily ripe in ten months, though sometimes not till fifteen; at which time they are found quite full of a white succulent marrow, whence is expressed the liquor of which sugar is made. When ripe, they are cut, and carried in bundles to the mills, which consist of three wooden rollers, covered with steel plates. *Chambers.*—

And the sweet liquor on the *cane* bestow,
From which prepar'd the luscious sugars flow.

Blackmore.

3. A lance; a dart made of cane; whence the Spanish *inego de cannas*.—

Abenamar, thy youth these sports has known,
Of which thy age is now spectator grown;

Judge-like thou sitt'st, to praise or to arraign,
The flying skirmish of the darted *cane*. *Dryden.*

4. A reed.—Food may be afforded to bees, by small *canes* or troughs conveyed into their hives. *Mortimer's Husbandry.*

(2.) CANE, in botany. See § 1. *def.* 2. ARUNDO and CALAMUS.

(3.) CANE is also the name of a long measure, which differs in the several countries where it is used. At Naples the cane is equal to 7 feet $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches English measure: the cane of Thoulouse and the Upper Languedoc, is equal to the varre of Aragon, and contains 5 feet $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches; at Montpellier, Provence, Dauphine, and the Lower Languedoc, to 6 English feet $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

(4.) CANES (§ 1. *def.* 1.) are commonly adorned with a head of gold, silver, agate, &c. Some are without knots, and very smooth and even; others are full of knots about two inches distance from one another. These last have very little elasticity, and will not bend so well as the others. The canes of Bengal are the most beautiful which the Europeans bring into Europe. Some of them are so fine, that people work them into bowls or vessels, which being varnished over in the inside, with black or yellow lacca, will hold liquors as well as glass or China ware does; and the Indians use them for that purpose.

(5.) CANE, SUGAR. See SACCHARUM.

* To CANE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To beat with a walking staff.

CANEA, a considerable town of the island of Candia, where a bashaw resides. See CANDIA, § 6. It was built by the Venetians, and occupies part of the site of the ancient CYDONIA. It is but about two miles in compass; encircled on the land side with a single wall, extremely thick; and defended by a broad and deep ditch, cut through a bed of rock, which extends all round the wall. By cutting it still deeper, they might cause the sea to flow round its ramparts: on which they have

raised high platforms, that their great guns may command a wider extent of the adjacent sea. The city has only one gate, viz. that of Retimo, protected by a half-moon battery, which is the only exterior fort. The side which faces the sea is the best fortified. On the left of the harbour are four batteries, rising one above another, and planted with a number of large cannons of cast metal, marked with the arms of Venice. The right side of the harbour is defended only by a strong wall, extending along a chain of pointed rocks which it is dangerous for ships to approach. At the extremity of this wall, there is an old castle, falling into ruins. Beneath that castle, the Venetians had immense arsenals, vaulted with stone. Each of these vaults was of sufficient length, breadth, and height, to serve as a workshop for building a ship of the line. The ground is sloping, and the outermost part of these enormous arsenals is on a level with the sea; so that it was very easy to launch the ships built there into the water. The Turks are suffering that magnificent work to fall into ruins. Canea is laid out on a fine plan. The streets are large and straight, and the squares adorned with fountains. There are no remarkable buildings in it. Most of the houses are flat-roofed, and have only one story. Those contiguous to the harbour are adorned with galleries, from which there is a delightful prospect. From the windows are seen the bay formed between Cape Spada and Cape Marmaro, and all the ships that are entering in or passing out. The harbour, at present, receives ships of moderate burden; and it might be enlarged so as to admit the largest frigates. Its mouth is exposed to the violence of the north winds, which sometimes swell the billows above the ramparts. But, as the bay is narrow, and the bottom is good, ships that are well moored run no danger. At the time when Tournefort visited Crete, Canea did not contain more than 5 or 6000 inhabitants. But, at present, when the gates of Gira-Petra, Candia, and Retimo are choaked up, the merchants have retired to Canea; and it is reckoned to contain 16,000 souls. The environs of the town are admirable; being adorned with forests of olive trees mixed with fields, vineyards, gardens, and brooks bordered with myrtle trees and laurel roses. The chief revenue of this town consists in olive oil. Lon. 24. 15. E. Lat. 35. 20. N.

CANE, GROTTA DEL, [i. e. the dog's grotto] a cave of Naples, 7 miles from Puzzoli, where many poor dogs have been suffocated, to the effect of a mephitic vapour, which rises a foot above the bottom of this grotto.

CANEILLA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the dodecandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 12th order, *Holoraceae*. The calyx is 3 lobed, the petals are 5; the anthers 16, growing to a urceolated or bladder-shaped nectarium; and the fruit is a trilocular berry, with two seeds. There is but one species, viz.

CANEILLA ALBA. It grows usually about 20 feet high, and eight or ten inches in thickness, as that of the Bahama islands. The leaves are narrow at the stalk, growing wider at their ends, which are

road and rounding, having a middle rib only; they are very smooth, and of a light shining green. *Plate XLIX.* In May and June the flowers, which are pentapetalous, come forth in clusters at the ends of the branches: they are red, and very fragrant, and are succeeded by round berries, of the size of large peas, green, and when ripe (which is in February,) purple, containing two shining black seeds, flat on one side, otherwise not unlike the shape to a kidney bean: these seeds in the berry are enveloped in a slimy mucilage. The whole plant is very aromatic, the bark particularly, being more used in distilling, and in greater esteem, than the more northern parts of the world than in Britain. The bark is the *canella alba* of the shops. It is brought to us rolled up into long quills, thicker than the cinnamon, and both outwardly and inwardly of a whitish colour, lightly inclining to yellow. Infusions of it in water are of a yellowish colour, and smell of the canella; but they are rather bitter than aromatic. Tinctures in rectified spirit have the warmth of the bark, but little of its smell. Proof spirit dissolves the aromatic as well as the bitter matter of the canella, and is therefore the best menstruum. The canella is the interior bark freed from an outward thin rough rind, and dried in the shade. The shops distinguish two sorts of canella, differing from each other in the length and thickness of the quills: they are both the bark of the same tree; the thicker being taken from the trunk, and the thinner from the branches. This bark is a warm pungent aromatic, though not of the most agreeable kind: nor are any of the preparations of it very grateful. *Canella alba* is often employed where a warm stimulant to the stomach is necessary, and as a corrigent of other articles. It is now, however, little used in composition by the London College; the only official formula which it enters being the *pulvis aloeticus*: but with the Edinburgh College it is an ingredient in the *tinctura amara*, *vinum amarum*, *vinum rhei*, &c. It is useful as covering the taste of some other articles.—This bark has been confounded with Winter's bark, which belongs to a very different tree. See *WINTER'S BARK*.

CANELLE, or **CANE-LAND**, a large country on the island of Ceylon, formerly called *COTA*. It contains a great number of cantons, the principal of which are occupied by the Dutch. The chief riches of this country consist in cinnamon, of which there are large forests. There are five towns on the coast, some forts, and a great number of harbours. The rest of the country is inhabited by the natives; and there are several rich mines, from whence rubies, sapphires, topazes, emeralds, and several other precious stones are obtained.

CANEPHORÆ, in Grecian antiquity, virgins, before they come marriageable. See next article.

(1.) **CANEPHORIA**, a ceremony which made up the first part of a feast, celebrated by the Athenian virgins on the eve of their marriage day. It consists in this: The maid, conducted by her father and mother, went to the temple of Minerva, carrying with her a basket full of little curiosities, as presents to Diana, to engage her to make the marriage feast happy; or, as the scholiast of Theocritus

has it, the basket was intended as a kind of honourable amends made to that goddess, the protectrix of virginity, for abandoning her party; or as a ceremony to appease her wrath. Suidas calls it a festival in honour of Diana.

(2.) **CANEPHORIA**, was also a festival in honour of Bacchus, celebrated particularly by the Athenians, in which the young maids carried golden baskets full of fruit, covered to conceal the mystery from the uninitiated.

CANES, in Egypt and other eastern countries, a poor sort of buildings for the reception of strangers and travellers; who are accommodated with a room at a small price, but with no other necessities; so that, excepting the room, there are no greater accommodations in these houses than in the deserts, except that there is a market near.

CANESBY, a village in Lincolnshire, near West Haulton.

CANESCENT, *adj.* tending to whiteness.

CANESTELLUS, [old Lat.] *n. f.* a basket.

CANES VENATICI, in astronomy, the **GREY HOUNDS**, two new constellations first established by Hevelius, between the tail of the Great Bear and Bootes's arms, above the Coma Berenices. The first is called *asterion*, being next the Bear's tail; the other *chara*. See **ASTRONOMY**, § 550. Their longitudes and latitudes are given by Hevelius.

CANETO, a strong town of Italy in Mantua, seated on the Oglio, which was several times taken and retaken by the French and Imperialists. It lies 12 m. S. of Mantua, and is now included in the new republic of Cispadana. Lon. 10. 45. E. Lat. 40. 55. N.

CANEWDON, a town in Essex, near Waltham, anciently called *CANUTI DOMUS*, king Canute the Great having held his court in it. It has a fair June 25.

CANE-WOOD, near Hampstead, Middlesex.

CANFIELD MAGNA, } two small towns near

CANFIELD PARVA, } Dunmow, in Essex.

CANFORD-LAWNDS, } two villages, E. of

CANFORD PARVA, } Winborn-Minster, near the Stour, Dorsetshire.

CANG, a gulf of Asia lying between China and Tartary, at the E. end of the Long Wall.

CANGA, in the Chinese affairs, a wooden clog born on the neck, by way of punishment for divers offences. The canga is composed of two pieces of wood notched, to receive the criminal's neck; the load lies on his shoulders, and is more or less heavy according to the quality of his offence. Some cangas weigh 200 lb.; the generality from 50 to 60. The Mandarins condemn to the punishment of the canga. Sentence of death is sometimes changed for this kind of punishment.

CANGANI. See **CEANGI**.

CANGE, *Sieur DU*. See **FRESNE, DU**.

CANGERECORA, a large river in the peninsula of Indostan, which rises in the Gaut Moutains, and runs S. W. to the coast of Malabar.

CANGI. See **CEANGI**.

CANGIAGIO, or **CAMBIASI**, Lewis, one of the most eminent of the Genoese painters, was born in 1527. His works at Genoa are very numerous; and he was employed by the king of Spain to adorn part of the Escorial. He was not

not only expeditious, but worked equally well with both hands; and, by that unusual power, executed more designs, and finished more grand works with his own pencil, in a much shorter time, than most other artists could do with several assistants. He died in 1585.

CANHAM, a village in Suffolk, near Edmundsbury.

CANIA, in botany, a name used by Pliny and others for the Nettle. See URTICA.

CANIADERAGO, a lake of the United States, in New York, W. of lake Oswego, about 9 miles long, but narrow.

CANIBAL. See CANNIBAL.

(1.) CANICULA, in astronomy, a star in the constellation *canis major*, called also the DOG-STAR; by the Greeks $\Sigma\upsilon\alpha\sigma$, SIRIUS. It is the 10th in order in the Britannic catalogue; in Tycho's and Ptolemy's it is the 2d. It is situated in the mouth of the constellation; and is of the first magnitude, being the largest and brightest star in the heavens. From the rising of this star not cosmically, or with the sun, but heliacally, that is, its emerfion from the sun's rays, which now happens about the 15th of August, the ancients reckoned their *dies caniculares*, CANICULAR DAYS, or DOG-DAYS. The Egyptians and Ethiopians began their year at the rising of the canicula, reckoning to its rise again the next year, which is called the *annus canarius*, or CANICULA YEAR. The reason of their choice of the canicula before the other stars to compute their time by, was not only the superior brightness of that star, but because its heliacal rising was in Egypt a time of singular note, as falling on the greatest augmentation of the Nile. Ephesion adds, that from the aspect and colour of canicula, the Egyptians drew prognostics concerning the rise of the Nile; and, according to Florus, predicted the future state of the year; so that the first rising of this star was annually observed with great attention.

(2.) CANICULA, in zoology, the name by which Aristotle, Rondeletius, Aldrovandus, and others, have called the CATULUS.

(3.) CANICULA was also used by Pliny, and other Roman writers, for the fish which the Italians express by the name, LAMIOLO, and in Cornwall is called the *tape*. It is a species of SQUALUS.

(1.) * CANICULAR. *adj.* [*canicularis*, Lat.] Belonging to the dog-star; as *canicular*, or dog-days.—In regard to different latitudes, unto some the *canicular* days are in the winter; as unto such as are under the equinoctial line; for, unto them, the dog-star riseth, when the sun is about the tropick of Cancer, which season unto them is winter. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*.

(2.) CANICULAR DAYS, } See CANICULA, N. I.

(3.) CANICULAR YEAR, } The canicular year among the ancient Egyptians, consisted of 365 days, and had an intercalary day every 4th year.

CANICULUM, or } in the Byzantine antiqui-
CANICULUS, } ties, a golden standish or ink-vessel, decorated with precious stones, wherein was kept the sacred *encaustum*, or red ink, wherewith the emperors signed their decrees, letters, &c. The name alludes to the figure of a dog which is represented, or rather because it was

supported by the figures of dogs. The *canicula* was under the care of a particular officer of the

CANICUM, in botany, a name given by Arcenna and others, to the small celandine. See RANUNCULUS.

CANIGAU, the highest peak of the Pyrene mountains. It is said to be 1440 fathoms, or 1100 feet high.

(1.) CANINA, a district in the N. of Trivia, part of Albania, the ancient Epirus. It lies at the entrance of the gulph of Venus.

(2.) CANINA, the capital of the district, N. E. seated on the sea coast, at the foot of the mountains of Chimera. Lon. 19. 25. E. Lat. 40. 00. N.

(3.) CANINA LAPPA, in botany, a name given by some of the old Roman authors to the first aparine or goose grass. See GALIUM.

CANINANA, in zoology, a species of lizard found in America, and esteemed one of the most venomous kinds. It grows to about two feet long, and is green on the back, and yellow on the belly. It feeds on eggs and small birds; the natives cut off the head and tail, and eat the body as a delicate dish.

(1.) * CANINE. *adj.* [*caninus*, Lat.] Having the properties of a dog.—A kind of words are made up of *canine* particles: these are words who imitate the animals out of which they were taken, always busy and barking, and find out every one that comes in their way. *Idem*. *Canine* hunger, in medicine, is an appetite which cannot be satisfied.—It may occasion an extravagant appetite of usual things, which they will eat in such quantities, till they vomit them up like dogs, from whence it is called *canine*. *Idem*.

(2.) CANINE APPETITE. See § 1. *def.* 1. and BULIMY.

(3.) CANINE MADNESS. See MEDICINE, *INFER.*

(4.) CANINE SULPHUR, a sort of native sulphur discovered near Reggio, intermixed with earthy and stony matters; so called because dogs are fond of it, as to dig it out of the earth.

(5.) CANINE TEETH are two sharp edged teeth in each jaw; one on each side, placed between the incisores and molares.

CANINI, John Angelo, and } two brothers
CANINI, Mark Anthony, } natives of Rome, celebrated for their love of antiquities. John excelled in designs for engraving on stones, particularly heads; Mark engraved them. They were encouraged by Colbert to publish a succession of medals of the heroes and great men of antiquity, designed from medals, antique stones, and other remains; but John died at Rome soon after the work was begun: Mark Anthony, however, procured assistance, finished and published it in Rome, in 1669. The cuts of this edition were engraved by Canini, Picard, and Valet; and a curious explanation is given, which discovers the names of the Canini's in history and mythology. The French edition of Amsterdam, 1731, is spurious.

CANINUS MUSCULUS, the same as *caninus labii superioris*. See ANATOMY, § 197.

CANINUS SERPENS, in zoology, a name given to the MAUBALLA of Ceylon, a snake that devours at every thing that comes in its way, like a dog.

(1.) CANIS, the DOG, in zoology, a genus of quadrupeds.

quadrupeds, belonging to the order of feræ. The characters of the dog are these: He has six fore-teeth in the upper jaw, those in the sides being longer than the intermediate ones, which are lobated; in the under jaw there are likewise six fore-teeth, those on the sides being lobated. He has grinders in the upper, and 7 in the lower jaw. The teeth called *dog-teeth* are 4, one on each side, both in the lower and upper jaw; they are sharp-pointed, bent a little inward, and stand at a distance from any of the rest. Zoologists commonly reckon 14 species of this genus. Mr Robert Kerr, in his *Animal Kingdom*, Vol. I. enumerates 7. But zoological arrangement seems not yet to have arrived at its utmost degree of perfection. Mr Pennant with considerable propriety, (as Mr Kerr remarks,) excludes all the Hyenæ from this genus. Indeed to ordinary readers it must appear somewhat strange to class animals of such very opposite natures as the fox, the wolf and the hyena, under the same genus with the dog. But such is the present state of this branch of science. Adopting Mr Kerr's arrangement in general, as far as our lexicographical order will permit, we state the different species and varieties as follows:

i. CANIS ADIVE, the BARBARY FOX, the CHACAL of Buffon, or the jackal adive, has a long and slender nose, sharp upright ears, long bushy tail: colour, a very pale brown; space above and below the eyes, black; from behind each ear, there is a black line, which soon divides into two, which extend to the lower part of the neck; and the tail is surrounded with 3 broad rings. This species is of the size of the common fox, but the limbs are shorter, and the nose is more slender. M. de Buffon informs us, that Mr Bruce told him his animal was common in Barbary, where it was called *thaleb*. But Mr Pennant observes, that Mr Bruce should have given it a more distinguishing name; for *thaleb*, or *taaleb*, is no more than the Arabic name for the common fox, which is also frequent in that country.

ii. CANIS ANTARCTICUS, the NEW HOLLAND DOG, or Dog of New South Wales, mentioned by Gov. Phillips in his *Voyages*, is thus described by Mr Kerr, p. 136. "The tail is bushy, and hangs downwards: the ears are short and erect; and the muzzle is pointed. It inhabits New Holland; is rather less than 2 feet high; and about 2½ in length. His head resembles that of a fox, having a pointed muzzle, garnished with whiskers, and short erect ears; the body and tail light brown; paler towards the belly, on the sides of the face and throat. The hind parts of the fore legs, the fore parts of the hind legs and all the feet are white. On the whole it is a very elegant animal, but fierce and cruel; from which, with its figure, (see Plate LIV.) the total want of the common voice of the dog, and from general resemblance in other respects, it seems more properly to belong to the wolf than the dog kind."

iii. CANIS AUREUS, the SCHACKAL, or JACKAL as described by Mr Pennant, has yellowish brown irides; ears erect, formed like those of a fox, but shorter and less pointed; hairy with white within; brown without, tinged and dusky: head shorter than that of a fox, and nose blunter: lips black, and somewhat loose: neck and body very

much resembling those of that animal, but the body more compressed: the legs have the same resemblance, but are longer: tail thickest in the middle, tapering to the point: 5 toes on the fore feet; the inner toe very short, and placed high: 4 toes on the hind feet; all covered with hair even to the claws. The hairs are much stiffer than those of a fox, but scarcely so stiff as those of a wolf; short about the nose; on the back, 3 inches long; on the belly shorter: Those at the end of the tail 4 inches long: Colour of the upper part of the body a dirty tawny; on the back, mixed with black: lower part of the body of a yellowish white: tail tipped with black; the rest of the same colour with the back: the legs of an unmixed tawny brown; the fore legs marked (but not always) with a black spot on the knees: but on no part are those vivid colours which could merit the title of *golden*, bestowed on it by Kæmpfer. The length of this animal from the nose to the root of the tail is little more than 29 inches English: the tail, to the ends of the hairs 10½; the tip reaching to the top of the hind legs: the height, from the space between the shoulders to the ground, rather more than 18½ inches; the hind parts a little higher. This species inhabits all the hot and temperate parts of Asia, India, Persia, Arabia, Great Tartary, and about Mount Caucasus, Syria, and the Holy Land. It is found in most parts of Africa, from Barbary to the Cape of Good Hope. Professor Gueldenstaedt, the able describer of this long lost animal, remarks, that the carcass entirely agrees in form with that of a dog, and differs from that of the wolf and fox. And Mr Pennant observes, that there is the same agreement in the teeth with those of a dog; and the same variation in them from those of the two other animals. These circumstances strengthen the opinion entertained by some writers, that the dogs of the old world derived their origin from one or other of them. The jackals have indeed so much the nature of dogs, as to give reasonable cause to imagine that they are at least the chief stock from which is sprung the various races of those domestic animals. When taken young, they grow instantly tame; attach themselves to mankind; wag their tails; love to be stroked; distinguish their masters from others; will come on being called by the name given to them; will leap on the table, being encouraged to it: they drink, lapping; and make water sideways, with their leg held up. Their dung is hard: *odorat anum alterius, coheret copula junctus*. When they see dogs, instead of flying, they seek them, and play with them. They will eat bread eagerly; notwithstanding they are in a wild state carnivorous. They have a great resemblance to some of the Calmuc dogs, which perhaps were but a few descents removed from the wild kinds. Our dogs are probably derived from those reclaimed in the first ages of the world; altered by numberless accidents into the many varieties which now appear among us. The wild schackals go in packs of 40, 50, and even two hundred, and hunt like hounds in full cry from evening to morning. They destroy flocks and poultry, but in a less degree than the wolf or fox: ravage the streets of villages and gardens near towns, and will even destroy child-

Spaniel.



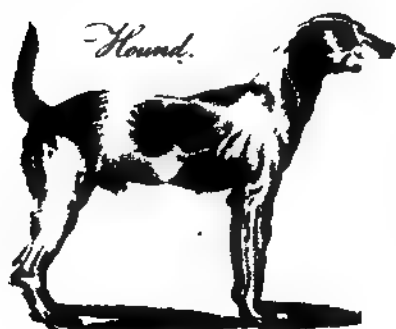
CANIS.

Turnspite.



Plate LI..

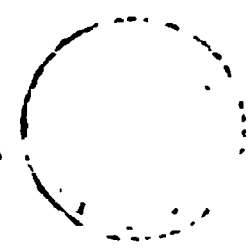
Hound.



CH I - CH

Small Water Dog.





CANIS.

Plate I. II.

King Charles's Dog.

Stout Dog



Lion Dog.

Small Danish Dog.



Bastard Pug Dog.



Pug Dog.

Naked Turkish Dog.



Mongrel Turkish Dog



The Wolf



CANIS.

Plate LIV.

Spanish Dog.

Ireland Dog.



American Hco.



CANCER.



CANCER.

of the mastiff; some take the water, others will not, absolutely refusing to go in. The country was found uninhabited, which makes it more probable that they were introduced by the Europeans; who use them, as the factory does in Hudson's bay, to draw firing from the woods to the forts. The savages who trade to Hudson's bay make use of the wolfish kind to draw their furs. It is singular, that the race of European dogs show as strong an antipathy to this American species, as they do to the wolf itself. They never meet with them, but they show all possible signs of dislike, and will fall on and worry them; while the wolfish breed, with every mark of timidity, puts its tail between its legs, and runs from the rage of the others. This aversion to the wolf is natural to all genuine dogs; for it is well known that a whelp, which has never seen a wolf, will at first fight tremble, and run to its master for protection: an old dog will instantly attack it. Yet these animals may be made to breed with one another as above shown; and the following abstract of a letter from Dr Pallas to Mr Pennant, dated Oct. 5th 1781, affords a firm confirmation of the fact. "I have seen at Moscow, about 20 spurious animals from

dogs and black wolves. They are for the most part like wolves, except that some carry their tails higher, and have a kind of hoarse barking. They multiply among themselves; and some of the whelps are greyish, rusty, or even of the whitish hue of the arctic wolves; and one of those I saw, in shape, tail, and hair, and even in barking, so like a cur, that was it not for his head and ears, his ill-natured look, and fearfulness at the approach of man, I should hardly have believed that it was of the same breed." The dog is liable to many diseases, as the scab, madness, &c. and he seldom wants the tænia or tape worm in his guts, especially if he drinks dirty water.

(1.) CANIS FAMILIARIS, BRITISH VARIETIES OF THE. Having thus delineated the natural history of the domestic dog, we proceed to describe the numerous varieties of this species. We begin with those of our own island, as described by Dr Caius, among which are some varieties now lost; and shall next give a brief account of all the known varieties in the world, as enumerated by Mr Kerr. Dr Caius, (or more properly KAYS,) arranges the British dogs in three grand divisions, which he subdivides as follows:

Dr CAIUS'S SYNOPSIS of BRITISH DOGS,

I. THE MOST GENEROUS KINDS.

II. RUSTICI, or FARM

III. DEGENERES, or MONGRELS.

Dogs of Chace.

Fowlers.

Lap-dogs.

(a) Shepherd's

(a) Wappe,

dog, No. 9.

No. 16.

Hounds. Such as hunt by the eye.

(b) Spaniel, No. 3.

(b) Spaniel gentle or comforter, No. 8.

(b) Mastiff, or ban dog, No. 15.

(b) Turnspit, No. 13.

(a) Terrier. See No. 12.

(d) Gaze-hound, No. 1.

(b) Setter, No. 4.

(b) Harrier, No. 6.

(e) Grey-hound, No. 5.

(i) Water Spaniel or Finder, No. 2.

(c) Bloodhound No. 11.

(f) Leviner, No. 7.

(g) Tumbler, No. 14.

1. CANIS FAMILIARIS AGASÆUS, the gaze-hound, was amazingly swift and quick-sighted. It chaced indifferently the fox, hare, or buck. It would select from the herd the fattest and fairest deer; pursue it by the eye; and, if lost, recover it by its singular distinguishing faculty; nay, should he rejoin the herd, this dog would fix unerringly on the same. This species is now lost, or at least unknown to us.

2. CANIS F. AQUATICUS, or finder, was used in fowling; was the same with our water spaniel; and was used to find or recover the game that was shot.

3. CANIS F. HISPANIOLUS, the spaniel. From the name it may be supposed that we were indebted to Spain for this breed. There were two varieties of this kind; the first used to spring the game, which are the same with our starters. The other variety was used only for the net and was called

4. CANIS F. INDEX, or the setter; a kind well known at present. This kingdom has been long remarkable for producing dogs of this sort, particular care having been taken to preserve the breed in the utmost purity. They are still distinguished by the name of *English spaniels*; so that, notwith-

standing the derivation of the name, it is probable they are natives of Great Britain.

5. CANIS F. LEPORARIUS, the grey-hound. Dr Caius informs us, that it takes its name *quod præcipui gradus sit inter canes*, the first in rank among dogs. That it was formerly esteemed so, appears from the forest laws of king Canute, who enacted that no one under the degree of a gentleman should presume to keep a grey-hound; and still more strongly from an old Welsh saying which signifies, that "you may know a gentleman by his hawk, his horse, and his grey-hound: distinctions, after all, of no great merit. The variety called the *Highland grey-hound*, and now become very scarce, is of very great size, strong, deep-chested, and covered with long rough hair. This kind was much esteemed in former days, and used in great numbers by the powerful chieftains in their magnificent hunting matches. It had as sagacious nostrils as the blood-hound, and was as fierce.

6. CANIS F. LEVERARIUS, the harrier, is a species well known at present: it derives its name from its use, that of hunting the hare.

7. CANIS F. LEVINARIUS, or LORARIUS: the leviner or lyemmer; the first name is derived from the lightness of the kind; the other from the old



barks; peculiar to England; the breed scarcer than it has been, since the barbarous custom of bull-baiting has declined. There are several sub-varieties, differing in size and colour.

32. *CANIS F. POMERANUS*, the Pomeranian or wolf dog of Buffon has long hairs on the head, erect ears, and the tail much curved upwards on the rump.

33. *CANIS F. SAGAX*, the sagacious dog, or German hound, has pendulous ears, and a dew-claw on each hind foot.

34. *CANIS F. SCOTICUS*, the blood-hound, or sagacious Scotch dog of Gesner. See § 1. N. 11. and BLOOD-HOUND, § 2.

35. *CANIS F. SIBERICUS*, the Siberian dog, has erect ears, a curled up tail, and long hair on the whole body.

36. *CANIS F. VARIEGATUS*, the little Danish dog, has small half pendulous ears, a small pointed nose, and thin legs.

37. *CANIS F. VENATICUS*, the *leit-hund* of Rindinger. Mr Kerr says he is "uncertain what particular variety of hound is here meant, as no description of it is given by Dr Gmelin;" whom Mr Kerr chiefly follows in his *Animal Kingdom*.

38—40. *CANIS F. VERTEGUS*, the turnspit, or *VERSATOR* of Caius, (§ 1. N. 13.) has short legs and a long body, which is mostly spotted. Mr Kerr mentions 3 sub-varieties of this kind; viz.

a. *CANIS F. VERTEGUS RECTUS*, with straight legs:

b. *CANIS F. VERTEGUS VALGUS*, with crooked legs; and

c. *CANIS F. VERTEGUS VILLOSUS*, with long shaggy hair.

VII. *CANIS HYÆNA* has a straight jointed tail, with the hair of its neck erect, small naked ears, and four toes on each foot. It inhabits Asiatic Turkey, Syria, Persia, and Barbary. Like the jackal, it violates the repositories of the dead, and greedily devours the putrid contents of the grave; like it, preys on the herds and flocks; yet for want of other food, will eat the roots of plants, and the tender shoots of the palms: but, contrary to the nature of the former, it is an unsociable animal; is solitary, and inhabits the chasms of the rocks. The superstitious Arabs, when they kill one, carefully bury the head, lest it should be employed for magical purposes; as the neck was of old by the Thessalian sorcerers. (*Lucan*. vi. 672.) The ancients were wild in their opinion of the hyæna; they believed that its neck consisted of one bone without any joint; that it changed its sex; imitated the human voice; had the power of charming the shepherds, and, as it were, rivetting them to the place they stood on: no wonder that an ignorant Arab should attribute preternatural powers to its remains. They are cruel, fierce, and untameable animals, of a most malevolent aspect; have a sort of obstinate courage, which will make them face stronger quadrupeds than themselves. Kæmpfer relates, that he saw one which had put two lions to flight, regarding them with the utmost coolness. Their voice is hoarse, a disagreeable mixture of growling and roaring. Mr Kerr mentions two varieties: viz.

1. *CANIS HYÆNA ÆTHIOPICUS*, the Abyssinian Hyæna. "The tail is bushy and the body

is marked with curved stripes. It inhabits the N. E. of Africa. Whether this animal (says Mr Kerr) as described and figured by Mr Bruce, be a distinct species, I do not pretend to determine. In magnitude, ferocity, and manners, it resembles the following species;" (N. 2.) "but its body, which is of a yellowish brown colour, is marked with curved stripes of black, in form of a reversed Italian *f*; the muzzle is black; the legs are striped across with black, and the bushy tail is of a reddish brown colour."

2. *CANIS HYÆNA CROCUTA*, the SPOTTED HYÆNA, is thus described by Mr Pennant. It has a large and flat head; some long hairs above each eye; very long whiskers on each side of the neck; a short black mane; hair on the body short and smooth; ears short and a little pointed, their outside black, inside cinerous; face and upper part of the head black; body and limbs reddish brown, marked with distinct black round spots; the hind legs with black transverse bars; the tail short, black and full of hair. It inhabits Guinea, Ethiopia, and the Cape: lives in holes in the earth, or cliffs of the rocks; preys by night; howls horribly; breaks into the folds, and kills two or three sheep; devours as much as it can, and carries away one for a future repast; will attack mankind, scrape open graves, and devour the dead. Bosman has given this creature the name of *jackal*; by which Buffon being misled, makes it synonymous with the common jackal. This hyæna is called the TIGER WOLF by the colonists at the Cape, where it is a very common and formidable beast of prey. Of this animal, formerly but imperfectly known, the following account is given by Dr Sparmann in his voyage to the Cape. "The night or the dusk of the evening only, is the time in which these animals seek their prey, after which they are used to roam about both separately and in flocks. But one of the most unfortunate properties of this creature is, that it cannot keep its own counsel. The language of it cannot easily be taken down upon paper; however, with a view to make this species of wolf better known than it has been hitherto, I shall observe, that it is by means of a sound something like the following, *aauae*, and sometimes *coao*, yelled out with a tone of despair (at the interval of some minutes between each howl,) that nature obliges this, the most voracious animal in all Africa, to discover itself, just as it does the most venomous of all the American serpents, by the rattle in its tail, itself, to warn every one to avoid its mortal bite. This rattle-snake would seem, in consequence of its betraying its own designs, and of its great inactivity (to be as it were nature's step-child,) it, according to many credible accounts, it had the wondrous property of charming its prey by fixing its eye upon it. The like is affirmed also of the tiger-wolf. This creature, it is true, is obliged to give information against itself; but on the other hand, is actually possessed of the peculiar gift of being enabled, in some measure, to imitate the cries of other animals; by which means this artful deceiver is sometimes lucky enough to beguile and attract calves, foals, lambs, and other animals. Near some of the larger farms, where there is a great deal of cattle, this ravenous beast is to be found

white, shorter and more bushy than that of the common fox, to which it is about one third superior in size. It has much the habit of the wolf, in ears, tail, and strength of limbs. Hence the French name, *loup-renard*, or wolf-fox. It may be a wolf degenerated by climate. The largest are those of Senegal: the next are the European: those of North America are still smaller. The Mexican wolves, (N° xiii.) which Mr Pennant apprehends to be this species, are again less; and this, which inhabits the Falkland isles, near the extremity of South America, is dwindled to the size described. This is the only land animal of those distant isles: it has a fetid smell, and barks like a dog. It lives near the shores; kennels like a fox; and forms regular paths from bay to bay, probably for the conveniency of surprising the water-fowl, on which it lives. It is at times very meagre, from want of prey; and is extremely tame. The islands were probably stocked with those animals by means of masses of ice broken from the continent, and carried by the currents.

ix. *CANIS KARAGAN*, or DESERT FOX, is thus described by Mr Kerr: "The tail is straight; the body is of a grey colour, and the ears are black. It inhabits the deserts belonging to the Kalmucks and Kirgises."

x. *CANIS LAGOPUS*, the arctic fox, has a sharp nose; short rounded ears, almost hid in the fur; long and soft hair, somewhat woolly; short legs; toes covered on all parts, like that of a common hare, with fur; tail short and more bushy than that of the common fox, of a blueish grey or ash colour, sometimes white: the young of the grey are black before they come to maturity: the hair much longer in winter than summer; as is usual with animals of cold climates. It inhabits the countries bordering on the Frozen Sea; Kamtschatka; the isles between it and America, and the opposite parts of America discovered in captain Bering's expedition, in 1741; and is found in Greenland, Iceland, Spitzbergen, Nova Zembla, and Lapland. It burrows under ground, forms holes many feet in length, and strews the bottom with moss. In Greenland and Spitzbergen it lives in the clefts of rocks, not being able to burrow, by reason of the frost: 2 or 3 pair inhabit the same hole. They are in heat about Lady-day; and during that time they continue in the open air, but afterwards take to their holes. They go with young 9 weeks: like dogs, they continue united in copulation: they bark like that animal, for which reason the Russians call them *pesetsi*, or dogs. They have all the cunning of the common fox; prey on geese, ducks and other water fowl, before they can fly: on grouse, hares, and the eggs of birds; and in Greenland (through necessity) on berries, shell fish, or any thing the sea throws up. But their principal food in the N. of Asia and in Lapland is the leming, or Lapland marmot: those of the countries last mentioned are very migratory, pursuing the leming, which is a wandering animal: sometimes these foxes will desert the country for 3 or 4 years, probably in pursuit of their prey; for it is well known that the migrations of the leming are very inconstant, it appearing in some countries once in several years. The people of Jenesea say they go to the banks of the Oby. Their

chief rendezvous is on the banks of the Frozen Sea, and the rivers that flow into it, where they are found in great troops. The Greenlanders take them either in pitfalls dug in the snow, and baited with the capelin fish; or in springs made with whalebone, laid over a hole made in the snow, strewed over at bottom with the same kind of fish; or in traps made like little huts, with flat stones, with a broad one by way of door, which falls down (by means of a string baited on the inside with a piece of flesh) whenever the fox enters and pulls at it. The Greenlanders preserve the skins for traffic; and in cases of necessity eat the flesh. They also make buttons of the skins: and split the tendons, and make use of them instead of thread. Mr Kerr mentions two varieties: viz.

1. *CANIS LAGOPUS ALBUS*, the ISATIS, or white arctic fox: and

2. *CANIS LAGOPUS CÆRULESCENS*, the bluish arctic fox. The furs of these are more esteemed than those of the white.

xi. 1. *CANIS LUPUS*, the WOLF, has a long head, pointed nose, ears erect and sharp, long legs well clothed with hair; tail bushy and bending down, with the tip black; head and neck ash coloured; body generally pale brown tinged with yellow, sometimes found white, and sometimes entirely black. The wolf is larger and fiercer than a dog. His eyes sparkle, and there is a great degree of fury and wildness in his looks. He draws up his claws when he walks, to prevent his tread from being heard. His neck is short, but admits of very quick motion to either side. His teeth are large and sharp; and his bite is terrible, as his strength is great. The wolf, cruel, but cowardly and suspicious, flies from man; and seldom ventures out of the woods, except pressed by hunger: but when this becomes extreme, he braves danger, and will attack men, horses, dogs, and cattle of all kinds; even the graves of the dead are no proof against his rapacity. Unlike the dog, he is an enemy to all society, and keeps no company even with those of his own species. When several wolves appear together, it is not a society of peace, but of war; it is attended with tumult and dreadful prowlings, and indicates an attack upon some large animal, as a stag, an ox, or a formidable mastiff. This military expedition is no sooner finished than they separate, and each returns in silence to his solitude. There is even little intercourse between the males and females: they feel the mutual attractions of love but once a year, and never remain long together. The females come in season in winter: many males follow the same female; and this association is more bloody than the former; for they growl, clank, fight, and tear one another, and often sacrifice him that is preferred by the female. The female commonly flies a long time, fatigues her admirer, and retires while they sleep, with the most art or most favourite male. The season of love continues only 12 or 15 days; it commences with the oldest females; the young ones are not so early disposed. The males have no marked period, but are equally ready at all times. They go from female to female, according as they are in a condition to receive them. They begin with the old females about the end of December, and finish

with the young ones in February or beginning of March. The time of gestation is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ months; and young whelps are found from the end of April to the month of July. The wolves copulate like the dogs, and have an offensive penis, surrounded with a ring, which swells and hinders them from separating. When the females are about to bring forth they search for a concealed place in the inmost recesses of the forest. After fixing on the spot, they make it smooth and plain for a considerable space, by cutting and tearing up with their teeth all the brambles and brush-wood. They then bring great quantities of moss, and prepare a commodious bed for their young, which are generally 5 or 6, though sometimes they bring forth 7, 8, and even 9, but never less than three. They come into the world blind, like the dogs; the mother suckles them some weeks, and soon learns them to eat flesh, which she prepares for them by tearing it into small pieces. Some time after she brings them field mice, young hares, partridges, and other fowls. The young wolves begin by playing with these animals, and at last worry them; then the mother pulls off the feathers, tears them in pieces, and gives a part to each of her young. They never leave their den till the end of six weeks or two months. They then follow their mother, who leads them to drink in the hollow trunk of a tree, or in some neighbouring pool. She conducts them back to the den, or, when any danger is apprehended, obliges them to conceal themselves elsewhere. Though, like other females, the she wolf is naturally more timid than the male; yet when her young are attacked, she defends them with intrepidity; she loses all sense of danger, and becomes perfectly furious. She never leaves them till their education is finished, till they are so strong as to need no assistance or protection, and have acquired talents fit for rapine, which generally happens in 10 or 12 months after their first teeth (which commonly fall out in the first month) are replaced. Wolves acquire their full growth at the end of 2 or 3 years, and live 15 or 20 years. When old, they turn whitish, and their teeth are much worn. When full, or fatigued, they sleep, but more during the day than the night, and it is always a kind of slight slumber. They drink often; and, in the time of drought, when there is no water in the hollows, or in the trunks of old trees, they resort, several times in a day, to the brooks or rivers. Though extremely voracious, if supplied with water, they can pass 4 or 5 days without meat. The wolf has great strength, especially in the anterior parts of the body, in the muscles of the neck and jaws. He carries a sheep in his mouth, and, at the same time, outruns the shepherd; so that he can only be stopped or deprived of his prey by dogs. His bite is cruel, and always more obstinate in proportion to the smallness of the resistance; for when an animal can defend itself, he is cautious and circumspect. He never fights but from necessity, and not from motives of courage. When wounded with a ball, he cries; and yet, when dispatching him with bludgeons, he complains not. When he falls into a snare, he is so overcome with terror, that he may either be killed or taken alive without resistance: he allows him-

self to be chained, muzzled, and led any where, without exhibiting the least symptom of resentment or discontent. The senses of the wolf are excellent, but particularly his sense of smelling, which often extends farther than his eye. The odour of carrion strikes him at the distance of more than a league. He likewise scents live animals very far, and hunts them a long time by following their track. When he issues from the wood, he never loses the wind. He stops upon the borders of the forest, smells on all sides, and receives the emanations of living or dead animals; brought to him from a distance by the wind. Though he gives the preference to living animals; yet he devours the most putrid carcases. He is fond of human flesh; and, if stronger, he would perhaps eat no other. Wolves have been known to follow armies, to come in troops to the field of battle, where bodies are carelessly interred, to tear them up, and to devour them with an insatiable avidity. And, when once accustomed to human flesh, these wolves ever after attack men, prefer the shepherd to the flock, devour women, and carry off children. Wolves of this vicious disposition are called *Léups garoux* by the French peasants, who suppose them to be possessed with some evil spirits; and of this nature were the *were-wolfs* of the old Saxons. The wolf inhabits the continents of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America; Kamtschatka, and even as high as the arctic circle. The wolves of North America are the smallest; and, when reclaimed, are the dogs of the natives: the wolves of Senegal are the largest and fiercest; they prey in company with the lion. Those of the Cape are grey striped with black; others are black. They are found in Africa as low as the Cape; and are believed to inhabit New Holland, animals resembling them having been seen there by the late circumnavigators. Dampier's people also saw some half-starved animals in the same country, which they supposed to be wolves. In the east, and particularly in Persia, wolves are exhibited as spectacles to the people. When young, they are learned to dance, or rather to perform a kind of wrestling with a number of men. Charadin tells us, that a wolf, well educated in dancing, is sold at 500 French crowns. This fact proves, that these animals, by time and restraint, are susceptible of some kind of education. M. Buffon brought up several of them: "When young, or during the first year, (he informs us,) they are very docile, and even caressing; and, if well fed, neither disturb the poultry nor any other animal: but, at the age of 18 months or two years, their natural ferocity appears, and they must be chained, to prevent them from running off and doing mischief. I brought up one till the age of 18 or 19 months, in a court along with fowls, none of which he ever attacked; but, for his first essay, he killed the whole in one night, without eating any of them. Another, having broken his chain, run off, after killing a dog with whom he had lived in great familiarity." Whole countries are sometimes obliged to arm, in order to destroy the wolves. See HUNTING. Wolves are now so rare in the populated parts of America, that the inhabitants leave their sheep the whole night unguarded: yet the governments of Pennsylvania and New

Jersey some years ago allowed a reward of 20 sh. and the last even 30 sh. for the killing of every wolf. Tradition informed them what a scourge those animals had been to the colonies; so they wisely determined to prevent the like evil. In their infant state, wolves came down in multitudes from the mountains, often attracted by the smell of the corpses of hundreds of Indians who died of the small-pox, brought among them by the Europeans: but the animals did not confine their depredations to the dead, but even devoured in their huts the sick and dying savages. Besides being hunted, wolves are destroyed by pitfalls, traps, or poison. A peasant in France who kills a wolf, carries its head from village to village, and collects some small reward from the inhabitants: the Kirghis-Cossacks take the wolves by the help of a large hawk called *berkut*, which is trained for the diversion, and will fasten on them and tear out their eyes. Britain, a few centuries ago, was much infested by them. It was, as appears by Hollinghed, very noxious to the flocks in Scotland in 1577; nor was it entirely extirpated till about 1680, when the last wolf fell by the hand of the famous Sir Ewen Cameron. We may therefore with confidence assert the non-existence of these animals, in our island, notwithstanding Buffon maintains that the English pretend to the contrary. It has been a received opinion, that the other parts of these kingdoms were in early times delivered from this pest by the care of king Edgar. In England he attempted to effect it, by commuting the punishments of certain crimes into the acceptance of a certain number of wolves tongues from each criminal; and in Wales by converting the tax of gold and silver into an annual tax of 200 wolves heads. But, notwithstanding these his endeavours, and the assertions of some authors, his scheme proved abortive. We find, that some centuries after the reign of that monarch, these animals were increased to such a degree as to become again the object of royal attention; accordingly Edward I. issued out his royal mandate to Peter Corbet to superintend and assist in the destruction of them in the several counties of Gloucester, Worcester, Hereford, Salop, and Stafford; and in the adjacent county of Derby, (as Camden, p. 902, informs us,) certain persons at Wormhill held their lands by the duty of hunting and taking the wolves that infested the country, whence they were styled *wolfe-bunt*. Farther back, in Athelstan's reign, wolves abounded so much in Yorkshire, that a retreat was built at Flixton in that county, "to defend passengers from the wolves, that they should not be devoured by them:" and such ravages did those animals make during winter, particularly in January, when the cold was severest, that the Saxons distinguished that month by the name of the WOLF MONTH. They also called an outlaw *wolf's-head*, as being out of the protection of the law, proscribed, and as liable to be killed as that destructive beast. Ireland was infested by wolves for many centuries after their extinction in England; for there are accounts of some being found there as late as 1710, the last presentment for killing of wolves being made in the county of Cork about that time. In many parts of Sweden the number of

wolves has been considerably diminished by placing poisoned carcasses in their way: but in other places they are found in great multitudes. Hunger sometimes compels them to eat lichens: these vegetables were found in the body of one killed by a soldier; but it was so weak, that it could scarcely move. It probably had fed on the *bellum vulpinus*, which is a known poison to these animals. Madness, in certain years, is apt to seize the wolf. The consequences are often very melancholy. Mad wolves will bite hogs and dogs, and the last again the human species. In a single parish 14 persons were victims to this dreadful malady. The symptoms are the same with those attendant on the bite of a mad dog. Fury sparkles in their eyes; a glutinous saliva distils from their mouths; they carry their tails low, and bite differently men and beasts. It is remarkable that this disease happens in the depth of winter, so can never be attributed to the rage of the dog-days. Often, towards spring, wolves get upon the ice of the sea, to prey on the young seals, which they catch asleep: but this repast often proves fatal to them; for the ice, detached from the shore, carries them to a great distance from land, where they are sensible of it. In some years a large district is by this means delivered from these pernicious beasts; which are heard howling in a most dreadful manner, far in the sea. When wolves come to make their attack on cattle, they never fail attempting to frighten away the men by their cries; but the sound of the horn makes them fly like lightning. There is nothing valuable in the wolf but his skin, which makes a warm durable fur. His flesh is so bad, that it is rejected with abhorrence by all other quadrupeds; and no animal but a wolf will voluntarily eat a wolf. The smell of his breath is exceedingly offensive. As, to appease hunger, he swallows indiscriminately every thing he can find, corrupted flesh, bone, hair, skins half tanned and covered with lime, he vomits frequently, and empties himself oftener than he fills. In fine, the wolf is consummately disagreeable; his aspect is base and savage, his voice dreadful, his odour insupportable, his disposition perverse, his manners ferocious; odious and destructive when living, and, when dead, he is perfectly useless, except the fur. Mr Kerr enumerates other 4 varieties of this species: viz.

2. CANIS LUPUS ALBUS, the white wolf, found near the Jenisea, in the eastern parts of Asia and Russia. It is much valued on account of its fur.

3. CANIS LUPUS FASCIATUS, the striped wolf. It is of a grey colour striped with black, and inhabits the Cape of Good Hope.

4. CANIS LUPUS FLAVUS, the yellow wolf, found in France and Germany, having a thicker fur and more yellow colour than the common kind. It is more wild, but less destructive, as it never troubles the flocks, or the habitations of men.

5. CANIS LUPUS NIGER, the black wolf. This variety inhabits Canada, and is of a uniform black colour. It is not so large as the common kind; the ears are larger, more erect and more distant, but in every other circumstance it resembles the common European wolf.

6. CANIS MESOMELAS, the caracou of Schre-

er. the *TSULIE*, or *koulie*, of the Hottentots, or *APPE JACKAL*, has erect yellowish brown ears, lined with a few scattered black hairs: the head of a yellowish brown, mixed with black and white, growing darker towards the hind part: the legs are of a light brown, varied with dusky hairs: the body and also the back part of the legs are of yellowish brown, lightest on the body; the throat, neck, and belly white. On the neck, shoulders, and back, is a band of black; broad on the shoulders, and growing narrower to the tail: when the hairs are smooth, the part on the neck seems barred with white; that on the shoulders with white and black marks, one within the other, the end pointing to the back: when the hairs are rustled, these marks vanish, or grow less distinct, and a hoariness appears in their stead. The tail is bushy, of yellowish brown; marked on the upper part with a longitudinal stripe of black, and towards the end encircled with two rings of black, and is set with white. In length, the animal is 2½ feet, to the origin of the tail: the tail is one foot. It inhabits the countries about the Cape of Good Hope, and probably is found as high as the line.

xiii. *CANIS MEXICANUS*, has a smooth tail, bent downwards. The body is ash coloured, variegated with dusky stripes and tawny spots, on the forehead, neck, breast, belly, and tail. Its head is large, and neck thick. It has great jaws and strong teeth. Above its mouth are bristles as long, but not so hard, as the spines of a hedgehog. Seba calls it the *QUATREPOURTE*, or mountain cat; and Hernandez calls it the *NOTORREXINTE*, or Mexican wolf. It inhabits the warm parts of Mexico and New Spain, and agrees with the European wolf in its manners; whence it is called *LUPUS*, though ranked as a different species. Mr Kerr mentions another variety, viz. *CANIS MEXICANUS ALBUS*, the white Mexican wolf; agreeing in every thing with the preceding except that it is uniformly white.

xiv. *CANIS THOUS*, or the Surinam wolf, has a smooth tail bent downwards. The body is grey on the upper and white on the under parts. Its head has a wart over each eye, on each cheek and under the throat. It is about the size of a large dog; and, according to Linnaeus, is found at Surinam. It is mentioned also by Mr Pennant. Mr Kerr says, its tongue is fringed at the sides.

xv. *CANIS VIRGINIANUS*, the GREY FOX, of Kentucky, &c. has a sharp nose; sharp, long, upright ears; legs long; colour grey, except a little whiteness about the ears. It inhabits Carolina, and the warmer parts of North America: It differs from the arctic fox in form, and the nature of its dwelling agrees with the common fox in the first, it varies from it in the last: It never burrows, but lives in hollow trees; it gives no diversion to the sportsman; for after a mile's chase, it takes to its retreat; it has no strong smell; it feeds on poultry, birds, &c. These foxes are easily made tame; their skins, when in season, are used of for muffs.

xvi. *CANIS VULPES*, the FOX, has a straight tail, white at the point. His body is yellowish, or rather straw-coloured; his ears are small and erect; his lips are whitish, and his fore feet black. From the base of the tail a strong scent is emitted, which to some people is very fragrant, and to o-

thers extremely disagreeable. The fox is a native of almost every quarter of the globe, and is of such a wild and savage nature, that it is impossible fully to tame him. He is esteemed to be the most sagacious and the most crafty of all beasts of prey. The former quality he shows in his method of providing himself with an asylum, where he retires from pressing dangers, dwells, and brings up his young: and his craftiness is chiefly discovered by the schemes he falls upon to catch lambs, geese, hens, and all kinds of small birds. The fox fixes his abode on the border of the wood, in the neighbourhood of cottages: he listens to the crowing of the cocks and the cries of the poultry. He scents them at a distance; he chooses his time with judgment; he conceals his road as well as his design; he slips forward with caution, sometimes even trailing his body, and seldom makes a fruitless expedition. If he can leap the wall, or get in underneath, he ravages the court yard, puts all to death, and then retires softly with his prey, which he either hides under the herbage, or carries off to his kennel. He returns in a few minutes for another, which he carries off, or conceals in the same manner, but in a different place. In this way he proceeds till the progress of the sun, or some movement in the house, advertises him that it is time to retire to his den. He plays the same game with the catchers of thrushes, woodcocks, &c. He visits the nets and bird-lime very early in the morning, carries off successively the birds which are entangled, and lays them in different places, especially near the sides of highways, in the furrows, under the herbage or brushwood, where they sometimes lie 2 or 3 days; but he knows perfectly where to find them when he is in need. He hunts the young hares in the plains, seizes old ones in their seats, never misses those which are wounded, digs out the rabbits in the warrens, discovers the nests of partridges and quails, seizes the mothers on the eggs, and destroys a vast quantity of game. The fox is exceedingly voracious; besides flesh of all kinds, he eats, with equal avidity, eggs, milk, cheese, fruits, and particularly grapes. When the young hares and partridges fail him, he makes war against rats, field mice, serpents, lizards, toads, &c. Of these he destroys vast numbers; and this is the only service he does to mankind. He is so fond of honey, that he attacks the wild bees, wasps, and hornets. They at first put him to flight by a thousand stings; but he retires only for the purpose of rolling himself on the ground to crush them; and he returns so often to the charge, that he obliges them to abandon the hive, which he soon uncovers, and devours both the honey and wax. In a word, he eats fish, lobsters, grass-hoppers, &c. The fox is not easily, and never fully tamed: he languishes when deprived of liberty; and, if kept too long in a domestic state, he dies of chagrin. Foxes produce but once a year; and the litter commonly consists of 4 or 5, seldom 6, and never less than 3. When the female is full, she retires, and seldom goes out of her hole, where she prepares a bed for her young. She comes in season in the winter; and young foxes are found in the month of April. When she perceives that her retreat is discovered, and

that her young have been disturbed, she carries them off one by one, and goes in search of another habitation. The young are brought forth blind; like the dogs, they grow 18 months, or two years, and live 13 or 14 years.—The senses of the fox are as good as those of the wolf; his sentiment is more delicate; and the organs of his voice are more pliant and perfect. The wolf sends forth only frightful howlings; but the fox barks, yelps, and utters a mournful cry like that of the peacock. He varies his tones according to the different sentiments with which he is affected: he has an accent peculiar to the chase, the tone of desire, of complaint, and of sorrow. He has another cry expressive of acute pain, which he utters only when he is shot, or has some of his members broken; for he never complains of any other wound, and, like the wolf, may be beat till he is killed with a bludgeon without complaining; but he always defends himself to the last with great courage and bravery. His bite is obstinate and dangerous; and the severest blows will hardly make him quit his hold. His yelping is a species of barking, and consists of a quick succession of similar tones; at the end of which he generally raises his voice similar to the cry of the peacock. In winter, particularly during frost, he yelps perpetually; but, in summer, he is almost entirely silent, and, during this season, he casts his hair. He sleeps sound, and may be easily approached without waking: he sleeps in a round form, like the dog; but, when he only reposes himself, he extends his hind legs, and lies on his belly. It is in this situation that he spies the birds along the hedges, and meditates schemes for their surprise. The fox flies when he hears the explosion of a gun, or smells gun powder. He is exceedingly fond of grapes, and does much mischief in vineyards. Various methods are daily employed to destroy foxes: they are hunted with dogs; iron traps are frequently set at their holes; which are sometimes smoked to make them run out, that they may fall into the snares, or be killed by dogs or fire arms. The chase of the fox requires less apparatus, and is more amusing than that of the wolf. To the latter every dog has great reluctance: but all dogs hunt the fox spontaneously and with pleasure; for, though his odour be strong, they often prefer him to the stag or the hare. See HUNTING. Of all animals the fox has the most significant eye, by which it expresses every passion of love, fear, hatred, &c. He is remarkably playful; but, like all savage creatures half reclaimed, will on the least offence bite those he is most familiar with. He is a great admirer of his bushy tail, with which he frequently amuses and exercises himself, by running in circles to catch it: and in cold weather, wraps it round his nose. The smell of this animal is in general very strong, but that of the urine is remarkably fetid. This seems so offensive even to himself, that he will take the trouble of digging a hole in the ground, stretching his body at full length over it; and there, after depositing his water, cover it over with the earth, as the cat does its dung. The smell is so obnoxious, that it has often proved the means of the fox's escape from the dogs; who have so strong an aversion at the filthy effluvia, as

to avoid encountering the animal it came from. It is said that the fox makes use of its urine as an expedient to force the cleanly badger from its habitation: whether that is the means, is rather doubtful; but that the fox makes use of the badger's hole is certain: not through want of ability to form its own retreat, but to save itself from trouble; for after the expulsion of the first inhabitant, the fox improves as well as enlarges it considerably, adding several chambers, and presently making several entrances to secure a retreat from every quarter. In warm weather, it quits its habitation for the sake of basking in the sun, or to enjoy the free air; but then it rarely lies exposed, but chooses some thick brake, that it may rest secure from surprize. Crows, magpies, and other birds, who consider the fox as their common enemy, will often, by their notes of anger, point out its retreat.—The skin of this animal is furnished with a warm soft fur, which in many parts of Europe is used to make muffs and to line clothes. Vast numbers are taken in the Vallais, and the Alpine parts of Switzerland. At Lausanne there are furriers who are often in possession of between 2000 and 3000 skins, all taken in one winter. There are several varieties of the fox, differing either in colour or form: viz.

2—4. *CANIS VULPES ALOPEX*, the brant fox, or field fox of Linnæus, considered by him as a distinct species, has a straight tail, with a black tip, and a blackish fur, thicker than that of the common kind. Mr Kerr says, it “inhabits Europe, Asia, and Chili, and is less frequent, smaller, and of a darker colour, than the common fox to which it is very similar in all other respects.—That described by Mr Pennant came from Pennsylvania. Authors do not seem properly agreed about the animal to which this name is given. At least the *coal fox* of Buffon and the *brand fox* of Pennant are considerably different, though quoted by Gmelin as synonymous.” They are therefore added as sub varieties.

a. *CANIS VULPES ALOPEX AMERICANUS*, the brant fox, as described by Gmelin and Linnæus, is of a fiery redness; and called by the *brand fuchs*, by the last *brandraef*; it is scarcely the size of the common fox: the nose is black and much sharper; the space round the ears is ruginous; the forehead, back, shoulders, thighs and sides black mixed with red, ash-colour, &c. black; the belly yellowish; the tail black above red beneath, and cinereous on its side. It is native of Pennsylvania.

b. *CANIS VULPES ALOPEX EUROPEUS*, the *CHARBONNIER*, or coal fox of Buffon, has remarkably black feet and legs, and inhabits the part of France formerly called Burgundy. It is of a silver grey colour, and has the tail tip white.

5—7. *CANIS VULPES BRITANNICUS*. There are three sub-varieties of foxes found in the mountainous parts of Britain, which differ a little in form, but not in colour, from each other. They are distinguished in Wales by as many different names. a. The *milgi*, or *grey-bound fox*, is the largest, tallest, and boldest; and will attack a grown sheep or wether: b. The *massiff fox* is less, but more strongly built: c. The *corgi*, or *car fox* is the

it; lurks about hedges, out-houses, &c. and is the most pernicious of the three to the feathered tribe. The first of these varieties has a white tip to the tail; the last a black. When started, they never run directly forward, but make great many doublings and turnings; and when in danger of being taken, they emit such a smell from their posteriors, that the hunters can hardly endure it.

8. *CANIS VULPES CHILENSIS*, inhabits Chili, and has a very long, straight and smooth tail, with the tip of the same colour with the body.

9. *CANIS VULPES CORSAC*, the corsac fox, has upright ears, soft downy hair, tail bushy, colour in summer pale tawney, in winter grey; the tip and tip of the tail black. It is small and inhabits the deserts beyond the Yaik: lives in holes, owls and barks, and is caught by the Kirgis haitlacks with falcons and grey hounds: 40 or 5000 are annually taken, and sold to the Russians, at the rate of 40 kopeiks, or 20 pence, each: the former use their skins instead of money: great numbers are sent into Turkey.

10. *CANIS VULPES CRUCIGERA*, the cross fox, with a black mark passing transversely from the shoulder to the shoulder, and another along the back to the tail. It inhabits the coldest parts of Europe, Asia, and North America: a valuable fur, thicker and softer than the common sort; great numbers of the skins are imported from Canada. Dr Gmelin does not take notice of this variety.

11. *CANIS VULPES LYCAON*, the black fox, is the most cunning of the genus, and its skin the most valuable; a lining of it is, in Russia, esteemed preferable to the finest fables: a single skin will sell for 400 rubles. It inhabits the northern parts of Europe, Asia, and North America. The last is inferior in goodness. Mr Kerr says "this animal is exceedingly like the wolf, and is of an intermediate size between that animal and the fox. The colour is entirely black—sometimes, however, variegated by having the tips of the hairs of a silvery whiteness. Dr Gmelin confounds this species of fox with the black wolf, § xi. N° 5.

(II.) *CANIS CARCHARIAS*, in ichthyology, a name given by Rondeletius, and others, to the *AMIA*, or white shark.

(III.) *CANIS MAJOR*, the great dog, in astronomy, a constellation of the southern hemisphere, below Orion's feet, though somewhat to the westward of him. See *ASTRONOMY*, § 548.

(IV.) *CANIS MINOR*, the little dog, in astronomy, a constellation of the northern hemisphere; called also by the Greeks, *Procyon*, and by the Latins *Antecanis* and *Canicula*. See *ASTRONOMY*, § 548.

(V.) *CANIS VOLANS*, in zoology, a species of bat, distinguished by Linnaeus by the name of *Vespertilio cauda nulla*, the bat without a tail. See *VESPERTILIO*.

CANISBAY, a parish of Scotland, in Caithness-shire, the most northern land in Britain, containing an extent of above 50 square miles. It is mostly level ground. The climate is variable, but very healthy. The aurora borealis is often seen in great brilliancy, exhibiting the most vivid corrufcations. The population, in 1793, as stated by

the rev. Dr Morison, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1950, and had increased 469, since 1755. The number of sheep was 2000, but the parish could feed a vast number more. It abounds in excellent lime-stone and free-stone. *JOHN O'GROAT'S HOUSE* is situated in it. The shores of Canisbay are exceedingly valuable; yielding about 100 tons of kelp in a favourable season. There are about 60 fishing boats around the coast, and fish of all kinds are very abundant, particularly lobsters. Lon. 2. 0. W. Lat. 58. 45. N.

CANISIUS, Henry, a native of Nimeguen, and one of the most learned men of his time, was professor of canon law at Ingolstadt; and wrote a great number of books; the principal of which are, 1. *Summa Juris Canonici*. 2. *Antiquæ lectiones*, a very valuable work. He died in 1609.

* *CANISTER*. *n. f.* [*canistrum*, Lat.] 1. A small basket.—

White lilies in full *canisters* they bring,
With all the glories of the purple spring.

Dryden.

2. A small vessel in which any thing, such as tea or coffee, is laid up.

CANITZ, the baron of, a German poet and statesman, of an illustrious family in Brandenburg; born at Berlin in 1654, 5 months after his father's death. He travelled to France, Italy, Holland, and England; and upon his return, was charged with important negotiations by Frederic II. and Frederic III. Canitz was conversant in many languages, dead as well as living. His German poems were published for the 10th time, 1750, in 8vo. He is said to have taken Horace for his model. But he did not content himself with barely cultivating the fine arts himself; he gave all the encouragement he could to them in others. He died at Berlin, in 1699, privy counsellor of state, aged 45.

CANK, or *CANNOCK*, a village in Staffordshire, near Penkridge.

CANKEDORT, *n. f. obs.* a deplorable case. *C.*

(1.) * *CANKER*. *n. f.* [*cancer*, Lat. It seems to have the same meaning and original with *cancer*, but to be accidentally written with a *k*, when it denotes bad qualities in a less degree; or, *canker* might come from *chancre*, Fr. and *cancer* from the Latin.] 1. A worm that preys upon and destroys fruits.—

And loathful idleness he doth detest,

The *canker* worm of every gentle breast. *Spenser.*
—That which the locust hath left hath the *canker* worm eaten. *Joel*, i. 4.—

Yet writers say, as in the sweetest bud

The eating *canker* dwells; so eating love
Inhabits in the finest wits of all. *Shakesp.*

A huffing, shining, flatt'ring, cringing coward,
A *canker* worm of peace, was rais'd above him.

Otway.

2. A fly that preys upon fruits.—There be of flies, caterpillars, *canker* flies, and bear flies. *Walton's Angler.* 3. Any thing that corrupts or consumes.—It is the *canker* and ruin of many men's estates, which, in process of time, breeds a publick poverty. *Bacon.*—Sacrilege may prove an eating *canker*, and a consuming moth, in the estate that we leave them. *Atterbury.*—

No

No longer live the *cankers* of my court;
All to your several states with speed resort;
Waste in wild riot what your land allows,
There ply the early feast, and late carouse. *Pope.*

4. A kind of wild worthless rose; the dogrose.—
To put down Richard, that sweet lovely rose,
And plant this thorn, this *canker*. *Bolingbroke.*

Shakespeare.

—Draw a cherry with the leaf, the shaft of a
spleen, a single or *canker* rose. *Peacham.* 5. An
eating or corroding humour.—

I am not glad, that such a fore of time
Should seek a plaister by a contemn'd revolt,
And heal th' inveterate *canker* of one wound,
By making many. *Shakesf.*

6. Corrosion; virulence.—

As with age his body uglier grows,
So his mind with *cankers*. *Shakesf.*

7. A disease in trees. *DiH.*

(2.) *CANKER*, a disease incident to trees, pro-
ceeding chiefly from the nature of the soil. It
makes the bark rot and fall. If the canker be in
a bough, cut it off; in a large bough, at some dis-
tance from the stem; in a small one, close to it:
but for over hot strong ground, the ground is to
be cooled about the roots with pond mud and
cow dung.

(3.) *CANKER*, among farriers. See *FARRIERY*,
Index.

(1.) * *To CANKER*. *v. q.* [from the noun.] 1. To
corrupt; to corrode.—

Restore to God his due in tithe and time;
A tithe purloin'd, *cankers* the whole estate.

Herbert.

2. To infect; to pollute.—An honest man will
enjoy himself better in a moderate fortune, that
is gained with honour and reputation, than in an
overgrown estate, that is *cankered* with the acqui-
sitions of rapine and exaction. *Addison.*

(2.) * *To CANKER*. *v. n.* 1. To grow corrupt:
implying something venomous and malignant.—

That cunning architect of *canker'd* guile,
Whom princes late displeasure left in bands,
For falsed letters, and suborned wile. *T. Queen.*

I will lift the down trod Mortimer
As high i' th' air as this unthankful king,
As this ingrate and *canker'd* Bolingbroke. *Shakesf.*

Or what the cross dire looking planet smite,
Or hurtful worm with *canker'd* venom bite.

Milton.

To some new clime, or to thy native sky,
Oh! friendless and forsaken virtue, fly:
The Indian air is deadly to thee grown;
Deceit and *canker'd* malice rule thy throne. *Dryd.*

Let envious jealousy, and *canker'd* spright
Produce my actions to severest light,

And tax my open day, or secret night. *Prior.*

2. To decay by some corrosive or destructive
principle.—Silvering will sully and *canker* more
than gilding; which, if it might be corrected with
a little mixture of gold, will be profitable. *Bacon.*

* *CANKERBIT*. *particip. adj.* [from *canker*
and *bit*.] Bitten with an envenomed tooth.—

Know thy name is lost;

By treason's tooth bareknawn and *cankerbit*.

Shakespeare.

CANKER-WORM. See *SCARABÆUS*.

CANLEY, a hamlet of Stoneley, Warwicksh.

(1.) *CANNA*, in botany, *INDIAN FLOWERING
REED*; A genus of the monogynia order, belong-
ing to the monandria class of plants; and in the
natural method ranking under the 8th order, *Scit-
aminæ*. The corolla is erect, and divided into
6 parts, with a distinct lip, biparite and
back; the style lanceolate, and growing from the
corolla; the calyx is triphyllous. There are
species: viz.

1. *CANNA COCCINEA*, hath larger leaves than
any of the other 4 species, and the stalks rise
higher. The flowers are produced in large spikes,
and are of a bright crimson, or rather scarlet
colour.

2. *CANNA GLAUCA*, with a very large flower,
is a native of South America.

3. *CANNA INDICA*, or common broad-leaved
flowering cane, is a native of both Indies; the
habitants of the British islands in America call it
Indian shot, from the roundness and hardness of
the seeds. It has a thick, fleshy, tuberous root,
which divides into many irregular knobs; it
shoots out many large oval leaves, without order.
In their first appearance the leaves are like a twisted
horn; but afterwards expand, and are nearly
long, and 5 inches broad in the middle: they
gradually to both ends, and terminating in a point.
The stalks are herbaceous, rising 4 feet high, and
are encompassed by the broad leafy foot-stalks
of the leaves; at the upper part of the stalk the
flowers are produced in loose spikes, each being
first covered with a leafy hood, and turning to a
brown colour. The flowers are succeeded by a
spherical, oblong, rough, and crowned with the
cornered empalement of the flower which re-
mains. When the fruit is ripe, the capsule opens
lengthwise into 3 cells, filled with round, firm,
hard, and black seeds.

4. *CANNA LATIFOLIA*, with a pale red flower,
is a native of Carolina, and some other northern
provinces of America.

5. *CANNA LUTEA*, with obtuse oval leaves,
less common in America than the other sorts.
These plants must always be kept in pots of
earth, to be moved to shelter in winter. They
are propagated by seeds sown on a hot-bed in
spring; and in summer, when they are a little
advanced in growth, prick them separately in
pots of rich earth, plunging them also in the
bed, giving shade, water, and fresh air; to
last harden them by degrees, till they bear it.
In October they must be removed into a
stove.

(II.) *CANNA*, in the ancient pharmacy and
tany, denoted the *calamus aromaticus*, or, ac-
cording to others, *castia fissida*.

(III.) *CANNA* likewise denotes a sort of
measure, otherwise called by modern authors
CANE, by the Latins *CALAMUS*, and in Scripture
a reed.

CANNA MAJOR, } names given by some
CANNA MINOR, } mist to the greater and
smaller bones of the leg. See *ANATOMY*, § 137, and 138.

CANNABACEOUS, *adj.* hempen. *See*

* *CANNABINE*. *adj.* [*cannabinus*, Latin]
Hemp.

CANNABIS, in botany, *HEMP*; A genus
of the pentandria order, belonging to the class
of plants.

class of plants; and in the natural method ranked under the 3d order, Scabridæ. The calyx of the male is quinquepartite, with no corolla. In the female the calyx is monophyllous, entire, and gaping at the side; there is no corolla, but two styles; the fruit is a nut, bivalved, within the closed calyx. Of this there is but one species, viz.

CANNABIS SATIVA. It is propagated in the rich sunny parts of Lincolnshire in great quantities, for its bark, which is useful for cordage, cloth, &c. and the seeds abound with oil. Hemp is always sown on a deep, moist, rich, soil, such as is found in Holland, Lincolnshire, and the fens of the island of Ely, where it is cultivated to great advantage, but it might be in many other parts of England where there is a soil of the same kind; but it will not thrive on clayey or stiff cold land. The ground on which hemp is to be sown, should be well ploughed, and made very fine by harrowing. About the middle of April the seed may be sown; bushels is the usual allowance for an acre, but two are sufficient. In the choice of the seed, the heaviest and brightest coloured should be preferred; and particular care should be had to the kernel of the seed. For the greater certainty in this matter some of the seeds should be cracked, to see whether they have the germ or future plant perfect; for, in some places, the male plants are drawn out too soon from the female, *i. e.* before they have impregnated the female plants with the farina; in which case, though the seeds produced by these females may seem good to the eye, yet they will not grow; according to the doctrine of Linnaeus. See BOTANY, § 63—76. When the plants are come up, they should be hoed out in the same manner as turnips, leaving them two feet apart; observe also to cut down all the weeds, which, if well performed, and in dry weather, will destroy them. This crop, however, will require a second hoeing, in about six weeks after the first; and, if this is well performed, the crop will require no further care. The first season for pulling hemp is usually about the middle of August, when they begin to pull what they call the *male hemp*, being that which is composed of the male plants; but it would be much better to defer this for a fortnight or three weeks longer, until these male plants have fully shed their farina or dust, without which the seeds will prove only empty husks. These male plants decay soon after they have shed their farina. The second pulling is a little after Michaelmas, when the seeds are ripe. This is usually called *karle hemp*, and consists of the female plants which were left. This karle hemp is bound in bundles of a yard compass, according to the statute measure, which are laid in the sun for a few days to dry; and then it is packed up, or housed to keep it dry till the seed can be threshed out. An acre of hemp, on a rich soil, will produce near three quarters of seed, which, together with the unwrought hemp, is worth from L.6 to L.8. Hemp is esteemed very effectual for destroying weeds; but this it accomplishes by impoverishing the ground, and thus robbing them of their nourishment; so that a crop of it must not be repeated on the same spot. Some seeds of a large kind of hemp growing in China were lately sent by the East India Company to the

Society for the encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, who distributed them to the members, and other gentlemen who appeared likely to cultivate them; and from experiments made in consequence, the plant has been found to succeed perfectly in this climate. The first trials were rather unpromising, the hemp produced from the foreign seeds proving of very little value. But the rev. Dr Hinton of Northwold, who made the above trial in 1736, having accidentally saved some ripe seeds of that crop, sowed them in May 1787, on a spot of good land. They came up well, and attained as much perfection as ordinary hemp. The produce, when dressed, weighed at the rate of 95 lb. 7 lb. 12 oz. per acre, (being above 30 stone more, he says, than the usual crops of hemp in that neighbourhood;) and at the rate of 3 bushels 2 pecks and half a pint of seed per acre were saved. Dr Hinton supposes that the seeds brought from China failed principally, if not entirely, by having been two years old, at which age hemp-seed seldom vegetates. Now that it is found to ripen with us, fresh seeds can always be obtained. It will yet, however, require a few years to determine whether this species will continue to retain its great size, or will degenerate and become the common hemp of Europe. From the leaves of hemp pounded and boiled in the water, the natives of the East Indies prepare an intoxicating liquor of which they are very fond. The plant when fresh, has a rank narcotic smell; the water in which the stalks are soaked in order to separate the tough rind for mechanic uses, is said to be violently poisonous, and to produce its effects almost as soon as drunk. The seeds also have some smell of the herb, and their taste is unctuous and sweetish: they are recommended, boiled in milk, or triturated with water into an emulsion, against coughs, heat of urine, and the like. They are also said to be useful in incontinence of urine, and for restraining venereal appetites; but experience does not warrant their having any virtues of that kind.

CANNACORUS, in botany; a synonyme used by Tournefort, for the **CANNA**.

CANNÆ, in ancient geography, a town of Apulia, in the Adriatic, at the mouth of the river Aufidus, rendered famous by a terrible overthrow which the Romans received from the Carthaginians under Hannibal. The Roman consuls Æmilius Paulus and Terentius Varro, being authorized by the senate to quit the defensive plan, and take the chance of a battle, marched from Canusium, and encamped a few miles east, in two unequal divisions, with the Aufidus between them. In this position they meant to wait for an opportunity of engaging to advantage; but Hannibal, whole critical situation in a desolate country, without refuge or allies, could admit of no delay, found means to inflame the vanity of Varro by some trivial advantages in skirmishes between the light horse. Varro, elated with this success determined to bring matters to a speedy conclusion. The Romans were vastly superior in number to the Carthaginians; but the latter were superior in cavalry. The army of the former consisted of 87,000 men; that of the latter of 40,000 foot and 10,000 horse. Without entering into the particu-

culars of the battle, which is fully narrated by the Roman historians, it is sufficient to say, that, by Hannibal's wise distribution of his forces, the Romans were soon surrounded, and their numbers and bravery only served to render the slaughter more desperately bloody. The whole plain was at last covered with heaps of dead bodies, in so much that Hannibal himself, thinking the butchery too terrible, ordered his men to put a stop to it. There is a great disagreement among authors, as to the number of Romans killed and taken at the battle of Cannæ. According to Livy the republic lost 50,000 men, including the auxiliaries. According to Polybius, of 6000 Roman horse, only 70 escaped to Venusia with Varro, and 300 of the auxiliary horse; 70,000 of the Roman foot died on the field of battle, and 13,000 were made prisoners. According to Dionysius of Halicarnassus, of 6000 horse, only 370 escaped the general slaughter, and of 80,000 foot, 3000 only were left. The most moderate computation makes the number of Romans killed to amount to 45,000, among whom were Æmilius Paulus the consul, and the pro-consuls Servilius and Attilius. The scene of action is marked by the name of *Pezzo di Sangue*, the Field of Blood. These plains have more than once, since the Punic war, afforded room for men to murder each other. Melo of Bari, after raising the standard of revolt against the Greek emperors, and defeating their generals in several engagements, was at last routed here in 1019, by the Catapan Boianus. Out of 250 Norman adventurers, the flower of Melo's army, only 10 escaped the slaughter. In 1201, the Abp. of Palermo and his rebellious associates, who had taken advantage of the non-age of Frederick of Suabia, were cut to pieces at Cannæ by Walter de Brienne, sent by the Pope to defend the young king's dominions. The traces of this town are very faint, consisting of fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and underground granaries. It was destroyed the year before the battle; but being rebuilt, became an episcopal see in the infancy of Christianity. It was again ruined in the 6th century, but seems to have subsisted many ages later; for we read of its contending with Barietta for the territory, which till then had been enjoyed in common by them; and in 1284, Charles I. issued an edict for dividing the lands, to prevent all future litigation. The prosperity of the towns along the coast, which increased in wealth and population, by embarkations for the Crusades and by traffic, proved the annihilation of the great inland cities; and Cannæ was probably abandoned entirely before the end of the 13th century. Mr Walker seems to mistake it for CANUSIUM, as by a reference to CANOSA, he appears to reckon it the same with that modern town of Naples. The modern name of Cannæ, if it exists at all, is CANNE.

CANNARES, a nation of S. American Indians, in the province of Quito, in Peru.

CANNAT, ST, a town of France, in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, the ci-devant Provence.

CANNAY, one of the Western Isles of Scotland, S. W. of Sky. It is fertile and verdant; has vast ranges of basaltic pillars, rising above the other, from the sea, somewhat resembling

the Giant's Causeway in Ireland. See BASALTIC.

CANNE, a ruinous town in Naples, in the territory of Bari. See CANNÆ.

CANNEH. See CALNEH.

(1.) CANNEL, or CATNEL, a village in Suffolk, E. of Needwood forest.

(2.) CANNEL COAL. See AMPELITES, and CANAL COAL.

CANNEQUINS, in commerce, white cotton cloths brought from the East Indies. They are a proper commodity for trading on the coast of Guinea, particularly about the rivers Senegal and Gambia. They are folded square, and are about 8 ells long.

CANNES, a town of France, in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, and ci-devant province of Provence, on the coast of the Mediterranean, with a harbour and a castle. Lon. 5. 47. E. Lat. 43. 34. N.

CANNEVAROLA, a name given by Aldrovandus to the lesser reed sparrow. See FRINGILLA.

(1.) * CANNIBAL. *n. f.* An anthropophagus; a man-eater.—The *cannibals* themselves eat man's flesh, of those that die of themselves, but of such as are slain. *Bacon*.—They were little better than *cannibals*, who do hunt one another; and he that hath most strength and swiftness, doth eat and devour all his fellows. *Davies on Ireland*.—

It was my hint to speak,

Of the *cannibals* that each other eat;

The anthropophagi. *Shakespeare*.

The captive *cannibal*, oppress'd with chains,

Yet braves his foes, reviles, provokes, disdains;

Of nature fierce, untameable and proud;

He bids defiance to the gaping croud;

And spent at last, and speechless as he lies,

With fiery glances mocks their rage, and dies.

Granger.

—If an eleventh commandment had been given, Thou shalt not eat human flesh; would not the *cannibals* have esteemed it more difficult than all the rest? *Bentley*.

(2.) CANNIBALS. See ANTHROPOPHAGI.

* CANNIBALLY. *adv.* [from *cannibal*.] In the manner of a cannibal.—Before Coriolanus scotcht him and notcht him like a *cannibal*.—Had he been *cannibally* given, he might have trod ed, and eaten him too. *Shakespeare*.

CANNINGTON, a town in Somersetshire, 2 m. from Bridgewater.

CANNINGS, BISHOPS, near Devizes, Wilt.

CANNIONS, *n. f. obs.* a kind of boat hook.

* CANNIPERS. *n. f.* [corrupted from *callipers*, which see.] The square is taken by a hair of *cannipers*, or two rulers clapped to the side of a foot, measuring the distance between them. *Martin's Husbandry*.

(1.) CANNOCK, or CANNOT STONE, a sort of iron ore, in the Staffordshire mines, of which the coarsest metal is made.

(2.) CANNOCK. See CANR.

(1.) * CANNON. *n. f.* [*cannon*, Fr. from *canna*, Lat. a pipe, meaning a large tube.] 1. A great gun for battery. 2. A gun larger than can be managed by the hand. They are of so many sizes that they decrease in the bore from a ball of 48 pounds to a ball of 5 ounces.—

As cannons overcharg'd with double cracks,
So they redoubled strokes upon the foe.

Shakespeare.

—He hath left all the *cannon* he had taken; and now he sent all his great *cannon* to a garrison. *Clarendon*.—The making, or price, of these gunpowder instruments, is extremely expensive, as may be easily judged by the weight of their materials; a whole *cannon* weighing commonly 8000 pounds; a half *cannon* 5000; a culverin, 4500; a demi-culverin 3000; which, whether it be in iron or brass, must needs be very costly. *Wilkins*.

(2.) CANNON, is more accurately defined, a military engine for throwing balls, &c. by the help of GUNPOWDER. The invention of brass cannon, by Laney ascribed to J. Owen: he says, that they were first known in England, in 1535; but yet acknowledges, that, in 1346, there were four pieces of cannon in the English army, at the battle of Cressly, and that these were the first that were known in France. And Mézeray relates, that King Edward, by 5 or 6 pieces of cannon, struck terror into the French army, it being the first time they had seen any of these thundering machines; though others affirm that cannon were known also in France at the same time; but that the French king, in his hurry to attack the English, and in confidence of victory, left all his cannon behind him as useless incumbrances. See ARTILLERY, § 4 & 5. The Germans carry the invention farther back, and attribute it to Albertus Magnus, a Dominican monk, about A. D. 1250. Vossius rejects all these opinions, and finds cannon in China almost 1700 years ago. According to him, they were mounted by the emperor Kitey, A. D. 35. For further particulars of their history, parts, proportions, management, operation, and effects, see GUN and GUNNERY. For the casting of them, see FOUNDERY.

(3.) CANNON. See CANON, § 1. *de j.* 8.

(1.) CANNONADE, *n. f.* Cannon shot. *Bailey*.

(2.) CANNONADE, the application of artillery to the purposes of war, or the direction of its efforts against some distant object intended to be seized or destroyed, as a ship, battery, or fortress. See GUNNERY. As a large ship of war may be considered as a combination of floating batteries, it is evident, that the efforts of her artillery must be greatly superior to those of a fortress on the coast; that is to say, in general; because, on some particular occasions, her situation may be extremely dangerous, and her cannonading ineffectual. Her superiority consists in several circumstances, as the power of bringing her different batteries to converge to one point; of shifting the line of her attack so as to do the greatest possible execution against the enemy, or to lie where he will be the least exposed to his shot; and chiefly because, by employing a much greater number of cannon against a fort than it can possibly return, the impression of her artillery against stone-walls soon becomes decisive and irresistible. Besides these advantages in the attack, she is also greatly superior in point of defence; because the cannon-shot, passing with rapidity through her sides, seldom do any execution out of the line of their flight, or occasion much mischief by their splinters; whereas they very soon shatter and destroy

the faces of a parapet, and produce incredible havoc among the men by the fragments of the stones, &c. A ship may also retreat when she finds it too dangerous to remain longer exposed to the enemy's fire, or when her own fire cannot produce the desired effect. Finally, the fluctuating situation of a ship, and of the element on which she rests, renders the effects of bombs very uncertain, and altogether destroys the effect of the *ricochet* or rolling and bounding shot, which is so pernicious and destructive in a fortress or land engagement. The chief inconveniency to which a ship is exposed, on the contrary, is, that the low-laid cannon in a fort near the brink of the sea, may strike her repeatedly on or under the surface of the water, so as to sink her before her cannonade can have any considerably efficacy.

(1.) * To CANNONADE. *v. a.* [from *cannon*.] To fire upon with cannon.

(2.) * To CANNONADE. *v. n.* To play the great guns; to batter or attack with great guns.—Both armies *cannonaded* all the ensuing day. *Tatler*.

* CANNON-BALL. } CANNON-SHOT. *n. f.*

* CANNON-BULLET. } [from *cannon*, *ball*, *bullet*, and *shot*.] The balls which are shot from great guns.—He reckons those for wounds that are made by bullets, although it be a *cannon-shot*. *Wiseman's Surgery*.—Let a *cannon bullet* pass through a room, it must strike successively the two sides of the room. *Locke*.

CANNONBY, a village near Maryport, Cumberland.

CANNON-FROME, near Hereford.

* CANNONIER. *n. f.* [from *cannon*.] The engineer that manages the cannon.—

Give me the cups;

And let the kettle to the trumpets speak,

The trumpets to the *cannonier* without,

The cannons to the heav'ns, the heav'ns to earth. *Shakespeare.*

—A third was a most excellent *cannonier*, whose good skill did much endamage the forces of the king. *Harward*.

CANNONS, the name of 4 villages; viz. 1. in Essex, near Nettlewell: 2. in Middlesex, near Edgeware: 3. in the parish of Bantead, Surry: and 4. LITTLE CANNONS, in Shenley parish, Hertfordshire.

* CANNON-SHOT. See CANNON-BALL.

CANNONS-LIGH, a village in Devonshire, between Tiverton and Wellington.

* CANNOT. A word compounded of *can* and *not*: noting inability.—I *cannot* but believe many a child can tell so, long before he has an idea of infinity at all. *Locke*.

CANNOT STONE. See CANNOCK, N°. 1.

CANNULA, or CANULA, in surgery, a tube made of different metals, principally of silver and lead, but sometimes of iron. They are introduced into hollow ulcers, in order to facilitate a discharge of pus or any other substance; or into wounds, either accidental or artificial, of the large cavities, as the thorax or abdomen: they are used in the operation of bronchotomy; and, by some, after cutting for the stone, as a drain for urine. Other cannulas are used for introducing cauteries, either actual or potential, into hollow parts, in order to guard the parts adjacent to that

to be cauterized, from injury. They are of various figures; oval, round, and crooked.

(1.) CANO, a kingdom of Africa, in Negroland, bounded by Zaara on the N. by the river Niger on the S. the kingdom of Agades on the W. and that of Cassina on the E. Some of the inhabitants are herdsmen, and others till the ground and dwell in villages. It produces corn, rice, and cotton. It has many deserts, and mountains covered with woods, in which are wild citrons and lemon trees.

(2.) CANO, a town in the above kingdom, (N. 1.) The walls and houses are made of clay, and the principal inhabitants are merchants. Lon. 16. 18. E. Lat. 21. 5. N.

* CANOA. See CANOE.

CANOBIÀ, a town of Italy, in the Milanese, seated on the W. bank of Lago Maggiore, or the Greater Lake: 30 m. W. of Como. Lon. 8. 47. E. Lat. 45. 55. N.

CANOBUS. See CANOPUS, N° 3, and 4.

CANORS, [from *cenobium*, Lat. a monastery,] a parish of Scotland, in Dumfriesshire, on the borders of England, about 9 m. long from E. to W. and 6 broad from N. to S. containing 22,500 acres of ground, of which about 15,000 are arable. The climate is healthy, though wet, and the soil mostly light loam; affording early and plentiful crops. The parish abounds in woods, orchards, lime-stone, coal, and free-stone. It has been greatly improved within these 22 years, by the D. of Buccleugh, the proprietor; and the roads (formerly often impassable,) and bridges, are excellent. The population, in 1794, as stated by the rev. Mr Ruffel, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2725. It had increased no less than 992, since 1755. There were 407 horses; about 2500 sheep, 259 swine, and 1516 black cattle in the parish, in 1794.

(1.) * CANOE. CANOA. *n. f.* A boat made by cutting the trunk of a tree into a hollow vessel.—Others made rafts of wood, others devised the boat of one tree, called the *canoa*, which the Gauls, upon the Rhone, used in assisting the transportation of Hannibal's army. *Raleigh*.—In a war against Semiramis, they had 4000 monoxyla, or *canoes*, of one piece of timber. *Arbutnot on coins*.

(2.) CANOES are sometimes formed of several pieces of bark put together. Canoes are of various sizes, according to the uses for which they may be designed, or the countries wherein they are formed. The largest are made of the cotton tree; some of them will carry between 20 and 30 hogheads of sugar or molasses. Some are made to carry sail: and for this purpose are steeped in water till they become pliant; after which their sides are extended, and strong beams placed between them, on which a deck is afterwards laid that serves to support their sides. The other sorts very rarely carry sail, unless when going before the wind: their sails are made of short silk grass or rushes. They are commonly towed with paddles, which are pieces of light wood somewhat resembling a corn shovel; and, instead of rowing with it horizontally like an oar, they manage it perpendicularly. The small canoes are very narrow, having only room for one person in the stern, and seven or eight lengthwise. The

rowers, who are generally American Indians, are very expert in managing their paddles uniformly, and in balancing the canoes with their bodies: which would be difficult for a stranger to do, nor well accustomed soever to the conducting of European boats, because the canoes are extremely light, and liable to be overturned. The American Indians, when they are under the necessity of landing to avoid a water-fall, or of crossing the land from one river to another, carry their canoes on their heads, till they arrive at a place where they can launch them again. This is the general construction of canoes, and method of managing them: but some nations have vessels under this name, which differ considerably from these; as the inhabitants of Greenland, Hudson's bay, Otaheite, &c.

CANOGE, a town of Indostan Proper, on the W. bank of the Ganges, near its confluence with the Calini; 127 m. S. E. of Agra. Lon. 80. 13. E. Lat. 27. 3. N.

(I.) * CANON. *n. f.* [*canon*.] 1. A rule; a law.—The truth is, they are rules and *canons* of the law, which is written in all men's hearts; the church had for ever, no less than now, stood bound to observe them, whether the apostle had mentioned them, or no. *Hooker*.—His books are almost the very *canon* to judge both doctrine and discipline by. *Hooker*.—

Religious *canons*, civil laws are cruel;

Then what should war be? *Shakspeare*.

—*Canons* in logick are such as these: every part of a division, singly taken, must contain less than the whole; and a definition must be peculiar and proper to the thing defined. *Watts*. 2. The law made by ecclesiastical councils.—*Canon* law is that law, which is made and ordained in a general council, or provincial synod of the church.

Ayliffe.—These were looked on as lapsed persons, and great severities of penance were presented them, by the *canons* of Ancyra. *Stillingfleet*. 3. The books of Holy Scripture; or the great rule.

—*Canon* also denotes those books of Scripture, which are received as inspired and canonical, to distinguish them from either profane, apocryphal, or disputed books. Thus we say, that Genesis is part of the sacred *canon* of the Scripture. *Ayliffe*. 4. A dignitary in cathedral churches.—For deans and *canons*, or prebends, of cathedral churches, they were of great use in the church; they were to be of counsel with the bishop for his revenue, and for his government in causes ecclesiastical.

Bacon.—

Swift much admires the place and air,

And longs to be a *canon* there,

A *canon*! that's a place too mean:

No, doctor, you shall be a dean:

Two dozen *canons* round your stall,

And you the tyrant o'er them all. *Swift*.

5. *Canons Regular*. Such as are placed in monasteries. *Ayliffe*. 6. *Canons Secular*. Lay canons who have been, as a mark of honour, admitted into some chapters. 7. [Among chirurgens] An instrument used in sewing up wounds. *Diet.* 8. A large sort of printing letter, probably so called from being first used in printing a book of canons; or perhaps from its size, and therefore properly written *cannon*.

(II.) **CANON**, in an ecclesiastical sense, (§ I. *def.* 1.) is a rule, either of doctrine or discipline, enacted especially by a council, and confirmed by the authority of the sovereign. Canons are properly decisions of matters of religion; or regulations of the policy and discipline of a church, made by councils, either general, national, or provincial. Such are the canons of the council of Nice, or Trent, &c. There have been various collections of the canons of the Eastern councils; but 4 principal ones, each ampler than the preceding. The first, according to Usher, A. D. 380, contained only those of the first œcumenical council, and the first provincial ones: they were but 164 in number. To these, Dionysius Exiguus, in 520, added the 50 canons of the apostles, (see § V. N^o 2.) and those of the other general councils. The Greek canons in this 2d collection and with those of the council of Chalcedon; to which are subjoined those of the council of Sardica, and the African councils. The 4th and last collection comes down as low as the 2d council of Nice; and it is on this that Balsamon and Zonaras have commented.

(III.) **CANON**, (§ I. *def.* 3.) See BIBLE, § III. and VI. The ancient canon of the books of the Old Testament, ordinarily attributed to Ezra, was divided into the law, the prophets, and the *hagiographa*; to which our Saviour refers, Luke, xiv. 45. The same division is also mentioned by Josephus. This is the canon allowed to have been followed by the primitive church, till the council of Carthage; and, according to St Jerom, this consisted of no more than 22 books; answering to the number of the Hebrew alphabet; though at present they are classed into 24 divisions. That council enlarged the canon very considerably, taking into it the apocryphal books; which the council of Trent further enforced, enjoining them to be received as books of Holy Scripture, upon pain of anathema. The Romanists, in defence of this canon, say, that it is the same with that of the council of Hippo, held in 393; and with that of the 3d council of Carthage, in 397, at which were present 46 bishops, and, among the rest, St Augustine. Their canon of the New Testament, however, partly agrees with ours. It consists of books that are well known; some of which have been universally acknowledged; such are the 4 Gospels, the Acts of the Apostles, 13 Epistles of St Paul, 1st of St Peter, and 1st of St John; and others, concerning which doubts were entertained, but which were afterwards received as genuine; such are the epistle to the Hebrews, 1st of James, the 2d of Peter, the 2d and 3d of John, that of Jude, and the Revelation. These books were written at different times, and they are authenticated not by the decrees of councils, or infallible authority, but by such evidence as is to be found in the life of any other ancient writings. They were very extensively diffused; and read in every Christian society; they were read and preserved with care by the first Christians; they were cited by Christian writers of the 2d, 3d, and 4th centuries; as Irenæus, Clement the Alexandrian, Tertullian, Origen, Eusebius, &c. and their genuineness is proved by the testimony of those who were con-

temporary with the apostles themselves. The 4 Gospels, and most of the other books of the New Testament, were collected either by one of the apostles, or some of their disciples and successors, before the end of the first century. The catalogue of canonical books furnished by the more ancient Christian writers, as Origen about A. D. 210, Eusebius and Athanasius in 315, Epiphanius in 370, Jerome in 382, Austin in 394, and many others, agrees with that which is now received among Christians. For the time of writing the books of the New Testament, see MATTHEW, MARK, &c.

(IV.) **CANON**, (§ I. *def.* 4.) is a person who possesses a prebend, or revenue allotted for the performance of divine service, in a cathedral, or collegiate church. Canons are of no great antiquity: Paschier observes, that the name was not known before Charlemagne; at least the first we hear of are in Gregory de Tours, who mentions a college of canons instituted by Baldwin XVI. abp. of that city, in the time of Clotharius I. The common opinion attributes the institution of this order to Chrodegangus, bishop of Metz, about the middle of the 8th century. Canons originally were only priests, or inferior ecclesiastics, who lived in community; residing by the cathedral church, to assist the bishop; depending entirely on his will; supported by the revenues of the bishopric; and living in the same house, as his domestics, or counsellors, &c. They even inherited his moveables, till A. D. 817, when this was prohibited by the council of Aix la Chapelle, and a new rule substituted in the place of that which had been appointed by Chrodegangus, and which was observed for the most part in the west till the 12th century. By degrees, these communities of priests, shaking off their dependence, formed separate bodies; whereof the bishops, however, were still the heads. In the 10th century, there were communities of the same kind, established even in cities where there were no bishops: these were called *collegiates*, as they used the terms *congregation* and *college* indifferently: the name *chapter*, now given to these bodies, being much more modern. Under the empire of the French kings, the canonical life had spread all over the country; and each cathedral had its chapter, distinct from the rest of the clergy. They had the name of *canon* from the Greek *kanon*, which signifies three different things: a rule, a person, or fixed revenue to live on, and a certain use of matins; all which are applicable to them. In time, they acquired their own laws; and, at length, they ceased to live in community; yet they still continued to profess together for a long time the celebration of the common offices of the church; not claiming the rights of the rest of the clergy; making themselves a proprietary community of the church, taking upon them the administration of a see during a vacancy, and the election of a bishop to supply it. There are even some chapters exempt from the jurisdiction of the bishop, and composed of head monks or deans. After the example of cathedral chapters, collegiate churches continued to form bodies, after they had ceased living in community. Canons are of various kinds; 2^o,

successively executed, to try whether this succession may form an entire piece which will give pleasure, as well in the harmony as the melody. In executing such a canon, he who sings the first part begins alone, and continues till the air is finished; then recommences immediately, without any suspension of sound or interruption of time: as soon as he has ended the first couplet, which ought to serve for the perpetual subject upon which the whole canon has been composed, the 2d part begins and repeats the same couplet, whilst the first who had begun pursues the second; and others in succession begin, and proceed the same way, as soon as he who precedes has reached the end of the first couplet. Thus, by incessantly recommencing, a universal close can never be found, and the canon may be repeated as long as the singers please. A perpetual fugue may likewise consist of parts which begin with the intervals of a 4th or 5th; or, in other words, every part may repeat the melody of the first, a 4th or a 5th higher or lower. It is then necessary that the whole canon should be intoned *di prima intenzione*, as the Italians say; and that sharps or flats should be added to the notes, whose natural gradations do not answer exactly, by a 4th or 5th, to the melody of the preceding part, and produce the same intervals with itself. Here the composer cannot pay the least regard to modulation; his only care is, that the melody may be the same, which renders the formation of a canon more difficult; for at every time when any part resumes the fugue, it takes a new key; it changes the tone almost at every note, and what is still worse, no part is at the same time found in the same tone with another; hence it is that this kind of canons, in other respects far from being easy to be pursued, never produces a pleasing effect, however good the harmony may be, and however properly it may be sung. There is a 3d kind of canon, extremely difficult, and boasting no other merit but the pains which have been thrown away in its composition. This may be called a *double canon inverted*, as well by the inversions which are practised in it with respect to the melody of the parts, as by those which are found among the parts themselves, in singing. The reader may consult Rousseau's Dictionary in his article, where he is referred to plate D fig. 11. or two examples of canons of this sort extracted from Bontempi, who likewise gives rules for their composition. To form a canon in which the harmony may be a little varied, it is necessary that the parts should not follow each other in succession too rapid, and that the one should only begin a considerable time after the other. When they follow one another so immediately as at the distance of a semibreve or a minim, the duration is not sufficient to admit a great number of chords, and the canon must of necessity exhibit a disagreeable monotony; but it is a method of composing, without much difficulty, a canon in as many parts as the composer chooses. For a canon of 4 bars only, will consist of 8 parts if they follow each other at the distance of half a bar; and by each bar which is added, two parts will constantly be gained. The emperor Charles VI. who was a great musician, and composed extremely well,

took much pleasure in composing and singing canons. Italy is still replete with most beautiful canons composed for this prince, by the best masters in that country. To what has been said by Rousseau we need only subjoin, that the English *cantab* and the Italian *canon* are much the same; as any intelligent reader may perceive, from comparing the structure and execution of the English *cantab* with the account of *canons* now given.

(IX.) CANON LAW, a collection of ecclesiastical laws, serving as the rule of church government. The power of making laws was exercised by the church before the Roman empire became Christian. The canon law that obtained throughout the west, till the 12th century, was the collection of canons made by Dionysius Exiguus in 520, the capitularies of Charlemagne, and the decrees of the popes from Symlicus to Anastasius III. The canon law, even when papal authority was at its height in England, was of no force when it contradicted the prerogative of the king, the laws, statutes, and customs of the realm, or the doctrine of the established church. The ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the see of Rome in England was founded on the canon law; and this created quarrels between kings and several archbishops and prelates who adhered to the papal usurpation. Besides the foreign canons, there were several laws and constitutions made here for the government of the church: but all these received their force from the royal assent; and if, at any time, the ecclesiastical courts did, by their sentence, endeavour to enforce obedience to such canons, the courts at common law, upon complaints made, would grant prohibition. The authority vested in the church of England of making canons, was ascertained by a statute of Henry VIII. commonly called the *act of the clergy's submission*; by which they acknowledged, that the convocation had always been assembled by the king's writ; so that though the power of making canons resided in the clergy met in convocation, their force was derived from the authority of the king's assenting to and confirming them. The old canons continued in full force till the reign of James I. when the clergy being assembled in convocation, the king gave them leave to treat and consult upon canons, which they did, and presented them to the king, who gave them the royal assent: these were a collection out of the several preceding canons and injunctions. Some of these canons are now obsolete. In the reign of Charles I. several canons were passed by the clergy in convocation.

CANONARCHIA, or } an office in the Greek
CANONARCHUS, } church, answering to
the precentor in the Latin, or chanter in the English church.

* CANON-BIT. *n. s.* That part of the bit let into the horse's mouth.—

A goodly person, and could manage fair,
His stubborn steed with *cannonbit*,

Who under him did trample as the air. *Spenser.*

(1.) * CANONESS. *n. s.* [*canonissa*, low Lat.] There are in popish countries, women they call secular *canonesses*, living after the example of secular canons. *Syliff.*

(2.) CANONESS, in the Romish church, is a woman

man who enjoys a prebend, affixed, by the foundation, to maids, without their being obliged to renounce the world or make any vows.

(1.) CANONGATE, a burgh adjacent and under vassalage to Edinburgh, of which it is one of the suburbs. See EDINBURGH. It is governed by a baron bailie and two resident magistrates, appointed by the town council of Edinburgh. Their jurisdiction extends to the E. side of the Pleasance, and to the town of North Leith.

(2.) CANONGATE, a parish of Scotland, comprehending somewhat more than the burgh, (N^o 1.) but not extending to the whole jurisdiction. The population, in 1792, as stated by Mr Creech in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 6200.

CANONICA, in philosophical history, an appellation given by Epicurus to his doctrine of logic, as consisting of a few rules for directing the understanding in the pursuit of truth. Epicurus's *canonica* is represented as a very slight and insufficient logic by several of the ancients who put a great value on his ethics and physics. Laertius even assures us, that the Epicureans rejected logic as a superfluous science; and Plutarch complains that Epicurus made an unskilful and preposterous use of syllogisms. But these censures seem too severe. Epicurus was not averse to the study of logic, but even gave better rules in this art, than those philosophers who aimed at no glory but that of logics. He only seems to have rejected the dialectics of the Stoics, as full of vain subtleties and deceits, and fitted rather for parade and disputation than real use. The strength of Epicurus's *canonica* consists in his doctrine of the criteria of truth. All questions in philosophy are either concerning words or things: concerning things, we seek their truth; concerning words, their signification: things are either natural or moral; and the former are either perceived by sense, or by the understanding. Hence, according to Epicurus, arise 3 criterions of truth, *viz.* sense, praeconception, and passion. The great principle of Epicurus's logic is, that the senses are never deceived; and therefore, that every sensation of an appearance is true.

(1.) * CANONICAL. *adj.* [*canonicus*, low Lat.] 1. According to the canon. 2. Constituting the canon.—Publick readings there are of books and writings, not *canonical*, whereby the church doth also preach, or openly make known the doctrine of virtuous conversation. *Hooker*.—No such book was found amongst those *canonical* scriptures. *Raleigh*. 3. Regular; stated; fixed by ecclesiastical laws.—Seven times a day do I praise thee, said David; from this definite number some ages of the church took their pattern for their *canonical* hours. *Taylor*. 4. Spiritual; ecclesiastical; relating to the church.—York anciently had a metropolitan jurisdiction over all the bishops of Scotland, from whom they had their consecration, and to whom they swore *canonical* obedience. *Ayliffe*.

(2.) CANONICAL HOURS are certain stated times of the day, consigned, more especially by the Romish church, to the offices of prayer and devotion. Such are *matins*, *lauds*, *sixth*, *ninth*, *vespers*. In England the canonical hours are from 8 to 12 the forenoon, before or after which marriage is to be legally performed in any parish church.

(3.) CANONICAL LETTERS, in the ancient church, were testimonials of the orthodox faith, which the bishops and clergy sent each other to keep up the catholic communion, and distinguish orthodox Christians, from heretics. They were designated *canonical*, either as being composed according to a certain rule, or because they were given to the CANONICI, *i. e.* those comprehended in the canon of their church. When they had occasion to travel into other countries, recommendations, letters, letters of peace, &c. were so many species of canonical letters.

(4.) CANONICAL LIFE, the rule of living prescribed by the ancient clergy who lived in community. The canonical life was a kind of medium between the monastic and clerical lives. Originally the orders of monks and clerks were entirely distinct; but pious persons afterwards instituted colleges of priests and canons, where clerks brought up for the ministry, as well as others already engaged in it, might live under a fixed rule, which, though somewhat more easy than the monastic, was more restrained than the secular. Authors are divided about the founder of the canonical life. Some will have it to be founded by the apostles; others ascribe it to pope Urban I. about A. D. 230, who is said to have ordered bishops to provide such of their clergy as were willing to live in community, with necessaries out of the revenues of their churches. The generality attribute it to St. Augustine; who, having gathered a number of clerks to devote themselves to religion, instituted a monastery within his episcopal palace, where he lived in community with them. Onuphrius Pavinius says, that pope Geladius I. about A. D. 495, placed the first regular canons of St. Augustine in the Lateran church.

(5.) CANONICAL OBEDIENCE is that submission which, by the ecclesiastical laws, the inferior clergy are to pay to their bishops, and the religious to their superiors.

(6.) CANONICAL PORTION, so much of the effects of a person deceased, as the canons allow to his parish church.

(7.) CANONICAL PUNISHMENTS are those which the church may inflict; such as excommunication, degradation, and penance, in Roman Catholic countries; also fasting, alms, whipping, &c.

(8.) CANONICAL SINS, in the ancient church, those which were capital or mortal; Such as idolatry, murder, adultery, heresy, and schism.

* CANONICALLY. *adv.* [from *canonicus*,] in a manner agreeable to the canon.—It is a known story of the friar, who, on a fasting day, bid a capon be carp, and then very *canonically* eat the Government of the Tongue.

* CANONICALNESS. *n. s.* [from *canonicus*,] The quality of being canonical.

CANONICATE, *n. s.* the office or benefice of a canon.

CANONICI. See CANON, § VII. and CANONICAL, § 3.

CANONICUM denotes, 1. a tax in general; 2. a fee paid by the Greek clergy to bishops, archbishops, and metropolitans, for degrees and promotions; 3. a due of first-fruits, paid by the Greek laity to their bishops or priests; according to the number of houses or chimnies in a place. The constitution

constitution made by the emperor Isaac Comnenus, and confirmed in 1086, by Alexis Comnenus, enacted, that a village containing 30 fires, was to pay for its *canonicum* one piece of gold, two of silver, one sheep, 6 bushels of barley, 6 of wheat flour, 6 measures of wine, and 30 hens.

(1.) * **CANONIST.** *n. s.* [from *canon*.] A man versed in the ecclesiastical laws; a professor of the canon law.—John Fisher, bishop of Rochester, when the king would have translated him from that poor bishoprick, he refused, saying, he would not forsake his poor little old wife; thinking of the fifteenth canon of the Nicene council, and that of the *canonists*, *Matrimonium inter episcopum & ecclesiam esse contractum*, &c. *Camden's Remains*.

Of whose strange crimes no *canonist* can tell,
In what commandment's large contents they dwell.

Pope.

(2.) **CANONISTS** and civilians are usually combined in the same persons: and hence the title of *legum doctor*, or *doctor juris utriusque*, usually expressed in abbreviature, LL. D. or J. U. D.

(1.) * **CANONIZATION.** *n. s.* [from *canonize*.] The act of declaring any man a saint.—It is very suspicious, that the interests of particular families, or churches, have too great a sway in *canonizations*. *Addison*.

(2.) **CANONIZATION**, in the Romish church, succeeds beatification. Before a beatified person is canonized, the qualifications of the candidate are strictly examined into, in some consistories held for that purpose; after which, one of the consistorial advocates, in the presence of the pope and cardinals, makes the panegyric of the person who is to be proclaimed a saint, and gives a particular detail of his life and miracles: which done, the holy father decrees his canonization, and appoints the day. On the day of canonization the pope officiates in white, and the cardinals are dressed in the same colour. St Peter's church is hung with rich tapestry, upon which the arms of the pope, and of the prince or state requiring the canonization, are embroidered in gold and silver. A vast number of lights blaze all round the church, which is crowded with pious souls, who wait with devout impatience till the new saint has made his public entry as it were into paradise, that they may offer up their petitions to him without danger of being rejected. The following rule is now observed, though it has not been followed above a century, *viz.* not to enter into the enquiries prior to canonization, till 50 years, at least, after the death of the person to be canonized. This rite of the modern Romans resembles the deification of the ancient Romans, and, in all probability, takes its rise from it.

* **To CANONIZE.** *v. a.* [from *canon*, to put into the canon, or rule for observing festivals.] To declare any man a saint.—The king, desirous to bring into the house of Lancaster celestial honour, became suitor to pope Julius, to *canonize* king Henry VI. for a saint. *Bacon*.—

By those hymns all shall approve

Us *canoniz'd* for love.

Donne.

—They have a pope too, who hath the chief care of religion, and of *canonizing* whom he thinks fit, and thence have the honour of saints. *Stillingfleet*.

CANONMILLS, a village within a mile of E-

inburgh, seated on the river Leith. Mr Creech does not mention the number of its inhabitants.

CANONNICUT, a small island of the United States belonging to Rhode-Island, and forming part of Newport county. It lies in Naraganset Bay W. of Rhode-Island, and is about 6 m. long, and 1 broad. It was purchased of the Indians in 1637, and incorporated by act of assembly in 1678, by the name of JAMES-TOWN. It contained, in 1795, 491 free inhabitants and 16 slaves. A lighthouse was erected on the S. end of it, in 1749, on ground elevated 12 feet above the sea level at high water. The diameter at the base is 24 feet and at the top, 13: The height is 58 feet: around the top of the cornice is a gallery, within which stands the lantern: It is about 14 feet high and 8 feet diameter.

(1.) * **CANONRY.** **CANONSHIP.** *n. s.* [from *canon*.] An ecclesiastical benefice in some cathedral or collegiate church, which has a prebend, or a stated allowance out of the revenues of such church, commonly annexed to it. *Ayliffe*.

(2.) **CANONRY**, differs from a *prebend*, in that the prebend may subsist without the canonicate: whereas the canonicate is inseparable from the prebend; again, the rights of suffrages, and other privileges, are annexed to the canonicate, and not to the prebend.

CANONSBURG, a town of Pennsylvania, in Washington county, on the N. side of the W. branch of Chartiers creek. It has an academy and several valuable mills. It lies 7 m. N. E. by E. of Washington; 15 S. W. of Pittsburgh; in Lon. 5. 4. W. and Lat. 40. 17. N. of Philadelphia.

* **CANONSHIP.** See **CANONRY**.

CANOPÆI, the people of Canopus, famous for their luxury and debauchery.

* **CANOPIED.** *adj.* [from *canopy*.] Covered with a canopy.—

I sat me down to watch upon a bank,

With ivy *canopy'd*, and interwove

With flaunting honeysuckle.

Milton.

(1.) **CANOPUS**, in astronomy, a star of the first magnitude in the rudder of ARGO.

(2.) **CANOPUS**, in Pagan mythology, one of the deities of the ancient Egyptians, and the god of water. It is said, that the Chaldeans, who worshipped fire, carried their deity through other countries to try its power, in order that, if it obtained the victory over the other gods, it might be acknowledged as the true object of worship; and it having easily subdued the gods of wood, stone, brass, silver, and gold, its priests declared, that all gods did it homage. This the priests of Canopus hearing, and finding that the Chaldeans had brought their gods to contend with Canopus, they took a large earthen vessel, in which they bored several holes, which they afterwards stopped with wax, and having filled the vessel with water, painted it of several colours, and fitting the head of their idol to it, brought it out, in order to contend with the Chaldean deity. The Chaldeans accordingly kindled their fire all around it; but the heat having melted the wax, the water gushed out through the holes, and extinguished the fire; and thus Canopus conquered the god of the Chaldeans.

(3.) **CANOPUS**, or **CANOBUS**, according to Strabo

but was a native of Amycla, had been Menelaus's pilot, and had a temple erected to him in the town of CANOPUS, No. 4. It is mentioned by Dionysius. Vossius remarks the vanity of the Greeks, who, as he conjectures, hearing of the Egyptian deity, (No. 2.) took an opportunity of deifying the pilot of Menelaus, and giving out that the Egyptian god Canopus had been a Greek. B. Monfaucon gives several representations of this deity. One, in allusion to the victory above mentioned, (No. 2.) throws out water on every side through little holes.

(4.) CANOPUS, or CANOBUS, in ancient geography, a town of the Lower Egypt, on the Mediterranean, near one of the mouths of the Nile, 120 stadia or 15 m. E. of Alexandria: as old as the war of Troy, Canopus, (No. 2.) being there buried. See ABOUKIR.

(1.) * CANOPY. *n. s.* [*canopeum*, low Lat.] A covering of state over a throne or bed; a covering spread over the head.—

She is there brought unto a paled green,
And placed under a stately canopy,
The warlike feats of both those knights to see.

Fairy Queen.

Now spread the night her spangled canopy,
And summon'd every restless eye to sleep.

Fairfax.

Nor will the raging fever's fire abate,
With golden canopies, and beds of state. *Milton.*

(2.) CANOPY is formed from *καταπέτασμα*, a net spread over a bed to keep off the gnats; of *καταπέτασμα*, a gnat. Canopies are also born over the head in processions of state, after the manner of umbrellas. The canopy of an altar is called CIBORIUM. The Roman grandees had their canopies, or spread veils, called *tiburse*, over their chairs; and in temples over the statues of the gods. The modern cardinals still retain the use of canopies.

* To CANOPY. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cover with a canopy.—

The birch, the myrtle, and the bay,
Like friends did all embrace;

And their large branches did display,

To canopy the place. *Dryden.*

* CANOROUS. *adj.* [*canorus*, Lat.] Musical; tuneful.—Birds that are most *canorous*, and whose notes we most commend, are of little throats, and short. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

CANOSA, a town of Naples, in Puglia, occupying part of the site of the ancient CANUSIUM. The old city was one of the most considerable in this part of Italy, for extent, population, and magnificent buildings. The æra of Trajan seems to have been that of its greatest splendour; but this pomp only served to mark it as a capital object for the avarice and fury of the Barbarians. Genseric, Totila, and Autharis, treated it with extreme cruelty. The deplorable state to which this province was reduced in 590 is concisely but strongly painted by Gregory the Great, in these terms: "On every side we hear groans! On every side we behold crowds of mourners, cities burnt, castles rased to the ground, countries laid waste, provinces become deserts, some citizens way captives, and others inhumanly massa-

No town in Puglia suffered more from

the Saracens; the contests between the Greeks and Normans increased the measure of its woes, which was completed by a conflagration when it was stormed by duke Robert. In 1090, it was assigned to Bohemund prince of Antioch, who died here in 1111. Under the reign of Ferdinand III. it belonged to the Grimaldis. On their forfeiture, the Affaititi acquired it, and still retain the title of marquis, though the Capeci are the proprietors of the fief. The ancient city stood in a plain between the hills and the river Ofanto, and covered a large tract of ground. Many brick monuments, though stripped of their marble casing, still attest its ancient grandeur. Among them may be traced the fragments of aqueducts, tombs, amphitheatres, baths, military columns, and two triumphal arches, which, by their position, seem to have been two city gates. The present town stands above, on the foundation of the old citadel, and is a remnant of so great a city, not containing above 300 houses. The church of St Sabinus, built in the 6th century, is now without the inclosure. It is astonishing, that any part of this cathedral should have withstood so many calamities. Its altars and pavements are rich in marbles; and in a small court adjoining, under an octagonal cupola, is the mausoleum of Bohemund, adorned in a minute Gothic style.

CANOURGE, a town of France, in the department of Lozere, the ci-devant territory of Gevaudan.

CAN PUMP. See CAN, § 4. No. 3.

CANQUES, in commerce, a sort of cotton cloth made in China; with which the Chinese make the garments next their skin, which are properly their shirts.

CANSCHY, in botany, the name of a tree in Japan, from which the inhabitants of that country make their paper.

CANSO, a sea port of Nova Scotia, seated on a narrow strait which separates it from Cape Breton. Near this town is a fine fishery for cod. Lon. 60. 55. W. Lat. 45. 20. N.

CANSTAT, a town of Germany, in Suabia, in the duchy of Wirtemberg, situated in the river Neckar. Lon. 9. 9. W. Lat. 48. 51. N.

(1.) * CANT. *n. s.* [probably from *cantus*, Lat. implying the odd tone of voice used by vagrants; but imagined by some to be corrupted from *gaudent*.] 1. A corrupt dialect used by beggars and vagabonds. 2. A particular form of speaking peculiar to some certain class or body of men.—I write not always in the proper terms of navigation, land service, or in the *cant* of any profession. *Dryden.* If we would trace out the original of that flagrant and avowed impiety, which has prevailed among us for some years, we should find, that it owes its rise to that *cant* and hypocrisy, which had taken possession of the people's minds in the times of the great rebellion. *Addison's Freeholder.*—Astrologers, with an old paltry *cant*, and a few pocket-books for planets, to amuse the vulgar, have too long been suffered to abuse the world. *Swift's Predictions for the Year 1701.*—A few general rules, with a certain *cant* of words, has sometimes set up an illiterate heavy writer, for a most judicious and formidable critick. *Addison's Spectator.*

2. A whining pretension to goodness, in formal and affected terms.—

Of promise prodigal, while pow'r you want,
And preaching in the self-denying *cant*.

Dryden's Aurengz.

4. Barbarous jargon.—The affection of some late authours, to introduce and multiply *cant* words, is the most ruinous corruption in any language.

Swift. 5. Auction.—Numbers of these tenants, on their descendants, are now offering to sell their leases by *cant*, even those which were for lives.

Swift. (2.) CANT, (§ 1. def. 1.) differs from *technical* in this: that the former is restrained to words introduced out of folly, affectation, or imposture; (see CANTING LANGUAGE,) the latter is applied to such as are introduced for the sake of clearness, and precision.

(3.) CANT, (§ 1. def. 3.) is deduced by Skinner from the German, Flemish, and Saxon tongues. According to tradition, Cant was the proper name of a Cameronian preacher in Scotland, who had habituated himself to preach in such a peculiar tone and dialect, as were understood by none but his own congregation; and since his time, the word has been extended to all sudden exclamations, and whining unmusical tones, especially in praying and preaching. But the true derivation is plainly from the Latin *cantare*, to sing.

(4.) CANT, signifying auction, (§ 1. def. 5.) is derived according to some, from *quantum*, how much; according to others, from *cantare*, to sing or cry aloud; agreeable to which, we sometimes also call it an *out-cry*.

* To CANT, *v. n.* [from the noun.] To talk in the jargon of particular professions, or in any kind of formal affected language, or with a peculiar and studied tone of voice.—Men *cant* about *materia* and *forma*; hunt chimeras by rules of art, or dress up ignorance in words of bulk or sound, which may stop up the mouth of enquiry. *Glanville.*—That uncouth affected garb of speech, or *canting* language rather, if I may so called it, which they have of late taken up, is the signal distinction and characteristical note of that, which, in that their new language, they call the godly party. *Sanderfon.*

The busy, subtle-serpents of the law,
Did first my mind from true obedience draw;
While I did limits to the king prescribe,
And took for oracles that *canting* tribe.

Recommon.

Unskill'd in schemes by planets to foreshow,
Like *canting* ratsals, how the wars will go.

Dryden's Jew.

CANTABRI. See CANTABRIANS.

CANTABRIA, a district of Terraconensis, on the Oceanus Cantabricus, now called Biscay. See the two next articles.

CANTABRIAN LANGUAGE. Dr Wallis makes the Cantabrian the ancient language of all Spain; which, according to him, like the Gaulish, gave way to a kind of broken Latin, called *romance* or *romanse*; which by degrees was refined into the Castilian, or present Spanish. But we can hardly suppose, that so large a country inhabited by such a variety of people spoke all the same language. The ancient Cantabrian, in fact, but subsists in the more barren and mountainous parts of

Biscay, Asturias, and Navarre, as far as Bayonne, much as the British does in Wales; but the people only talk it; for in writing, they use either Spanish or French, as they happen to live under the one or the other nation. Some attribute this to a jealousy of foreigners learning the mysteries of their language; others to a poverty of words. The Cantabrian does not appear to have any affinity with any other known language, excepting that some Spanish words have been adopted in it for things, whose use the Cantabrians were anciently unacquainted with. Its pronunciation is not disagreeable. The Lord's prayer, in the Cantabrian tongue, runs thus: *Gure aita cervetan aicena, santifica bedi bire icena, etbor bedi hire refuma, eguin bedi bire vorandatea, cervan becala lurrean ere, &c.*

CANTABRIANS, the inhabitants of Cantabria, famous for their warlike character. In conjunction with the ASTURIANS, they carried on desperate wars with the Romans; but were subdued by them about A. A. C. 25. Impatient, however, of a foreign yoke, they soon revolted. Most of their youth had been taken prisoners by the Romans, and sold for slaves to the neighbouring nations; but having found means to break their chains, they cut the throats of their masters; and returning to their own country, attacked the Roman garrisons with incredible fury. Agrippa marched against them with great expedition; but, on his arrival, met with so vigorous a resistance, that his soldiers began to despair of ever reducing them. As the Cantabrians had waged war with the Romans for upwards of 200 years, they were well acquainted with their manner of fighting, no way inferior to them in courage, and were now become desperate; knowing, that if they were conquered, after having so often attempted to recover their liberty, they must expect the most severe usage. Animated with this reflection, they fell upon the Romans with a fury hardly to be imagined, routed them in several engagements, and defended themselves when attacked, with such intrepidity, that Agrippa afterwards owned, that he had never, either by sea or land, been engaged in a more dangerous enterprise. That brave commander used intreaties and menaces, and even branded some of his legionaries with ignominy, before he could bring them to enter the lists with such a formidable foe. But having at last prevailed upon them to try the chance of an engagement in the open field, he so animated them by his example, that, after a most obstinate dispute, he gained a complete victory, which put an end to that destructive war. All the Cantabrians fit to bear arms were cut in pieces; their castles and strong holds taken and rased; and their women, children, and old men (none else being left alive,) were obliged to abandon the mountainous places, and settle in the plain.

CANTABRICA, in botany, a synonyme of a species of CONVULVULUS.

CANTABRICUS OCEANUS, the ancient name of the Bay of Biscay.

CANTABRUM, in antiquity, a large flag used by the Roman emperors, distinguished by its peculiar colour, and bearing some motto of good omen, to encourage the soldiers.

CAN (692)

CANTACUZENUS, Johannes, a celebrated statesman, general, and historian, born in Constantinople, of a noble family. He was bred to letters and to arms, and admitted to the highest offices of the state. The emperor Andronicus loaded him with wealth and honours; made him generalissimo of his forces; and desired him to join him in the government, but this he refused. Andronicus dying in 1242, left to Cantacuzenus the care of the empire till John Paleologus, then only 9 years of age, should be fit to take it upon himself. This trust he faithfully discharged; till the emperor dowager and her faction forming a party against him, declared him a traitor. On this, the principal nobility and the army betook him to ascend the throne; and accordingly he was crowned, 21st May, 1245. This was followed by a civil war, which lasted 7 years; when he had admitted John a partner with him in the empire, and their union was confirmed by his giving him his daughter in marriage. Suspensions and civil wars, however, soon arising, the war broke out again, and continued till John took Constantinople, in 1261. A few days after, Cantacuzenus, unwilling to continue the effusion of blood, abdicated his share of the empire and returned to a monastery, took the habit of a monk, and the name of *Theophanes*. His wife also retired to a nunnery, and changed her name to *Irene* for that of *Regina*. In this retirement, he lived till 1257, when he was upwards of 100 years of age. Here he wrote a history of his own times, a Latin translation of which, from the Greek *Μ*, was published by Pontanus at Inlogstadt, in 1603; and a splendid edition was printed at Paris, in 1645, in three volumes folio, of the original Greek, and Pontanus's Latin version. He also wrote an apology for the Christian religion against that of Mahomet, under the name of *Geopaphicus*.

CANTIE, the ancient inhabitants of Ross-shire, in Scotland.

(1.) **CANTAL**, a department of France, so named from the mountain, (*N*^o 2.) bounded by those of Lot on the W. Corrèze on the N. W. Puy de Dôme on the N. Upper Loire and Lozère on the E. and Aveyron on the S. It is formed out of the coterminous province of Auvergne. 36 *Flours* is the chief town.

(2.) **CANTAL**, a mountain in the above department, which is almost constantly covered with snow.

CANTALYERS. See **CANTALYERS**, & *Pl. 25*.

CANTAR, or } 1. an eastern weight, of
(1.) **CANTARO**, } different value in different
pieces, equal in *T* to 4 to 603 pounds; 2. an
Egyptian weight, called also a *QANTAL*, con-
sisting of 200, or 250 *QANTOS*, according to the
goods they are to weigh. 3. another Egyptian
weight, which at Naples is equivalent to 25
pounds, at Genoa to 20 pounds. 4. at Lagnhorn
they 120 pounds, number 25; and a third 260
pounds.

(2.) **CANTARO** is also a measure of capacity, u-
-lin, containing four rubles, the rubl a

CAN

(3.) **CANTARO** is also a Spanish liquid measure,
used especially at Alicante, containing 3 rubles.
CANTARINI, Simon, a famous painter, cal-
led the *Pejoristi*, from his being born at Pejori,
was the disciple of Guido; and copied the man-
ner of his master so exactly, that it is often diffi-
cult to distinguish their works. He died at Vene-
na in 1648.

(4.) **CANTATA**, *n. f.* (Ital.) A song.
(5.) **CANTATA**, in music, is a composition, so
termed with recitatives, airs, and different move-
ments, chiefly intended for a single voice, was a
thorough ballad, though sometimes for other in-
struments. When performed with judgment, it is
very agreeable; the variety of the movements are
eloquing the ear, like other compositions. It was
first used in Italy.

(6.) **CANTATION** *n. f.* (from *canto*, Lat.) The
act of singing.

CANTATRICES, in writers of the middle age,
were monks at funerals.

CANTAZARO, an episcopal city of Naples,
in Calabria Ulteriore. It is the residence of the
governor of the province, and is seated near the
sea, in Lon. 17 *o*. E. Lat. 38. 59. N.

(1.) **CANTECROIX**, a considerable territory of
the Austrian Netherlands, in Brabant, now ap-
pended to the French republic. Lux was the ca-
pital.

(2.) **CANTECROIX**, a town of France, in the
above district, (*N*^o 1.) now included in the de-
partment of Dyle.

CANTEENS, in military language, is a
water to supply the soldiers in camp.

CANTELLUM, } in ancient English writ-
ing, } a custom of selling by the
lump, without tale or measure.

(1.) **CANTEMIR**, Antiochia, supposed the
founder of the Russian poetry, was the young-
son of Demetrias, (*N*^o 2.) Under the most im-
portant professors, whom the Czar Peter had im-
ported to Petersburg, he learned mathematics, per-
sian, history, moral philosophy, and public econ-
omy; without neglecting the study of the Holy
Scriptures, to which he had a great inclination.
He printed a Concordance to the Psalms in the
Russian language, and was elected member of the
academy. The affairs of state in which he was
soon after engaged, did not make him neglect his
literary pursuits. In order to make himself use-
ful to his fellow citizens, he composed his facts
to ridicule certain prejudices which had got fast-
ning among them. When but 23 years of age, he
was nominated minister at the court of Great Be-
taro; and his dexterity in the management of
public affairs was so much admired as to be
called the *science*. He had the same reputation as
France, whether he went in 1738, in quality of
minister plenipotentiary, and so on after was re-
spected with the character of an ambassador extra-
ordinary. The wise and prudent manner in which
he conducted himself during the different re-
volutions which happened in Russia during his
absence, gained him the confidence and esteem of
3 successive princes. He died of a dropy, in Pe-

in 1744, aged 44. Besides the pieces already mentioned, he wrote, 1. Some fables and odes. A translation of Horace's epistles into Russian verse. 3. A prose translation of Fontenelle's pliancy of worlds; and, 4. Algarotti's dialogues on light. The abbe Guaasco has written his life in French, and translated his satires into that language.

(2.) CANTEMIR, Demetrius, the son of a prince of Moldavia. Disappointed by not succeeding his father in that dignity, held under the Ottoman Porte, he went over with his army to the czar Peter the great, against whom he had been sent by the Grand Signior: he signalized himself in the Czar's service; and in the republic of letters, by a Latin history of the origin and decline of the Ottoman empire. He died in 1723.

* CANTER. *n. f.* [from *cant*, Lat.] A term of reproach for hypocrites, who talk formally of religion, without obeying it.

CANTERA, one of the principal rivers of Sicily; anciently called TAUROMINIUS.

(1.) CANTERBURY, a city of England, the capital of the county of Kent. It had the names *Durovernum* and *Darvernum* given it by the Romans, and *Durobernia* by Bede, which are thought to be derived from *Duraubem*, *i. e.* a rapid stream, such as the Stour, on which it stands. The Britons call it *Caer-Kent*, *i. e.* the city of Kent; and its present English name, from the Saxon, is of the same import. Modern writers in Latin call it *Cantuaria*. Its great antiquity appears not only from Antoninus's Itinerary, but from the military way discovered in it, and the causeways leading to Dover and Lymme, besides the coins and other curiosities found about it. The archiepiscopal and metropolitan dignity was settled here very early; and to prevent its being removed, an anathema was decreed against any who should attempt it. After that, the city flourished greatly; though it suffered in common with other towns during the Danish invasions, and at other times by fire. It was given entirely to Bishop Anselm and his successors by William Rufus, and was held in the utmost veneration in the Polish times, especially after the murder of Becket in the reign of Henry II. to whose shrine so great was the resort, and so rich were the offerings, that Erasmus, who was an eye-witness of its wealth, says the whole church and chapel in which he was interred glittered with jewels; and at the dissolution of the monasteries, the plate and jewels filled two great chests, each of which required 8 strong men to carry them out. The cathedral was granted by Ethelbert, king of Kent, upon his conversion, to Augustine the monk, together with his palace, and the royalty of the city and its territories. See AUGUSTINE, N° 2. After the cathedral had been several times destroyed by fire and rebuilt, the present was begun about A. D. 1174, and augmented and embellished by the succeeding archbishops, till it was completed in the reign of Henry V. It is a noble Gothic pile, and before the reformation had 37 altars. Many kings, princes, cardinals, and archbishops, are buried in it. At the dissolution, Henry VIII. seized all the revenues both of the church and monastery, except what he allotted for the maintenance of a dean,

12 prebendaries, and six preachers, whom he established in place of the monks. (See N° 5.) During the grand rebellion, it suffered much; Cromwell having made a stable of it for his dragons. After the restoration, it was repaired, and made what it now appears. The city had anciently a castle on the S. side, and strong walls, with towers, a ditch, and rampart; it had also a mint and an exchange. As to its government, it seems to have been entirely subject to the Abp. both in spirituals and temporals, till the reformation. It is now a county of itself; and the corporation consists of a mayor, recorder, 12 aldermen, a sheriff, 24 common council-men, a mace-bearer, a sword-bearer, and 4 serjeants at mace. Every Monday a court is held at Guildhall for civil and criminal causes; and every other Tuesday for the government of the city. Formerly 2000 or 3000 French Protestants were employed in the silk manufacture; but this branch is now greatly decayed in the place, since Spitalfields became so flourishing. Besides the cathedral, it contains 15 parish churches, 7 hospitals, a free school, a house of correction, a gaol for criminals, and a sumptuous conduit for supplying the inhabitants with water. It consists of 4 streets, in the form of a cross, and divided into six wards, which are about 3 miles in circumference. It is surrounded on all hands with hop grounds much to its advantage, and is famed for its excellent brawn. It is situated 26 m. S. E. by E. of Rochester, and 56 from London. Lon. 1. 4. E. Lat. 51. 19. N.

(2.) CANTERBURY, a town of the United States, in Connecticut, agreeably situated in Windham county; on the W. side of the river Quimaboug, over which there is a wooden bridge. It is 9 m. E. by S. of Windham.

(3.) * CANTERBURY BELLS. See BELFLOWER.

(4.) CANTERBURY BELLS, in botany: The English name of a species of CAMPANULA.

(5.) CANTERBURY, DIOCESE OF. The diocese of Canterbury contains 257 parishes, besides chapels, in Kent, and about 100 more in other dioceses. These are called *Peculiars*; it being an ancient privilege of this see, that, wheresoever the archbishops had either manors or advowsons, the place was exempted from the jurisdiction of the ordinary of the diocese where it was situated, and was deemed in the diocese of Canterbury. This see is valued in the king's books at L. 2816 : 17 : 9½, but is reckoned to produce a clear revenue of L. 8000 a year. The clergy's tenths come to L. 651 : 18 : 2½. This see had many great privileges in the time of Popery, some of which it still retains. The archbishop is accounted primate and metropolitan of England, and is the first peer in the realm; having the precedence of all dukes not of the blood royal, and all the great officers of state. In common speech, he is styled *His Grace*, and he writes himself *Divina Providentia*; whereas other bishops style themselves *Divina Permissione*. At coronations, he places the crown on the king's head; and, wherever the court may be, the king and queen are the proper domestic parishioners of the archbishop of Canterbury. The bishop of London is accounted his provincial dean, the bishop of Winchester his sub-dean, the bishop of Lincoln his chancellor, and the bishop of

[illegible]

few miles from Stroud, he first saw a pair of globes; an object that afforded him uncommon pleasure, from the great ease with which he could solve these problems he had hitherto been accustomed to compute. The dial was beautified a few years ago at the expence of the gentlemen at Stroud, several of whom had been his school-fellows, and who continued still to regard it as a very distinguished performance. Among other persons with whom he became acquainted in early life, was the late ingenious Dr Henry Miles of Tooting, F. R. S. This gentleman, perceiving that Mr Canton possessed abilities too promising to be confined within the narrow limits of a country town, prevailed on his father to permit him to come to London. Accordingly he arrived at the metropolis March 4, 1737, and resided with Miles at Tooting till the 6th of May following; when he engaged for 5 years, as clerk to Mr Watkins, master of the academy in Spital-square. In this situation, his ingenuity, diligence, and good conduct, were so well displayed, that on the expiration of his clerkship, he was taken into partnership with Mr Watkins, whom he afterwards succeeded in the academy, where he continued during life. In 1734, he married Penelope, niece of James Colbrooke, Esq; banker in London. About the end of 1745, electricity received a very capital improvement by the discovery of the famous Leyden Phial. Mr Canton was one of the first who pursued the experiment, and found his assiduity rewarded by many capital discoveries. Towards the end of 1749, he made experiments to determine to what height rockets may be made to ascend, and at what distance their light may be seen. In 1750 was read at the Royal Society, his "method of making artificial magnets, without the use of, and yet far superior to, any natural ones." This paper procured him the honour of being elected a member of the Society, and the present of their gold medal. The same year he was complimented with the degree of M. A. by the university of Aberdeen; and, in 1751, was chosen one of the council of the Royal Society. In 1752, he was so fortunate as to be the first person in England, who, by attracting the electric fire from the clouds during a thunder-borm, verified Dr Franklin's hypothesis of the similarity of lightning and electricity. Next year, his paper intitled, "Electrical Experiments, with an attempt to account for their several Phenomena," was read at the Royal Society. In the same paper Mr Canton mentioned his having discovered, by a great number of experiments, that some clouds were in a positive, and some in a negative, state of electricity. Dr Franklin, much about the same time, made the like discovery in America. This circumstance, together with our author's constant defence of the doctor's hypothesis, induced that excellent philosopher, immediately on his arrival in England, to pay Mr Canton a visit, and gave rise to a friendship which ever after continued without diminution. In the "Lady's Diary for 1756," our author answered the prize question that had been proposed in the preceding year; viz. "How can what we call the shooting of stars be best accounted for; what is the substance of this phenomenon; and in what state of the atmos-

phere doth it most frequently show itself?" The solution, though anonymous, was so satisfactory to his friend, Mr Thomas Simpson, who then conducted that work, that he sent Mr Canton the prize, accompanied with a note, in which he said he was sure that he was not mistaken in the author of it, as no one besides, that he knew of, could have answered the question. Our philosopher's next communication to the public, was a letter in the "Gentleman's Magazine for Sept. 1759," on the electrical properties of the tourmalin, in which the laws of that wonderful stone are laid down in a very concise and elegant manner. On December 13th, in the same year, was read at the Royal Society, "An attempt to account for the regular diurnal variation of the Horizontal Magnetic Needle; and also for its irregular variation at the time of an Aurora Borealis." A complete year's observations of the diurnal variations of the needle are annexed to the paper. On Nov. 5. 1761, he communicated to the Royal Society an account of the Transit of Venus, June 6, 1761, observed in Spital-square. His next communication was a letter addressed to Dr Benjamin Franklin, and read Feb. 2, 1762, containing some remarks on Mr Delaval's electrical experiments. On Dec. 16. 1762, another curious addition was made by him to philosophical knowledge, in a paper, intitled, "Experiments to prove that water is not incompressible." These experiments are a complete refutation of the famous Florentine experiment, which so many philosophers have mentioned as a proof of the incompressibility of water. On St Andrew's day 1763, he was elected the 3d time one of the council of the Royal Society; and on Nov. 8. in the following year, were read, before that learned body, his farther "Experiments and observations on the compressibility of water, and some other fluids." The establishment of this fact, in opposition to the received opinion, formed on the hasty decision of the Florentine academy, was thought to be deserving of the Society's gold medal. It was accordingly moved for in the council of 1764; and after several invidious delays, which terminated much to the honour of Mr Canton, it was presented to him Nov. 30. 1765. His next communication to the Royal Society, was on Dec. 22, 1768. "An easy method of making a Phosphorus, that will imbibe and emit light like the Bolognian stone; with experiments and observations." When he first showed to Dr Franklin the instantaneous light acquired by some of this phosphorus from the near discharge of an electrified bottle, the doctor immediately exclaimed, "And God said, let there be light, and there was light." The dean and chapter of St Paul's having in a letter to the president, dated March 6, 1769, requested the opinion of the Royal Society relative to the best and most effectual method of fixing electrical conductors to preserve that cathedral from damage by lightning, Mr Canton was one of the committee appointed to take the letter into consideration, and to report their opinion upon it. The other members were, Dr Watson, Dr Franklin, Mr Delaval, and Mr Wilson. Their report was made on the 8th of June following; and the mode recommended by them has been carried into execution. The

last paper of our author's, which was read before the Royal Society, was on Dec. 21, 1769; and contained "Experiments to prove that the Luminousness of the Sea arises from the putrefaction of its animal substances." Besides the above he wrote a number of papers, which appeared in different publications, particularly the Gentleman's Magazine. Mr Canton's close and sedentary life, arising from an unremitted attention to the duties of his profession, and to the prosecution of his philosophical enquiries and experiments, probably contributed to shorten his days. He fell into a dropsy, which carried him off, March 22, 1772, in the 54th year of his age.

* *To CANTON. v. a.* [from the noun.] To divide into little parts:—Families shall quit all subjection to him, and *canton* his empire into less governments for themselves. *Locke*.—It would certainly be for the good of mankind, to have all the mighty empires and monarchies of the world *canton*ed out into petty states and principalities. *Addison on Italy*.—The late king of Spain, reckoning it an indignity to have his territories *canton*ed out into parcels by other princes, during his own life, and without his consent, rather chose to bequeath the monarchy entire to a younger son of France. *Swift*.—They *canton* out to themselves a little province in the intellectual world, where they fancy the light shines, and all the rest is in darkness. *Watts on the Mind*.

CANTONING, in the military art, is the allotting distinct and separate quarters to each regiment; the town where they are quartered being divided into as many cantons as there are regiments.

* *To CANTONIZE. v. a.* [from *canton*.] To parcel out into small divisions.—Thus was all Ireland *cantonized* among ten persons of the English nation. *Davies on Ireland*.—The whole forest was in a manner *cantonized* amongst a very few in number, of whom some had regal rights. *Howell*.

CANTREBYCHAN, a town E. of Caermarthen.
(1.) * *CANTRED. n. f.* The same in Wales as an *hundred* in England. For *cantre*, in the British language, signifieth an hundred. *Coewel*.—The king regrants to him all that province, reserving only the city of Dublin, and the *cantreds* next adjoining, with the maritime towns. *Davis on Ireland*.

(2.) *CANTRED*, or } is a British word, compounded of the adjective *cant*, i. e. hundred; and *tref*, a town or village.

CANTREFF, }

CANTRENAW, a town, N. of Caermarthen.
CANT-TIMBERS, in ship-building, those timbers which are situated at the two ends of a ship. They derive their name from being *canted*, or raised obliquely from the keel; in contradistinction from those whose planes are perpendicular to it. The upper ends of those on the bow, or fore part of the ship, are inclined to the stern; as those in the after, or hind part, incline to the stern-post above. See SHIP-BUILDING.

CANTYRE. See KINTYRE.

CANTZ, a town of Silesia in Germany. Lon. 16. 36. E. Lat. 51. 6. N.

(1.) *CANVAS*, in commerce, 1. a very clear unbleached cloth of hemp, or flax, wove regularly in little squares. It is used for working tapestry with the needle, by passing the threads of gold,

silver, silk, or wool, through the intervals or squares. 2. A coarse cloth of hemp, unbleached, somewhat clear, which serves to cover women's stays; to stiffen men's clothes, and to make some other of their wearing apparel, &c.

(2.) *CANVAS*, among painters, is the cloth on which they usually draw their pictures; the *canvas* being smoothed over with a slick-stone, then sized, afterwards whited over, makes what the painters call their *primed cloth*, on which they draw their first sketches with coal or chalk, and afterwards finish with colours.

(3.) *CANVAS* is also used among the French for the model or first words whereon an air or piece of music is composed, and given to a poet to regulate and finish. The *canvas* of a song contains certain notes of the composer, which show the poet the measure of the verses he is to make. Thus Du Lot says, he has *canvas* for ten sonnets against the Muses.

(4.) * *CANVASS. n. f.* [*canecas*, Fr. *canavie*, Lat. hemp.] 1. A kind of linen cloth woven for several uses, as sails, painting cloths, tents.—The master commanded forthwith to set on all the *canvasses* they could, and fly homeward. *Sidney*—

And eke the pens that did his pinions bend,
Were like main yards with flying *canvasses* bent.

Their *canvasses* castles up they quickly rear,
And build a city in an hour's space. *Fletcher*.

Where-e'er thy navy spreads her *canvasses* wide,
Homage to thee, and peace to all the bays. *Marvell*.

With such kind passion hastes the prince to fight,

And spreads his flying *canvasses* to the Sound:

Him whom no danger, were he there, could fright;

Now absent, every little noise can wound. *Dryden*.

Thou, Kneller, long with noble pride,

The foremost of thy art, hast vy'd

With nature in a generous strife,

And touch'd the *canvasses* into life. *Addison*.

2. The act of sifting voices, or trying them previously to the decisive act of voting: [from *canvas*, as it signifies a sieve.] There be that can play cards, and yet cannot play well: so there are some that are good in *canvasses* and factions, that are otherwise weak men. *Bacon*.

(1.) * *To CANVASS. v. a.* [*Sollicit* derives it from *canuabasser*, Fr. to beat hemp; which being a very laborious employment, it is used to signify, to search diligently into.] 1. To sift; to examine: from *canvass*, a straining cloth.—I have made careful search on all hands, and *canvassed* the matter with all possible diligence. *Woodward*. 2. To debate; to discuss.—The cures discovered a raw ulcer in the bottom of a river, and laid their heads together how to come at it: they *canvassed* the matter one way and another, and concluded, that the way to get it, was to drink their way to it. *L'Estrange*.

(2.) * *To CANVASS. v. n.* To solicit; to try votes previously to the decisive act.—Elizabeth being to resolve upon an officer, and being, by some that *canvassed* for others, put in some doubt of that person she meant to advance, said, she was like one with a lanthorn seeking a man. *Bacon*.—This crime of *canvassing*, or soliciting for church preferment

reformation, is, by the canon law, called simony. *Life's Paragon.*

CANVEY, an isle in the county of Essex, opposite to the Hope, about 5 miles long, from Isle Haven to Leigh; upon which great numbers of sheep are fed. It is often overflowed by the Thames, which at this place is 2 miles broad; except the hilly part, to which the sheep retire. A fair is held upon it, June 25.

CANULA. See CANNULA.

CANUSIUM, in ancient geography, a town of Apulia, on the S. side of the Aufidus, W. of Canusium; whither the Romans fled after the defeat sustained there. It was founded by Diomedes, and afterwards became a Roman colony. It was famous for its red shining wool; whence those who wore clothes made of it were called *Canusinati*. It is now called CANOSA; which see.

CANUTE, the first Danish king of England. He married Emma widow of king Ethelred; and put to death several persons of quality who stood in his way to the crown. Having thus settled his power in England, he made a voyage to his other kingdom of Denmark, in order to resist the attacks of the king of Sweden; and he carried along with him a great body of the English under the command of earl Godwin. This nobleman had here an opportunity of performing a service by which he both reconciled the king's mind to the English nation, and, gaining to himself the friendship of his sovereign, laid the foundation of that immense fortune which he acquired to his family. He was stationed next the Swedish camp; and, observing a favourable opportunity, he attacked the enemy in the night, drove them from their trenches, and obtained a decisive victory over them. Next morning, Canute, seeing the English camp entirely abandoned, imagined that these disaffected troops had deserted to the enemy; but he was agreeably surprised to find that they were engaged in pursuit of the discomfited Swedes. He was so pleased with this success, and the manner of obtaining it, that he bestowed his daughter in marriage upon Godwin, and treated him ever after with the most entire confidence. In another voyage which he afterwards made to Denmark, Canute attacked Norway, and expelled the just but unwarlike Olaus from his kingdom, of which he kept possession till the death of that prince. He had now by his conquests and valour obtained the utmost height of his ambition; and having leisure from wars and intrigues, he felt the unsatisfactory nature of all human enjoyments; and, equally weary of the glory and turmoils of this life, he began to cast his view towards that future existence which is so natural for the human mind, whether satiated by prosperity or disgusted with adversity, to make the object of its attention. Unfortunately the spirit which prevailed in that age gave a wrong direction to his devotion; and, instead of making atonement to those whom he had formerly injured by his acts of violence, he entirely employed himself in those exercises of piety which the monks represented as most meritorious. He built churches, endowed monasteries, enriched ecclesiastics, and bestowed revenues for the support of chantries, where he appointed prayers to be said for the souls of those who had fallen in

battle against him. He even undertook a pilgrimage to Rome, and, besides obtaining from the Pope some privileges for the English school erected there, he engaged all the princes through whose dominions he passed, to desist from those heavy impositions which they were accustomed to exact from the English pilgrims. By this spirit of devotion, no less than by his equitable administration, he gained in a good measure the affections of his subjects. Being the most powerful prince of his time, sovereign of Denmark, Norway and England, he could not fail to meet with adulation from his courtiers; a tribute which is liberally paid even to the meanest and weakest of princes. Some of his flatterers, breaking out one day in admiration of his grandeur, exclaimed, that every thing was possible for him: upon which the monarch, it is said, ordered a chair to be set on the sea shore while the tide was making; and, as the waters approached, he commanded them to retire, and to obey the voice of him who was lord of the ocean. He feigned to sit some time in expectation of their submission; but when the sea still advanced towards him, and began to wash him with its billows, he turned to his courtiers, and remarked to them, That every creature in the universe was feeble and impotent, and that power resided with one Being alone, in whose hands were all the elements of nature, who could say to the ocean, "Thus far shalt thou go, and no farther," and who could level with his nod the most towering piles of human pride and ambition. From that time, it is said, he never would wear a crown. He died in the 20th year of his reign; and was interred at Winchester.

CANWELL, a village in Staffordshire, 3 miles S. W. of Tamworth.

CANWICK, a town near Lincoln.

* CANY. *adj.* [from *cane*.] 1. Full of canes.
2. Consisting of canes.—

But in his way lights on the barren plains
Of Sericana, where Chineses drive,

With sails and wind, their *cany* waggons light.
Milton.

CANYEKE, the N. W. point of the Land's End, Cornwall.

CANYFORK, a short navigable river of the United States, in Tennessee, which rises on the W. side of the Cumberland mountains, and running N. W. falls into Cumberland river, 50 miles above Nashville.

CANZONE, in music, signifies, in general, a song, where some little fugues are introduced: but it is sometimes used for a sort of Italian poem, usually pretty long, to which music may be composed in the stile of a cantata. If this term be added to a piece of instrumental music, it signifies much the same as cantata: if placed in any part of a sonata, it implies the same meaning as *allegro*, and only denotes that the part to which it is prefixed is to be played or sung in a brisk and lively manner.

* CANZONET. *n. f.* [*canzonetta*, Ital.] A little song.—Vecchi was most pleasing of all others, for his conceit and variety, as well his madrigals as *canzonets*. *Peacham.*

CANZONETTA, a diminutive of canzone, denoting a little short song. The *canzonette* neapo-

Greeks, where, as well during the last six ages, they were known. The kind of caps on which they used in use among the Romans on divers occasions were the *strophion*. Sometimes, instead of this, they used a kind of bright red hair, the lustre whereof was their attire. In winter they wear a *paludamentum*.

rest, like those for the summer. These caps are frequently sold for 8 or 10 crowns; but they are so short, that the ears are exposed. The cap is sometimes used as a mark of infamy; in Italy the Jews are distinguished by a yellow cap; at Lucca by an orange one. In France, by the ci devant laws, those who had been bankrupts were obliged ever after to wear a green cap, to prevent people from being imposed on in any future commerce. By several arrests, in 1584, 1622, 1628, 1638, it was decreed, that if they were at any time found without their green cap, their protection should be null, and their creditors empowered to cast them into prison; but these laws were become obsolete before the revolution.

(6.) CAPS OF MAINTENANCE. See § 1. *def.* 7. Caps of maintenance are also carried before the mayors of the several cities in England.

* *To CAP. v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To cover on the top.—The bones next the joint are *capped* with a smooth cartilaginous substance, serving both to strength and motion. *Darwin.* 2. To deprive of the cape.—If one, by another occasion, take any thing for another, as boys sometimes use to *cap* one another, the same is straight felony. *Spenser on Ireland.* 3. *To cap verses.* To name alternately verses beginning with a particular letter; to name in opposition or emulation; to name alternately in contest.—

Where Henderson, and th' other masses,
Were sent to *cap* texts, and put cases. *Hudibras.*
—Sure it is a pitiful pretence to ingenuity, that can be thus kept up, there being little need of any other faculty but memory, to be able to *cap* texts. *Government of the Tongue.*—There is an authour of ours, whom I would desire him to read, before he ventures at *capping* characters. *Literbury.*

* CAPABILITY. *n. f.* [from *capable*.] Capacity; the quality of being capable.—

Sure he that made us with such large discourse,
Looking before, and after gave us not
That *capability* and godlike reason
To rust in us unus'd. *Shakespeare.*

* CAPABLE. *adj.* [capable, Fr.] 1. Sufficient to contain; sufficiently capacious.—When we consider so much of that space, as is equal to, or *capable* to receive a body of any assigned dimensions. *Locke.* 2. Endued with powers equal to any particular thing.—To say, that the more *capable*, or the better deserver, hath such right to govern, as he may compulsorily bring under the less worthy, is idle. *Bacon.*—When you hear any person give his judgment, consider with yourself whether he be a *capable* judge. *Watts.* 3. Intelligent; able to understand.—

Look you, how pale he glares;
His form and cause conjoined, preaching to
stones,

Would make them *capable*, *Shakespeare. Hamlet.*

4. Intellectually capacious; able to receive.—I am much bound to God, that he hath endued you with one *capable* of the best instructions. *Digby.*

5. Susceptible.—

The soul, immortal substance to remain,
Conscious of joy, and *capable* of pain. *Prior.*

6. Qualified for; without any natural impediment.—

There is no man that believes the goodness of God, but must be inclined to think, that he hath made some things for as long a duration as they are *capable* of. *Tillotson.* 7. Qualified for; with legal impediment.—

Of my land,
Loyal and natural boy I'll work the means
To make thee *capable*. *Shakespeare. King Lear.*

8. It has the particle *of* before a noun.—

What secret springs their eager passions move,
How *capable* of death for injur'd love!
Dryden's Virgil.

9. Hollow. This sense is not now in use.—

Lean but upon a rush,
The cicatrice, and *capable* impresseure,
Thy palm some moments keeps.
Shakespeare. As you like it.

* CAPABLENESS. *n. f.* [from *capable*.] The quality or state of being capable; knowledge; understanding; power of mind.

CAPACIO, an episcopal town of Italy, in Naples. Lon. 15. 18. E. Lat. 40. 40. N.

* CAPACIOUS. *adj.* [capax, Lat.] 1. Wide; large; able to hold much.—

Beneath th' incessant weeping of those drains,
I see the rocky Siphons stretch'd immense,
The mighty reservoirs of harden'd chalk,
Or stiff compacted clay, *capacious* found.

Thomson's Autumn.
2. Extensive; equal to much knowledge, or great design.—There are some persons of a good genius, and a *capacious* mind, who write and speak very obscurely. *Watts.*

* CAPACIOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *capacious*.] The power of holding or receiving; largeness.—A concave measure, of known and denominate capacity, serves to measure the *capaciousness* of any other vessel. In like manner, to a given weight, the weight of all other bodies may be reduced, and so found out. *Holder on Time.*

* *To CAPACITATE. v. a.* [from *capacity*.] To make capable; to enable; to qualify.—By this instruction we may be *capacitated* to observe those errors. *Dryden.*—These sort of men were sycophants only, and were endued with arts of life, to *capacitate* them for the conversation of the rich and great. *Tatler.*

(1.) * CAPACITY. *n. f.* [capacitè, Fr.] 1. The power of holding or containing any thing.—

Had our palace the *capacity*
To camp this host, we would all sup together.
Shakespeare.

Notwithstanding thy *capacity*
Receiveth as the sea, nought enters there,
Of what validity and pitch so'er,
But falls into abatement and low price.

Shakespeare. Tw. Night.
For they that most and greatest things embrace,

Enlarge thereby their mind's *capacity*,
As streams enlarg'd; enlarge the channel's space.
Darwin.

—Space, considered in length, breadth, and thickness, I think, may be called *capacity*. *Locke.* 2. Room; space.—There remained, in the *capacity* of the exhausted cylinder, store of little rooms, or spaces, empty or devoid of air. *Boyle.* 3. The force

publications of the present literary æra, a more singular composition than that "Introduction." In style and manner, it is more obsolete and antique, than the age of which it treats. It is Lord Herbert of Cherbury, walking the new pavement in all the trappings of romance; but, like Lord Herbert, it displays many valuable qualities accompanying this air of extravagance, much sound sense, and appropriate erudition. In the title page of "Mr William Shakespeare his Comedies, Histories and Tragedies," it was also announced and promulgated, "Whereunto will be added, some other volumes, notes critical and explanatory, and a body of various readings entire." "The Introduction" likewise declared, that these "notes and various readings" would be accompanied with another work, disclosing the sources from which Shakespeare "drew the greater part of his knowledge in mythological and classical matters, his fable, his history, and even the seeming peculiarities of his languages—to which," says Mr Capell, "we have given for title, The School of Shakespeare." Nothing surely could be more properly conceived than such designs, nor have we ever met with any thing better grounded on the subject of "the learning of Shakespeare" than what may be found in the long note to this part of Mr Capell's Introduction. It is more solid than even the popular "Essay" on this topic. Certain quaintnesses of style, and peculiarities of printing and punctuation, attended the whole of this publication. The outline, however, was correct; and the critic, with unremitting toil, proceeded in this undertaking. But while he was diving into the classics of Caxton (to continue the Reviewers account,) and working his way underground, like the river Mole, in order to emerge with all his glories; while he was looking forward to his triumphs; certain other active spirits went to work upon his plan, and, digging out the promised treasures, laid them prematurely before the public, defeating the effect of our critic's discoveries by anticipation. Steevens, Malone, Farmer, Percy, Reed, and a whole host of literary ferrets, burrowed into every hole and corner of the warren of modern antiquity, and over-ran all the country, whose map had been delineated by Edward Capell. Such a contingency nearly staggered the steady and unshaken perseverance of our critic, at the very eve of the completion of his labours, (for, alas! at the end of near 40 years, the publication was posthumous, and the critic himself no more!) and he was almost determined to lay the work wholly aside. He persevered, however, by the encouragement of some noble and worthy persons; and in 1783, appeared 3 large volumes in 4to, entitled "Notes and various readings of Shakespeare; together with the School of Shakespeare, or Extracts from divers English books, that were in print in the Author's time; evidently showing from whence his several Fables were taken, and some parcel of his Dialogue. Also farther Extracts, which contribute to a due understanding of his Writings or give a light to the History of his Life, or to the Dramatic History of his Time." Mr Capell was also the editor of a volume of ancient poems, called "Prologues;" and the alteration of Antony and Cleo-

patra," as acted at Drury Lane, in 1758. He died Jan. 24, 1781.

CAPELLA, in astronomy, a bright fixed star in the left shoulder of the constellation Auriga.

CAPELLAR HILL, in Herefordsh. near Brockhampton.

CAPELLA ST SPIRITOUS, in W. Medina, Isle of Wight.

CAPELLE, a town of France, in the department of Aisne, and ci-devant province of Picardy, 8 m. N. E. of Guise. It was taken by the Spaniards in 1636; but retaken the year after. Lon. 3. 59. E. Lat. 49. 58. N.

CAPELLETS, in farriery. See FARRIERY.

CAPELLUS, Lewis, an eminent French Protestant divine, born at Sedan, about 1579. He was author of some learned works; but is chiefly known from the controversy he engaged in with the younger Buxtorf concerning the antiquity of Hebrew points, which Capellus undertook to disprove. His *Critica Sacra* was also an elaborate work, and excited some disputes. He died in 1658, having made an abridgement of his life in his work *De gente Capellorum*.

CAPE LOOK OUT. See LOOK-OUT.

CAPEL'S COURT, a village of Kent, in Romney marsh, near Ivy church.

CAPE MAY. See MAY.

CAPE NEWENHAM. See NEWENHAM.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE. See GOOD HOPE.

CAPE OX, or BUFFALO. See BOS, N° IV. § vi.

(1.) * CAPER. *n. f.* [from *caper*, Latin, a goat.] A leap; a jump; a skip.—We that are true lovers, run into strange *capers*; but as all is mortal in nature, so is all nature in love mortal in folly. *Shakesp. As you like it*.—Flinnap, the treasurer, is allowed to cut a *caper* on the strait rope, at least an inch higher than any other lord in the whole empire. *Swift's Gulliver's Travels*.

(2.) * CAPER. *n. f.* [*capparis*, Lat.] An acid pickle. See CAPER-BUSH.—We invent new sauces and pickles, which resemble the animal ferment in taste and virtue, as mangoes, olives, and capers. *Floyer on the Humours*.

(3.) CAPER. See CAPPARIS.

(4.) CAPER, in shipping, a vessel used by the Dutch for cruising and taking prizes from the enemy; in which sense, caper amounts to the same with privateer. Capers are commonly double officered, and crowded with hands even beyond the rates of ships of war, because the thing chiefly in view is boarding the enemies.

(5.) CAPER BEAN. See ZYGOPHYLLUM.

(6.) * CAPER BUSH. *n. f.* [*capparis*, Lat.] The fruit is fleshy, and shaped like a pear. This plant grows in the South of France, in Spain and Italy, upon old walls and buildings; and the buds of the flowers, before they are open, are pickled for eating. *Miller*.

* To CAPER. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To dance frolicsomely.—The truth is, I am only old in judgment; and he that will *caper* with me for a thousand marks, let him lend me the money, and have at him. *Shakesp. Henry IV.* 2. To skip for merriment.—

Our master

Cap'ring to eye her.

Shakesp. Tempest.
His

celebrated every 5 years, and became so famous, that, instead of calculating time by lustra, they began to count by Capitoline games, as the Greeks did by Olympiads. However, this custom was not of long continuance.

CAPITOLINI, in Roman antiquity, a college of men residing in the capitol, to whom was committed the care of the **CAPITOLINE GAMES**.

(1.) **CAPITOLINUS**, a mountain of Rome, on which the capitol was built.

(2.) **CAPITOLINUS**, an epithet of Jupiter.

(3.) **CAPITOLINUS**, Julius, an historian in the beginning of the 4th century under Dioclesian, to whom he inscribed the Lives of Verus, Antoninus Pius, Claudius, Balbinus, Macrinus, the Maximins, and the Gordians. He wrote other lives, which are most of them lost.

CAPITOUL, or **CAPITOL**, an appellation given, before the French revolution, to the chief magistrates of Thoulouse, who had the administration of justice and policy in the city. They were much the same with the consuls, bailiffs, burgo masters, mayors, and aldermen, &c. in other cities. In ancient acts they were called *consules capitularii* or *capitolini*, and their body **CAPITULUM**. They had the custody of the town-house, which was anciently called *capitol*. The office only lasted 1 year, ennobled the bearers, and entitled them to the *jus imaginum*; i. e. when their administration expired their pictures were hung up in the town-house.

CAPITOULA TE, an appellation formerly given to the several districts of Thoulouse, under the direction of the capituols, much like the wards of London, under their aldermen. Thoulouse was divided into 8 *capitoulates*.

(1.) * **CAPITULAR**: *n. s.* [from *capitulum*, Lat. an ecclesiastical chapter] 1. A body of statutes, divided into chapters.—That this practice continued to the time of Charlemain, appears by a constitution in his *capitular*. *Taylor*. 2. A member of a chapter.—Canonists do agree, that the chapter makes decrees and statutes, which shall bind the chapter itself, and all its members or *capitulars*. *Ayliffe's Parergon*.

(2.) **CAPITULAR**, or } denotes an act passed in a
CAPITULARY; } chapter, either of knights,
canons, or religious. The capitulars of Charlemagne, Charles the Bald, &c. are the laws, both ecclesiastical and civil, made by those emperors in the general assemblies of the people; which was the way in which the constitutions of most of the ancient princes were made; each person present, though a plebeian, setting his hand to them. They had their name from being divided into *capitula*, chapters, or sections. In these capitulars did the whole French jurisprudence anciently consist.

* **To CAPITULATE**. *v. n.* [from *capitulum*, Lat.] 1. To draw up any thing in heads or articles.—

Percy, Northumberland,

f The archbishop of York, Douglas, and Mortimer,
2 *Capitulate* against us, and are up. *Shak. Hen. IV.*

3 To yield, or surrender up, on certain stipulations.—The king took it for a great indignity, that thieves should offer to *capitulate* with him as enemies. *Hayward*.—I still pursued, and, about two o'clock this afternoon, she thought fit to *capitulate*. *Spectator*.

(1.) * **CAPITULATION**. *n. s.* [from *capitulatio*.] Stipulation; terms; conditions.—It was not a complete conquest, but rather a dedition upon terms and *capitulations*, agreed between the conqueror and the conquered; wherein, usually, the yielding party secured themselves their law and religion. *Hale*.

(2.) **CAPITULATION**, in military affairs, a treaty made between the inhabitants or garrison of a place besieged and the besiegers, for the delivering up the place on certain conditions. The most honourable terms of capitulation are, To march out at the breach with arms and baggage, drums beating, colours flying, a match lighted at both ends, and some pieces of cannon, waggons and convoys for their baggage, and for their sick and wounded.

(3.) **CAPITULATION**, in the German polity, a contract which the emperor makes with the electors, in the name of all the princes and states in the empire, before he is declared emperor, and which he ratifies before he is raised to that sovereign dignity. The principal points which the emperor undertakes to observe are, 1. To defend the church and empire. 2. To observe the fundamental laws of the empire. And, 3. To preserve the rights, privileges, and immunities of the electors, princes, and other states of the empire, specified in the capitulation. These capitulations are presented to the emperor by the electors only, without the concurrence of the other states, who have complained from time to time of such proceedings; and in the time of the Westphalian treaty, in 1648, it was proposed to deliberate in the following diet, upon a way of making a perpetual capitulation; but the electors have always found means to elude the execution of this article. In order, however, to give some satisfaction to their adversaries, they have inserted in the capitulations of the emperors, a promise to use all their influence to bring the affair of a perpetual capitulation to a conclusion. Some German authors own, that this capitulation limits the emperor's power; but maintain that it does not weaken his sovereignty: though the most part maintain that he is not absolute, because he receives the empire under conditions, which sets bounds to an absolute authority.

(1.) **CAPITULUM**, in ecclesiastical writers, denoted part of a chapter of the bible read and explained; whence *ire ad capitulum*, to go to such a lecture. Afterwards the place where such exercises were performed was named *domus capituli*.

(2.) **CAPITULUM**, in the ancient military art, was a transverse beam, wherein were holes through which passed the strings whereby the arms of huge engines, as balistæ, catapultæ, and scorpions, were played, or worked.

(3.) **CAPITULUM**. See **BOTANY**, *Index* and *Glossary*.

* **CAPIVI TREE**. *n. s.* [*copaiba*, Lat.] This tree grows near a village called Ayapel, in the province of Antiochi, in the Spanish West Indies, about ten days journey from Carthagena. Some of them do not yield any of the balsam; those that do are distinguished by a ridge which runs along their trunks. These trees are wounded in their centre, and they apply vessels to the wounded part, to re-

ceive the balsam. One of these trees will yield five or six gallons of balsam. *Miller.*

CAPLE, *n. f. obs.* a horse. *Clauc.*

CAPNICON, chimney money, a tax which the eastern emperors levied for smoke, and which of consequence was due from all, even the poorest, who kept a fire. It was first exacted by Nicephorus.

CAPNITIS. See CADMIA, § I. i. N° 3.

CAPNOIDES, in botany. See FUMARIA.

CAPNOMANCY, [from καπνός, smoke, and μαντις, divination,] a kind of divination by means of smoke, used by the ancients in their sacrifices. The general rule was, when the smoke was thin, and light, and rose straight up, it was a good omen: if the contrary, it was an ill one. There was also a species of capnomancy, consisting in the observation of the smoke rising from poppy and jessamin seed, cast upon light coals.

CAPO, or CAPO OF ISTRIA, a considerable town of Italy, in Istria, on the gulph of Trieste, lately subject to the Venetians, and now composing part of the new republic. The air is wholesome and temperate; its principal trade consists in wine and salt. Lon. 14. 0. E. Lat. 45. 48. N.

CAPOC, in commerce, a sort of cotton so fine and so short, that it cannot be spun. It is used in the East Indies to line palanquins, to make beds, mattrasses, cushions, pillows, &c.

* To CAPOCH. *v. a.* I know not distinctly what this word means; perhaps to strip off the hood.—

Capoch'd your rabins of the synod

And snapt the canons with a why not. *Hudibras.*

(1.) CAPO FINO, a large barren rock in the territory of the Genoese, which has a castle on its eastern peak.

(2.) CAPO FINO, a small harbour 13 miles E. by S. of Genoa, near the above rock, N° 1.

(1.) * CAPON. *n. f.* [*capo*, Lat.] A castrated cock.—

In good roast beef my landlord sticks his knife;
The capon fat delights his dainty wife. *Gay's Past.*

(2.) CAPON is a cock chicken, gelded as soon as left by the dam, or as soon as he begins to crow. Capons are of use either to lead chickens, ducklings, pheasants, &c. and defend them from the kites and buzzards; or to feed for the table, being reckoned more delicate than either a cock or a hen.

* CAPONNIERE. *n. f.* [Fr. A term in fortification.] A covered lodgment, of about 4 or 5 feet broad, encompassed with a little parapet of about 2 feet high, serving to support planks laden with earth. This lodgment contains 15 or 20 soldiers, and is usually placed at the extremity of the counter-scarp, having little embrasures made in them, through which they fire. *Harris.*

* CAPOT. *n. f.* [Fr.] Is when one party wins all the tricks of cards at the game of picquet.

* To CAPOT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] When one party has won all the tricks of cards at picquet, he is said to have capotted his antagonist.

* CAPOUCH. *n. f.* [*capuce*, Fr.] A monk's hood. *D.H.*

CAPPA, a village of Ireland, in Waterford, Munster, N. of Whitechurch.

CAPPADINE, in commerce, a sort of silk flock, taken from the upper part of the silk worm cod,

after the true silk has been wound off. Slight stuffs called LASSIS and CARBASS, are made of it.

CAPPADOCIA, an ancient kingdom of Asia, comprehending all that country which lies between mount Taurus and the Euxine sea. It was divided by the Persians into two satrapies or governments; by the Macedonians into two kingdoms: viz.

1. CAPPADOCIA AD PONTUM, more commonly called *Pontus*. See PONTUS.

2. CAPPADOCIA AD TAURUM, } CAPPADOCIA
CAPPADOCIA MAGNA, or } properly so
called, lies between 38° and 41° Lat. N. It was bounded by Pontus on the N. Lycaonia and part of Armenia Major on the S. Galatia on the W. and by Euphrates and part of Armenia Minor on the E. The first king of Cappadocia we read of was Pharnaces, who was raised to the crown by Cyrus king of Persia, who gave him his sister Atossa in marriage. He was killed in a war with the Hyrcanians. After him came a succession of 8 kings, of whom we know scarce any thing but that they continued faithful to the Persian interest. In the time of Alexander the Great, Cappadocia was governed by Ariarathes II. who, notwithstanding the vast conquests of the Macedonian monarch, continued faithful to the Persians. Alexander was prevented by death from invading his dominions; but Perdiccas marching against him with a powerful and well disciplined army, dispersed his forces, and having taken Ariarathes himself prisoner, crucified him, with all those of the royal blood whom he could get into his power. Diodorus, however, says, that he was killed in the battle. He is said to have reigned 82 years. His son Ariarathes III. having escaped the general slaughter, fled into Armenia, where he lay concealed, till the dissensions among the Macedonians gave him a fair opportunity of recovering his paternal kingdom. Amyntas, governor of Cappadocia, opposed him; but being defeated in a pitched battle, the Macedonians were obliged to abandon all the strong holds. Ariarathes, after a long and peaceable reign, left his kingdom to his son Ariaramnes II. He applied himself more to the arts of peace than war, in consequence of which Cappadocia flourished greatly during his reign. He was succeeded by his son Ariarathes IV. who proved a very warlike prince, and having overcome Arsaces, founder of the Parthian monarchy, considerably enlarged his own dominions. He was succeeded by Ariarathes V. who marrying the daughter of Antiochus the Great, entered into an alliance with that prince against the Romans; but Antiochus being defeated, Ariarathes was obliged to sue for peace, which he obtained, upon paying a fine of 200 talents. He afterwards assisted the republic with men and money against Perseus king of Macedon, on which account, he was by the senate honoured with the title of the *friend and ally of the Roman people*. He left the kingdom in a very flourishing condition to his son Mithridates, who on his accession took the name of Ariarathes VI. This prince (surnamed *Philopater*, from the filial respect and love he showed his father from his infancy) immediately renewed the alliance with Rome. Out of mere good-nature he restored Mithrobarzanes son to Ladriades

ades king of the Lesser Armenia to his father's kingdom, though he foresaw that the Armenians would lay hold of that opportunity to join Artaxias, who was then on the point of invading Cappadocia. These differences, however, were settled before they came to an open rupture, by the Roman legates; and Ariarathes seeing himself thus delivered from an impending war, by the mediation of the republic, presented the senate with a golden crown, and offered his service wherever they thought proper to employ him. The senate in return sent him a staff, and chair of ivory; which were presents usually bestowed on those only whom they looked upon as attached to their interest. Not long before this, Demetrius Soter king of Syria had offered Ariarathes his sister in marriage, the widow of Perseus king of Macedon: but this offer the king of Cappadocia declined for fear of offending the Romans; who reckoned him among the chief of their allies. Demetrius, incensed at the slight put upon his sister, set up a pretender to the throne, one Orophernes, a suppositious, or natural son of the deceased king. The Romans ordered Eumenes king of Pergamus to assist Ariarathes with all his forces: which he did, but to no purpose; for the confederates were overthrown by Demetrius, and Ariarathes was obliged to abandon the kingdom to his rival. This happened about A. A. C. 159; and the usurper immediately dispatched ambassadors to Rome with a golden crown. The senate declined accepting the present, till they heard his pretensions to the kingdom; and this Orophernes, by suborned witnesses, made appear so plain, that the senate decreed that Ariarathes and he should reign as partners; but next year Orophernes was driven out by Attalus brother to Eumenes, and his successor in the kingdom of Pergamus. Ariarathes, being thus restored, immediately demanded of the Priennians 400 talents of gold which Orophernes had deposited with them. They honestly replied, that as they had been trusted with the money by Orophernes, they could deliver it to none but himself, or such as came in his name. Upon this, the king entered their territories with an army, destroying all with fire and sword. The Priennians, however, still preserved their integrity; and though their city was besieged by the united forces of Ariarathes and Attalus, not only made an obstinate defence, but found means to restore the sum to Orophernes. At last they applied to the Romans for assistance, who enjoined the two kings to raise the siege, under pain of being declared enemies to the republic. Ariarathes immediately obeyed; and marching his army into Assyria, joined Alexander Balas against Demetrius, who, in the very first engagement, was slain, and his army entirely dispersed, Ariarathes having on that occasion given uncommon proofs of his courage and conduct. Some years after, a war breaking out between the Romans and Aristonicus who claimed the kingdom of Pergamus in right of his father, Ariarathes joined the former, and was slain in the same battle in which P. Crassus proconsul of Asia was taken, and the Roman army cut in pieces. He left six sons by his wife Laodice, on whom the Romans bestowed Lycaonia and Cilicia. But Laodice, fearing lest her children, when they

came of age, should take the government out of her hands, poisoned 5 of them, the youngest only having escaped her cruelty by being conveyed out of the kingdom. The monster herself was soon after put to death by her subjects, who could not bear her cruel and tyrannical government. She was succeeded by Ariarathes VII. who, soon after his accession, married another Laodice, daughter of Mithridates the Great, hoping to find in that prince a powerful friend to support him against Nicomedes king of Bithynia, who laid claim to part of Cappadocia. But Mithridates instead of assisting, procured one Gordius to poison his son-in-law; and, on his death, seized the kingdom, under pretence of maintaining the rights of the Cappadocians against Nicomedes, till the children of Ariarathes were in a condition to govern it. The Cappadocians at first fancied themselves obliged to their new protector; but, finding him unwilling to resign the kingdom to the lawful heir, they rose up in arms, and, driving out all his garrisons, placed Ariarathes VIII. eldest son of their deceased king, on the throne. The new prince found himself immediately engaged in a war with Nicomedes; but, being assisted by Mithridates, not only drove him out of Cappadocia, but stripped him of a great part of his hereditary dominions. On the conclusion of the peace, Mithridates, seeking for some pretence to quarrel with Ariarathes, insisted upon his recalling Gordius, who had murdered his father; which being rejected with abhorrence, a war ensued. Mithridates took the field first, in hopes of over-running Cappadocia before Ariarathes could be in a condition to make head against him; but, contrary to his expectation, he was met on the frontiers by the king of Cappadocia with an army no way inferior to his own. Hereupon he invited Ariarathes to a conference; and, in sight of both armies, stabbed him with a dagger, which he had concealed under his garment. This struck such terror into the Cappadocians, that they immediately dispersed, and gave Mithridates an opportunity of possessing himself of the kingdom without the least opposition. The Cappadocians, however, not able to endure the tyranny of his prefects, soon shook off the yoke; and recalling the king's brother, who had fled into the province of Asia, proclaimed him king. He was scarce seated on the throne, however, before Mithridates invaded the kingdom at the head of a very numerous army, and having drawn Ariarathes to a battle, defeated his army with great slaughter, and obliged him to abandon the kingdom. The unhappy prince soon after died of grief; and Mithridates bestowed the kingdom on his own son, who was then only 8 years old, giving him at the same time the name of Ariarathes X. But Nicomedes Philopater king of Bithynia, fearing lest Mithridates, having now got possession of the whole kingdom of Cappadocia, should invade his territories, suborned a youth to pass himself for the 3d son of Ariarathes, and to present to them a petition in order to be restored to his father's kingdom. With him he sent to Rome Laodice, sister of Mithridates, whom he had married after the death of her former husband Ariarathes. Laodice declared before the senate, that she had 3 sons by Ariarathes, and that

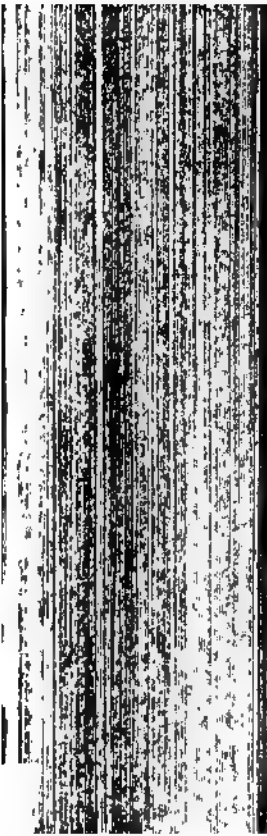
the petitioner was one of them; but that she had been obliged to keep him concealed, lest he should undergo the same fate with his brothers: whereupon the senate promised to reinstate him in his kingdom. But, Mithridates hearing of these transactions, dispatched Gordius to Rome, to deceive the senate, and to persuade them that the youth to whom he had resigned the kingdom of Cappadocia was the lawful son of the late king, and grandson to Ariarathes who had lost his life in the service of the Romans against Aristonicus. This unexpected embassy put the senate upon enquiring more narrowly into the matter, whereby the whole plot was discovered; upon which Mithridates was ordered to resign Cappadocia, and the kingdom was declared free. The Cappadocians, however, sent ambassadors to Rome, acquainting the senate that they could not live without a king. This surprised the Romans, who had such an aversion to royal authority: but they gave them leave to elect a king of their own nation. As the family of Pharnaces was now extinct, the Cappadocians chose Ariobarzanes; and their choice was approved by the senate, he having on all occasions shown himself a steady friend to the Romans. Ariobarzanes had scarce taken possession of his kingdom when he was driven out by Tigranes king of Armenia; who resigned Cappadocia to the son of Mithridates, in pursuance of an alliance previously concluded between the two parties. Ariobarzanes fled to Rome; and, having engaged the senate in his cause, he returned into Asia with Sylla, who was enjoined to restore him to his kingdom. This was easily performed by Sylla, who, with a small body of troops, routed Gordius at the head of a numerous army. Sylla, however, had scarce turned his back, when Ariobarzanes was again driven out by Ariarathes the son of Mithridates. Upon this Sylla returned to Asia, where his usual success attended him, and Ariobarzanes was again placed on the throne. After the death of Sylla, he was the 3d time forced by Mithridates to abandon his kingdom; but Pompey, having entirely defeated Mithridates near mount Stella, restored Ariobarzanes to his throne, and rewarded him for his services during the war, with the provinces of Sophene, Gordiene, and great part of Cilicia. The king, however, being now advanced in years, and desirous of spending the remainder of his life in ease, resigned the crown to his son Ariobarzanes, in presence of Pompey; and never afterwards troubled himself with affairs of state. Ariobarzanes II. proved no less faithful to the Romans than his father: On the breaking out of the civil war between Cæsar and Pompey, he sided with the latter; but after the death of Pompey, he was received into favour by Cæsar, who even bestowed upon him great part of Armenia. While Cæsar was engaged in a war with the Egyptians, Pharnaces king of Pontus invaded Cappadocia, and stripped Ariobarzanes of all his dominions; but Cæsar, having defeated Pharnaces, restored the king of Cappadocia, and honoured him with new titles of friendship. After the murder of Cæsar, Ariobarzanes, having refused to join Brutus and Cassius, was by them declared an enemy to the republic, and soon after taken prisoner and

put to death. He was succeeded by his brother Ariobarzanes III. who was by Marc Anthony deprived both of his kingdom and life; and in him ended the family of Ariobarzanes. Archelaus, the grandson of that general of the same name who commanded against Sylla in the Mithridatic war, was by Marc Anthony placed on the throne of Cappadocia, though nowise related either to the family of Pharnaces or Ariobarzanes. His preferment was entirely owing to his mother Glaphyra, a woman of great beauty, but of a loose behaviour, who, in her return for her compliance with the desires of Anthony, obtained the kingdom of Cappadocia for her son. In the war between Augustus and Anthony, he joined the latter; but at the intercession of the Cappadocians, was pardoned by the emperor. He afterwards received from him Armenia the Lesser, and Cilicia Trachæa, for having assisted the Romans in clearing the seas of pirates who greatly infested the coasts of Asia. He contracted a strict friendship with Herod the Great, king of Judæa; and married his daughter Glaphyra to Alexander, Herod's son. In the reign of Tiberius, Archelaus was summoned to appear before the senate; for he had always been hated by that emperor, because in his retirement at Rhodes he had paid him no sort of respect. This had proceeded from no aversion in him to Tiberius, but from the warning given Archelaus, by his friends at Rome. For Caius Cæsar, the presumptive heir to the empire, was then alive, and had been sent to compose the differences of the east, whence the friendship of Tiberius was then looked upon as dangerous. But when he came to the empire, Tiberius, remembering the disrespect shown him by Archelaus, enticed the latter to Rome by means of letters from Livia, who promised him her son Tiberius's pardon, provided he came in person to implore it. Archelaus obeyed the summons, and hastened to Rome; where he was received by the emperor with great wrath and contempt, and soon after accused as a criminal in the senate. The crimes of which he was accused were mere fictions; but his concern at seeing himself treated as a malefactor was so great, that he died soon after of grief, or, as others say, laid violent hands on himself. He is said to have reigned 50 years. On the death of Archelaus, Cappadocia was reduced to a Roman province, and governed by those of the equestrian order. It continued subject to the Romans till the invasion of the eastern empire by the Turks, to whom it is now subject. The Turks have four Beglerbeglics in it, called *Sivas*, *Trebizond*, *Marasch*, and *Cogni*.

CAPPADOCIANS, the ancient inhabitants of Cappadocia. These people, in the time of the Romans, bore so bad a character, and were reputed so lewd, that, among the neighbouring nations, a wicked man was emphatically called a *Cappadocian*. In after ages, however, their lewd disposition was so restrained by the pure doctrines of Christianity, that no country whatever has produced greater champions of the Christian religion, or given to the church prelates of more unblemished characters. We have no system of the Cappadocian laws, and scarce wherewithal to form any particular idea of them. They carried



SECRET



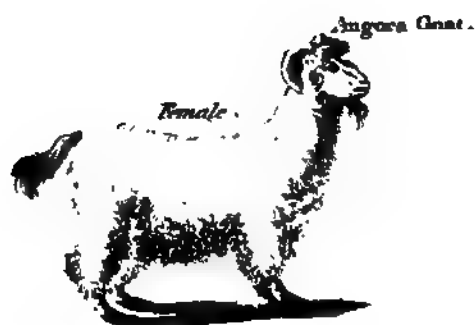
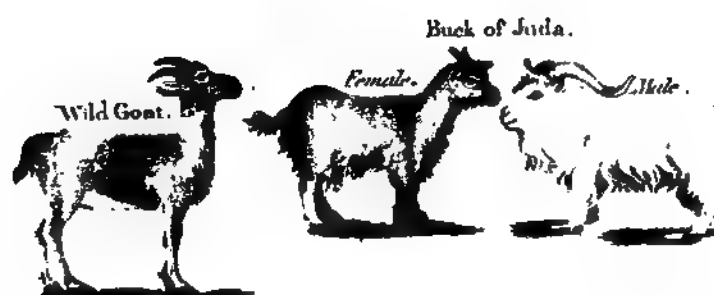
Harvested An



CAPRA.

PLATE.


Goat.

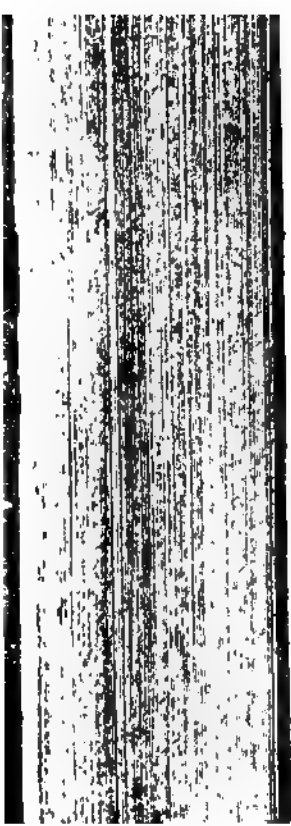


CAPEA.

Plate LIX

T. lach. l. alpi





on their way for
dross or moss, but
away from the
boxed at the
points. Of the
rd and chut
back the sides
the same
Along the
the hill, and
faded
seen. In
but a few
the
the
be
M
known
the
the
ag
as
He
let
show
one
lead
ft
II. CAPRA
white
of a
called
com
II. CAPRA
a
right
of
ma
B
be
by
II. CAPRA
from
The
w
m
The
The
and
No. IX
and
are
brown
wh
hom
with

the following is the most complete arrangement we can make out; of these animals, from the different zoological authors.

I. *CAPRA AGAGRUS* of Pallas and Gmelin; the *Cervicapra* of Kämpfer, and the Caucasian goat of Pennant and Zimmerman, has large smooth black horns, sharply ridged on their upper, and hollowed on their under surface. There are no vestiges of knots or rings, but on the upper surface are some wavy ridges; they bend much back, and are much hooked at the end, approaching a little at the points. On the chin is a great beard, dusky, mixed with chestnut. The fore part of the head is black, the sides mixed with brown; the rest of the animal grey; or grey mixed with rust colour. Along the middle of the back, from the neck to the tail, is a black list; and the tail is black. The female is either destitute of horns, or has very short ones. In size it is superior to the largest he goat, but in form and agility resembles a stag: yet Monardus compares it to the he-goat, and says that he has the feet of the goat. They inhabit the lower mountains of Caucasus and Taurus, all Asia Minor, and perhaps the mountains of India. They abound on the inhospitable hills of Lar and Khorazan in Persia; and, according to Monardus, are also found in Africa. It is an animal of vast agility. Monardus was witness to the manner of its saving itself from injury by falling on its horns: He saw one leap from a high tower, precipitate itself on its horns; then spring on its legs and leap about, without receiving the least harm. This is one of the species, which yields the once much valued alexipharmic, the Bezoar stone. See BEZOAR, § I. 2, 3.

II. *CAPRA AMMON* has semicircular, plain, white horns, and no beard. It is about the size of a ram, and is a native of Siberia. This animal is called the *wild sheep* by Mr Pennant, and is accordingly ranked as a species of *ovis* by Mr Kerr.

III. *CAPRA BEZOARTICA*, the BEZOAR GOAT, is bearded, and has long, wrinkled, slender, upright, tapering, sharp-pointed horns. It is a native of Persia. The bezoar is found in one of its stomachs, called *abomasus*. See ABOMASUM, and BEZOAR, § I. 2, 3. It has a red fur, with a white breast and belly; and is classed among the *antelopes*, by Drs Gmelin, Pallas, Pennant, &c.

IV. *CAPRA CAUCASICA*, the Caucasian goat, is described by Mr Kerr, as quite a different species from the Caucasian goat of Mr Pennant. See No. 1. "The horns are slightly triangular, knobbed on their anterior surface and arched backwards, considerably divaricating with their extremities turned inwards. It inhabits the bare, schistic, rocky summits of mount Caucasus, near the origin of the Terek and Chouban rivers. The horns of the male are of a dirty blackish colour, and much longer than those of the common goat, (No. IX.) those of the female are brownish, and much smaller. The upper parts of the body are a bright brownish grey, with a narrow dark brown line along the back; the under parts are whitish, and the limbs black. The hair is harsh, somewhat stiff, ash-coloured at the roots, and mixed with an ash-coloured wool. It is about the size of a common goat, with which, however, it

will not breed; and is rather shorter and broader in its general form."

V. *CAPRA CERVICAPRA*, the LIDMEE, or INDIAN ANTELOPE of Buffon, has long prominently annulated, tapering, plaited, cylindrical horns, and inhabits Barbary. The hair near the horns is longer than in any other part of the body. The females want horns. Mr Hasselquist gives the following account of this species: "The cervicapra is larger, swifter, and wilder, than the common rock goat, and can scarcely be taken without a falcon. It is met with near Aleppo. I have seen a variety of this, which is common in the East, and the horns appear different; perhaps it is a distinct species. This animal loves the smoke of tobacco; and, when caught alive, will approach the pipe of the huntsman, though otherwise more timid than any animal. This is perhaps the only creature, besides man, that delights in the smell of a poisonous and stinking plant. The Arabians hunt it with a falcon (*fulco gentilis*, Lin)." See HUNTING.

VI. *CAPRA DEPRESSA*, the African goat, has short thick triangular, depressed horns, bent inwards, lying on the head. It is about the size of a kid; and the hair is long and pendulous, rough in the male, but smooth in the female. The male has also two long hairy wattles below the chin.

VII. *CAPRA DORCAS*, the antelope, has cylindrical annulated horns, bent backward, contorted, and arising from the front between the eyes. It is a native of Africa and Mexico. These animals are of a most elegant and active make; of a restless and timid disposition; extremely watchful; of great vivacity; remarkably swift; exceedingly agile; and their boundings so light, and so elastic, as to strike the spectator with astonishment. What is very singular, they will stop in the middle of their course, for a moment gaze at their pursuers, and then resume their flight. The chase of these animals is a favourite diversion in the eastern nations, and affords proofs of the rapid speed of the antelope tribe. The grey-hound is unequal in the course; and the sportsman is obliged to call in the aid of the falcon trained to the work, to seize on the animal and impede its motions, to give the dog time to overtake it. In India and Persia, a sort of leopard is made use of in the chase: this animal takes its prey, not by swiftness of foot, but by the greatness of its springs, by motions similar to that of the antelope; but should the leopard fail in its first essay, the antelope escapes. The fleetness of this animal was proverbial even in the earliest times; the speed of Asahel is beautifully compared to that of the TZEBI; and the Gadites were said to be as swift as the roes upon the mountains. The sacred writers took their similes from objects familiar to the people they addressed. The disciple raised to life at Joppa was supposed to have been called *Tabitha* i. e. *Dorcas*, or the *Antelope*, from the beauty of her eyes; and this is still a common comparison in the east: where *Aine el Crazel*, i. e. you have eyes of an Antelope, is the greatest compliment that can be paid to a fine woman. Some species of antelopes form herds of 2000 or 3000, while others keep in small troops of 3 or 6. They generally reside in hilly countries; though

though some inhabit plains: they often browse like the goat, and feed on the tender shoots of trees, which gives their flesh an excellent flavour. This is to be understood of those that are taken in the chase; for those that are fattened in houses are far less delicious. The flesh of some species are said to taste of musk, which perhaps depends on the qualities of the plants they feed on. To the distinctive marks of the Antelope already given, we may add the following, as peculiarly characteristic of these animals, viz. that most of them have distinct lachrymal pits under the eyes; that they all have a plait of the skin sub-divided into several cells in the groins; brushes of hair on the knees, and beautiful black eyes: that in general their flesh is excellent, that none of the numerous tribe are to be found in America, and only two species, viz. the *Chamois* and the *Saiga*, (N^o XIV, and XV.) in Europe. Mr Kerr, who, as already observed, classes the antelope as a distinct genus, enumerates 29 species; among which he ranks the *BEZOARTICA*, *CERVICAPRA*, *GAZELLA*, and *TARTARICA*, of Linnæus. (See No. III, V, VIII, and XV.) But having adopted Linnæus's general classification of the whole under *CAPRA*, we shall here describe the remainder of these, as varieties of this species; adopting, however, Mr Kerr's descriptions in general, as well as most of his specific names; only substituting the Greek synonyme, *DORCAS*, of Linnæus, for the Latin, *ANTILOPE*, used by Mr Kerr.

1. *CAPRA DORCAS BUBALIS*, the *CERVINE ANTELOPE* of Pennant, or *Antelope Bubalis* of Pallas, has the horns thick, twisted spirally, annulated, bent in form of a lyre, (*i. e.* receding in the middle, approaching towards the summits, and again receding from each other,) almost straight and upright at their ends. The head is large, and like that of an ox: the eyes are placed very high, and near the horns: the form of the body is a mixture of the stag and heifer; the height to the top of the shoulders 4 feet: the tail is rather more than a foot long, asinine, and terminated with a tuft of hair: the colour a reddish brown; white about the rump, the inner side of the thighs, and lower part of the belly; a dark space occupies the top of the back, the front of the upper part of the fore legs, and hinder part of the thighs. It inhabits Barbary, and other parts of Africa, being also found towards the Cape of Good Hope. It is the *bekker el wash* of the Arabs, according to Dr Shaw; who says, that its young quickly grow tame, and herd with other cattle. Mr Forskal mentions it among the Arabian animals of an uncertain genus, by the name *bakar uash*. This is the *YACHMUR* of the Bible, and the *bubalus* of the ancients; not the *buffalo*, as later writers have supposed. The Dutch of the Cape call this species *hart-beest*. They go in great herds; a few only are solitary. They gallop seemingly with a heavy pace, yet go swiftly. They drop on their knees to fight, like the *NYL-GHAU*, (No. 14.) and the *Bosch-bok*, (No. 22.) The flesh is fine grained, but dry. Mr Sparman informs us, that in this animal there is a pore one line in diameter, an inch or an inch and a half below and before the internal angle of the eye. From this pore, which is the aperture of a caruncle that lies be-

low, there is secreted a matter almost like ear wax, which he observed the Hottentots keep in a piece of skin as a rare and excellent medicine: on the dried skin of the animal, this pore is scarcely to be discerned. This Mr Sparman supposes is the reason, why so great and accurate a zoologist as M. Pallas makes no mention of this pore, as he made his descriptions chiefly from the dried skins of this animal. The use of this pore, which is also found in the deer, is for affording respiration, a circumstance so essential to beasts of chase. See *CERVUS*.

2. *CAPRA D. CORINNA*, the *corine antelope*, has very slender, short, smooth horns, slightly bent like a lyre, six inches long, surrounded with circular *rugæ*: on each side of the face is a white line; beneath that is one of a black: the neck, body, and flanks are tawny; belly and inside of the thighs white; on the knees is a tuft of hair. It is less than a roe-buck, and inhabits Senegal.

3. *CAPRA D. DAMA*, the *NAGUER* of Buffon, or *Swift Antelope* of Pennant, and, in his opinion, the *xapas* of Ælian, has round horns, 8 inches long, hooked forwards at the ends. The general colour is tawny; but this species varies in that particular. It inhabits Senegal, and is easily tamed. It is so very swift, that Ælian compares its flight to the rapidity of a whirl-wind.

4. *CAPRA D. GAZELLA*, the *Gazelle*, or *Barbary antelope* of Buffon, and the *Antelope Dorcas* of Kerr, has horns 12 inches long, bent like a lyre, and annulated with 13 prominent rings; the upper parts of the body are reddish brown; the under parts and buttocks white; both are divided by a dusky line. Dr Gmelin supposes this to be the *DISCHON* of Moses, or the *Roe* of the mountains mentioned by Solomon. Shaw reckons it the *Tzebi* of scripture. It goes in large flocks, is very timid and easily tamed. It inhabits Barbary, Egypt, Arabia, and Syria.

5. *CAPRA D. GRIMMIA*, the *ANTILOPE GRIMMIA* of Gmelin and Pallas, and the *Guinea antelope* of Pennant, is a very elegant animal, about 18 inches high, with horns about 3 inches long. It is the *MOSCHUS GRIMMIA*, of Linnæus. See *MOSCHUS*.

6. *CAPRA D. GUTTUROSA*, the *Tzeiran*, or *Yellow Goat*, of Du Halde, and the *Chinese antelope* of Pennant, is of a reddish colour, and has lyrated yellow horns, 9 inches long, and surrounded with 20 rings. It is about 4 feet 4 inches long, 24 high, at the shoulders. This species inhabits the deserts of Mongolia, and those from China to Thibet, and the N. borders of India. They keep in flocks, are very swift, extremely timid, and take prodigious leaps. They are equally afraid of woods and waters. They have a large moveable protuberance on the neck, owing to a singular construction of the wind-pipe. The female wants horns.

7. *CAPRA D. KEVELLA* of Pallas, the *KEVEL* of Buffon, or *flat-horned antelope* of Pennant, has horns 12 inches long, flattened on their sides, inclining first backwards, bending in the middle, and then reverting forwards at their ends, and annulated with from 14 to 18 rings: the upper side of the body is reddish brown; lower part and buttocks are white: the size equal to a roe-buck.

. They

They inhabit Senegal, Barbary and Persia, where they live in great flocks, are easily tamed, and are excellent meat.

8. CAPRA D. KOBIA, the Senegal antelope of Pennant, has horns 17 inches long; thick, annulated with 18 rings, and lyrate; very close at the roots, and smooth, sharp, and bent backwards at the ends. It is a large species, Mr Pennant having had a skin of one, 7 feet long. The head and body are a light reddish brown; the rump a dirty white, and the tail a foot long and blackish. Mr Kerr supposes this to be the *Hart-beest* of the Cape.

9. CAPRA D. LERWIA, the ANTELOPE KOB of Erxleben, or *Gambian antelope* of Pennant, is of the size of a fallow deer, reddish coloured, with a remarkable tuft of hair on the neck; and has horns 13 inches long, $5\frac{1}{2}$ round at the base, surrounded with 8 or 9 rings; very distant in the middle, but approaching very near at the points, which are smooth. The Lerwee inhabits Africa.

10. CAPRA D. LEUCOPHÆA, the BLUE ANTELOPE of Pennant, or the BLUE GOAT of Kolben, is larger than a fallow deer, and forms the link between the goat and antelope kinds. The fur is of a fine blue and velvet like appearance: the horns are roundish, annulated with 20 prominent rings, and bent backwards in an arch. It inhabits the country N. of the Cape of Good Hope.

11. CAPRA D. LEUCORYX has the nose thick and broad, like that of a cow; the ears somewhat fouching; body clumsy and thick: The horns long, very slightly incurvated, slender, annulated part of the way; black-pointed. The tail is tufted, and reaches to the first joint of the legs. The colour is in all parts a snowy white, except the middle of the face, sides of the cheeks, and limbs, which are tinged with red. This species is about the size of a Welch runt; and inhabits Gow-Bahrein, an isle in the gulph of Bassora.

12. CAPRA D. OREAS, the ELK-ANTELOPE of Sparman, and the *Indian antelope* of Pennant, has thick straight horns, marked with two prominent spiral ribs near two thirds of their length, smooth towards their end; some above two feet long. The head is of a reddish colour, bounded on the cheeks by a dusky line. The fore head is broad; and has a stripe of long loose hairs; and on the lower part of the dewlap, a large tuft of black hair. The nose is pointed. Along the neck and back, from head to tail, is a black short mane: the rest of the body is of a blueish grey, tinged with red. The tail does not reach to the first joint of the leg; is covered with short cinereous hair; and the end tufted with long black hairs. The hoofs are short, surrounded at their junction with the legs by a circle of black hairs. The height to the shoulders is 5 feet. It is thick bodied and strongly made; but the legs are slender. It wants the *sinus lacrymalis*. The females are horned like the males.—The Caffres call this species *empofos* and *posfo*. The Dutch of the Cape call it the *eland*, or *elk*. Buffon is by some accused of a mistake in calling this the *coudous*, a name which it is said, he ought to have bestowed on his *axodoma*. Mr Kerr follows him, however, in this, and has doubtless investigated the subject. This species inhabits India, Congo, and the southern

parts of Africa. They live in herds; but the old males are often solitary. They grow very fat, especially about the breast and heart: so that they are easily caught; and when pursued, will sometimes fall dead in the chace. They are slow runners: when roused, always go against the wind, nor can the hunters (even if they front the herd,) divert them from their course. The flesh is fine-grained, very delicious, and juicy. The hide is tough: the Hottentots make tobacco pipes of the horns.

13. CAPRA D. OREOTRAGUS, the African antelope of Schreber, has very straight tapering sharp-pointed horns, slightly wrinkled at the base. The head is reddish; the upper parts of the body, a greenish yellow, and the under parts a light ash colour. The tail is very short. It inhabits Africa.

14. CAPRA D. PICTA, the NYLGHAU, or *white-footed antelope* of Pennant and Erxleben, has short horns, bending a little forward; ears large, marked with two black stripes; a small black mane on the neck, and half way down the back: a tuft of long hairs on the fore part of the neck; above that, a large spot of white; another between the fore legs on the chest: one white spot on each fore foot; two on each hind foot: the tail is long, tufted with black hairs. The colour of the male is a dark grey. The female is of a pale brown colour; with a mane, tuft, and striped ears, like the male; on each foot 3 transverse bands of black and two of white: It is destitute of horns. The height to the top of the shoulders is 4 feet, 1 inch; the length, from the bottom of the neck to the anus, 4 feet. The head is like that of a stag; the legs are delicate. These animals inhabit the distant and interior parts of India, remote from our settlements. They are brought down as curiosities to the Europeans, and have of late years been frequently imported into England. In the days of Aureng-Zebe, they abounded between Delhi and Lahor, on the way to Cachemire. They were called *nyl-ghau*, i. e. *blue or grey bulls*; and were one of the objects of chace, with that mighty prince, during his journey. They were inclosed by his army of hunters within nets, which, being drawn gradually closer, at length formed a small precinct: into this the king, his omrahs, and hunters, entered, and killed the beasts with arrows, spears, or muskets; and sometimes in such numbers, that Aureng-Zebe used to send quarters as presents to all his great people. They are usually very gentle, feed readily, and lick the hands which give them food. In confinement they will eat oats, but prefer grass and hay; are very fond of wheaten bread; and when thirsty, they will drink two gallons at once. They are said to be at times very vicious and fierce. When the males fight, they drop on their knees at a distance from one another, make their approaches in that attitude, and when they come near, spring and dart at each other. They often, in a state of confinement, fall into that posture without doing any harm. They sometimes, however, attack mankind unprovoked. A labourer, who was looking over some pales which inclosed a few of them, was alarmed by one of the males flying at him like lightning; but he was saved by the intervention of the wood work, which it broke to pieces, and

the back; ears almost as long as the horns; hair soft and bright; is in all parts of a reddish colour, but pale on the chest; the tail is very short. It inhabits Senegal and the Cape; where it is very frequent, and is a common food. It is 4 feet long, and 2 feet 3 inches high.

26. *CAPRA D. SALTANS*, the SPRINGER ANTelope of Peninsular, has slender horns, annulated half way, and twice contorted. The ears are very long and dusky. The face, cheeks, nose, chin, and throat, are white. The whole upper side of the neck, part of the lower, the back, sides, and outside of the limbs, are of a pale yellowish brown. The chest, belly, and inside of the limbs, are white; the sides and belly divided by a broad band of chestnut which runs down part of the shoulders. The tail reaches to the first joint of the leg; the upper part white; the lower black, and furnished with long hair. The buttocks are white; and from the tail half way up the back is a stripe of white, expandible at pleasure. The elegant species weighs about 500 lbs. and is rather less than a deer-buck. It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope, where it is called the *spring hart*, from the prodigious leaps it takes to the sight of any body. When alarmed, it has the power of expanding the white space about the tail into the form of a circle, which renders its linear form when the animal is tranquil. These animals migrate annually from the interior parts to small herds, and come out in the neighbourhood of the Cape for 2 or 3 months, then join companies, covering the great plains for several hours in their passage. They are attended in their migrations by numbers of lions, hyenas, and other wild beasts, which make great havoc among them. They are excellent eating, and with other antelopes are the ven-

ue of the
of a lion
the ant
was a l
than the
part of the
and h can
from are on
Antelope
neck a long
long neck
to the tail
corrupte by
dies much
gives out
great deal
finer and
exceeds the
times more
is a
of the
down the
has been
but
from
of the
is a
be
of the
corrupte
that they
it
on the first
part. The
four. It is
which is
The
corrupte
Antelope

compressed sideways, with a ridge on the one side and are sometimes 4 feet long in a straight line. They are naturally of a dusky colour, and annulated; but are generally brought over highly polished. The females are destitute of horns. In the upper jaw is a hard horny substance, disposed in ridges. The length of the animal is 9 feet, the ears, mixed with grey; and from the tail, along the top of the back, to the shoulders, is a white stripe, from which are 7 others, 4 pointing towards the thighs, and 3 towards the belly; but they vary in number of stripes. On the upper part of the neck is a short mane; beneath the mane, from the throat to the breast, are some long hairs hanging down. It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope, where it is called *coedoe*, and is said to leap to a most astonishing height. This species wants the *faux lacrymalis*.

27. *CAPRA D. SURGUTTERDEA*, the Persian Antelope of Schreber, has horns above 23 inches long, bent like a lyre, the upper parts of the body are of a brownish ash colour; the under parts pure white, with a yellowish white stripe along each side. The throat has a protuberance on the fore part. It is the size of a roe, and lives in large flocks in Persia, between the Caspian and Erzerum.

28. *CAPRA D. SYLVATICA*, the ROE-ANTelope, according to Sir Sparrman, unknown to all the moderns, till he described it, in the *Memoirs of the Swedish academy* for 1780, by the name of *antelope sylvatica*. This animal has obtained its name it goes by, from its being the only one among the gazels in Africa, which lives in the woods and groves. In fact, it is somewhat about 25 feet high. The horns are 10 inches long; the

ears 5 inches. The horns are black, triangular, and wreathed, so that both the sides and angles have somewhat of a spiral turn. At bottom they are rather rough, in consequence of a set of almost innumerable wavy rings; which, however, are not elevated much above the surface. At top they are conical and sharp pointed, and as smooth as if polished. It has no fore teeth or *incisores* except in the lower jaw, where it has 8. It has no *porus ceriferus*. The hairs on the head are very short and fine; farther down more rough and rugged, resembling goats hair. Forwards on the neck, breast, sides, and belly, they are $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 inches long. On the ridge of the neck, and along that of the back, they are 3 or 4 inches in length, so as to form a kind of mane, terminating in a tail about a finger's breadth long. On the hind part of the thighs and buttocks, the hairs are 8 inches long; the legs and feet are slender, and covered with short hairs; the fetlock joints are small; the nose and under lip are decorated with black whiskers about an inch long. The predominant colour is dark brown, which occupies the principal part of the sides, the back, the upper part of the tail of the chest and fore ribs, and the fore part of the belly. A still darker brown, bordering upon black, is discoverable on the outside of the shoulders, and some part of the fore ribs. The fore part of the nose, from the eyes to the muzzle, is of a foot colour. The ears are as black as foot on the outside, but on the inside grey; and both outwards and inwards covered with hairs still shorter than those on the head; excepting half the fore part of the lower edge, where the hairs are white and half an inch long. From 9 to 12 small white spots are on the haunches and the sides near them. A narrow line of long white hairs extends from the neck along the back and tail, in the midst of the long brown hairs. From the chine of the back to the sides run 5 white parallel streaks, only discoverable by a close inspection. This creature does much mischief to the vineyards and kitchen gardens of the Cape colonists; and it shows a great deal of craft and artifice in avoiding the snares and traps set for it, as well as the ambuscades of the sportsmen. As he runs slowly, he is sometimes caught by dogs. When he sees there is no other resource, he puts himself in a posture of defence; and when he is going to butt, kneels down, like the white-footed antelope and the hart-beest. The colonists are not very fond of hunting him in this manner, as on this occasion he generally sells his life very dear, by killing some of their best hounds. This creature's horns, which are its chief defence, sometimes also prove its bane, by being entangled in the bushes and small branches of trees. To avoid this, it carries its nose horizontally straight forward while it runs; so that they lie directly on its neck: notwithstanding which the horns are generally worn away a little on the fore part, and thus acquire some degree of polish. This species is monogamous, or keeps in pairs. It is swifter in woodlands than the dogs, which likewise sooner lose scent of him there. The female, which has no horns, and on that account runs about in the forest more free and unimpeded, does not suffer herself so easily to be hunted out of the woods, having a more certain

defence against the dogs in her legs, than the male has in his horns, especially as she is not so bulky and heavy as the male. Her breast is said to be very plump and fleshy, but the flesh in general is not very tender.

23. *CAPRA D. TRAGOCAMELUS*, the *Biggel* of Mandesloe, or *Indostan antelope* of Pennant, has horns 7 inches long, bent forward; a short mane, a large tufted hump on the shoulders, and a tail 22 inches long, terminated with flowing hairs. It inhabits India, is near 5 feet high, and resembles the camel in the reversed arch of its neck and its manner of kneeling. The hair is soft, short, smooth, and light ash-coloured; in some parts dusky; beneath the breast and tail white; and on the fore head is a black spot of a rhomboid figure. On the lower part of the chest the skin hangs loose like the dew-lap of a cow: the hind parts of the body resemble those of an ass, and the limbs are slender.

VIII. *CAPRA GAZELLA*, the goat antelope of Linnæus, the *ANTILOPE ORYX*, or *BEZOARTICA* of Pallas, the *Pasan* of Buffon, or *Egyptian antelope* of Pennant, has straight, slender, distinctly annulated horns 3 feet long, which taper to a point: The body and sides are of a reddish ash colour, with a dusky line along the back. It inhabits Syria, Arabia, Persia, India, Egypt, Ethiopia, and the Cape. It is about the size of a fallow deer. Dr Gmelin takes this for the *ZERI* of scripture.

IX. *CAPRA GNOU*, has scabrous horns, thick at the base, bending forward close to the head, then suddenly reverting upwards. The mouth is square; the nostrils covered with broad flaps. From the nose, half way up the front, is a thick oblong square brush of long stiff black hairs reflected upwards, on each side of which the other hairs are long, and point closely down the cheeks. Round the eyes are disposed in a radiated form several strong hairs. The neck is short, and a little arched. On the top a strong and upright mane, reaching from the horns beyond the shoulders. On the chin is a long white beard; and on the gullet a very long pendulous bunch of hair. On the breast, and between the fore legs, the hairs are very long and black. The tail reaches to the first joint of the legs, and is full of hair like that of a horse, and quite white. The body is thick; and covered with smooth short hair of a rusty brown colour tipped with white. The legs are long, elegant, and slender, like those of a stag. On each foot is only a single spurious or hind hoof. It is a strange compound of animals: having a vast head like that of an ox; body and tail, like a horse; legs like a stag; and the sinus lacrymalis of an antelope. Its ordinary size is about that of a common galloway; its length being somewhat above 5, and height rather more than 4 feet. — These animals inhabit in great numbers the fine plains of the great Namacquas, far N. of the Cape of Good Hope, extending from S. Lat. 25° to $28^{\circ} 42'$. where Africa seems at once to open its vast treasures of hoofed quadrupeds. The gnou is an exceedingly fierce animal: on the sight of any body it usually drops its head, and puts itself into an attitude of offence; and will dart with its horns against the pales of the inclosure towards the persons on the outside; yet it will afterwards take the

er approach. His sense of hearing is equally acute, for he hears the smallest noise. When the wind blows in the direction of a man, he will perceive the scent at the distance of more than half a league. Hence, when he smells or hears any thing which alarms him, he whistles with such force, that the rocks and forests re-echoe the sound. All his brethren, that are near, take the alarm. This whistling is performed through the nostrils, and consists of a strong blowing, similar to the sound which a man may make by fixing his tongue to the palate, with his teeth nearly shut, his lips open, and somewhat extended, and blowing long and with great force. The chamois is very fond of the leaves and tender buds of shrubs, particularly of the *meum athamanta*. Kramer, in his *Hist. Nat. Aust.* supposes the balls called *ægagropilæ*, found in his stomach, to be occasioned by this food. See *ÆGAGROPILÆ*. He ruminates like the common goat. The food he uses announces the heat of his constitution. He is admired for his large round eyes, whose size corresponds with the vivacity of his disposition. His head is adorned with two small horns, from half a foot to 9 inches in length. Their colour is a fine black, and they are placed on the front nearly between his eyes; and, instead of being reflected backward, like those of other animals, they advance forward above the eyes, and bend backward at the points, which are extremely sharp. He adjusts his ears most beautifully to the points of his horns. Two tufts of black hair descend from his horns to the sides of his face. The rest of the head is of a yellowish white colour, which never changes. The horns of the chamois are used for the heads of canes. Those of the female are smaller and less crooked. The skin of the chamois, when dressed, is very strong, nervous, and supple, and makes excellent riding breeches, gloves, and vests. Garments of this kind last long, and are of great use to manufacturers. The chamois goats are so impatient of heat, that, in summer, they are only to be found under the shades of caverns in the rocks, among masses of congealed snow and ice, or in elevated forest. On the northern declivities of the most scabrous mountains where the rays of the sun seldom penetrate. They pasture in the mornings and evenings, and seldom during the day. Their mode of climbing or descending inaccessible rocks is admirable. They neither mount nor descend perpendicularly, but in an oblique line. When descending, particularly, they throw themselves down across a rock which is nearly perpendicular, and of 20 or 30 feet in height, without having a single prop to support their feet. In doing this, they strike their feet 3 or 4 times against the rock, till they arrive at a proper resting place below. The spring of their tendons is so great, that, when leaping about among the precipices, one would imagine they had wings instead of limbs. His legs are long; those behind are somewhat longer, and always crooked, which favours their springing to a great distance; and, when they throw themselves from a height, the hind legs receive the shock, and perform the office of two springs in breaking the fall. During winter, they inhabit the lower forests, and live upon pine leaves, the buds of trees, berries, and such green or dry herbs as they can

find by scratching off the snow with their feet. The forests that delight them most, are those which are very full of rocks and precipices. The hunting of the chamois is very difficult and laborious. See HUNTING. This species is ranked among the *antilopes* by *M. Pennant* and *Koenig*, *Dr Gmelin*, &c.

XV. *CAPRA TARTARICA*, the SAIGA of *Bis-fon*, has cylindrical, straight, annulated horns; the points inclining inward, the ends smooth; the other part surrounded with very prominent annuli; of a pale yellow colour, and the greatest part semipellucid; the cutting teeth are placed so close in their sockets, as to move with the least touch. The male is covered with rough hair like the goat, and has a very strong smell; the female is smoother. The hair on the sides and throat is long, and resembles wool; that on the neck and head is hoary; the back and sides of a dirty white; the breast, belly, and inside of the thighs, of a shining white. The females are destitute of horns. These animals inhabit all the deserts from the Danube and Dnieper to the river Irtysh, but not beyond. Nor are they ever seen to the N. of 54° or 55° Lat. They are found in Poland, Moldavia, about Mount Caucasus, the Caspian Sea, and Siberia, in the dreary open deserts, where salt springs abound, feeding on the salt, the acrid and aromatic plants of those countries, and grow in summer very fat: but their flesh acquires a taste disagreeable to many people, and is scarcely eatable, until it is suffered to grow cold after dressing. The females go with young the whole winter; and bring forth in the northern deserts in May. The young are covered with a soft fleece, like new dropt lambs, and curled and waved. They are regularly migratory. In the rutting season, late in autumn, they collect in flocks of thousands, and retire into the southern deserts. In the spring they divide into little flocks, and return northward. The males feed promiscuously with the females and their young. They rarely lie down all at the same time: but, by a providential instinct, some are always keeping watch; and when they are tired, they seemingly give notice to such as have taken their rest, who arise instantly, and relieve the centinels of the preceding hours. They thus often preserve themselves from the attack of wolves, and from the surprize of the hunters. They are excessively swift, and will outrun the fleetest horse or grey hound; yet partly through fear, (for they are the most timid of animals,) and partly by the shortness of their breath, they are very soon taken. If they are bit by a dog, they instantly fall down, nor will they even offer to rise. In running they seem to incline on one side. In a wild state they seem to have no voice. When brought up tame, the young emit a short sort of bleating, like sheep. The males are very libidinous. When taken young, they may easily be tamed; but if caught at full age, they are so wild and obstinate as to refuse food; and if they die, their noses are quite flaccid. They are hunted for the sake of their flesh, horns, and skins, which are excellent for gloves, belts, &c. See HUNTING. The fat resembles that of mutton; in taste, that of a buck: the head is reckoned the most delicate part.





